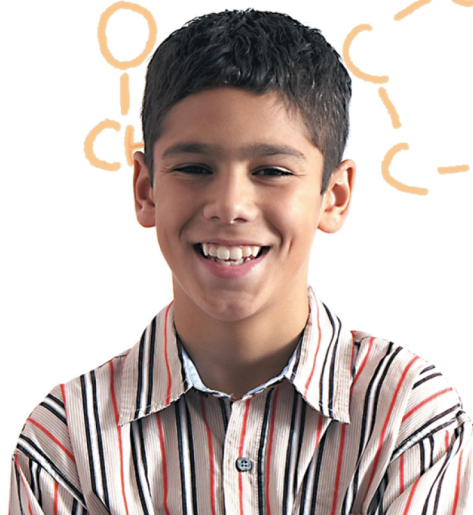


Mareike Kobarg  
Manfred Prenzel  
Tina Seidel  
Maurice Walker  
Barry McCrae  
John Cresswell  
Jörg Wittwer



# **An International Comparison of Science Teaching and Learning**

## Further Results from PISA 2006

WAXMANN



An International Comparison  
of Science Teaching and Learning



Mareike Kobarg, Manfred Prenzel, Tina Seidel,  
Maurice Walker, Barry McCrae, John Cresswell, Jörg Wittwer

# An International Comparison of Science Teaching and Learning

Further Results from PISA 2006



Waxmann 2011

Münster / New York / München / Berlin

**Bibliographic information published by die Deutsche Nationalbibliothek**

Die Deutsche Nationalbibliothek lists this publication in the Deutsche Nationalbibliografie; detailed bibliographic data are available in the internet at <http://dnb.d-nb.de>.

This book could not have been published without the support of Uwe Altmann, Claus Carstensen, Eveline Gebhardt, Cornelia Gerigk, Verena Hane, Gráinne Newcombe, Wolfgang Schulz & Jennifer Wong.

ISBN 978-3-8309-2506-4

© Waxmann Verlag GmbH, 2011

Postfach 8603, 48046 Münster, Germany

Waxmann Publishing Co.

P. O. Box 1318, New York, NY 10028, U. S. A.

[www.waxmann.com](http://www.waxmann.com)

[info@waxmann.com](mailto:info@waxmann.com)

Cover Design: Christian Averbeck, Münster

Cover Picture: Junges mädchen beim nachdenken, © contrastwerkstatt, Fotolia.com

High school student in front of whiteboard, © Corbis, Fotolia.com

Print: Hubert & Co., Göttingen

Printed on age-resistant paper, acid-free as per ISO 9706



**Mix**

Produktgruppe aus vorbildlich bewirtschafteten  
Wäldern und anderen kontrollierten Herkünften

[www.fsc.org](http://www.fsc.org) Zert.-Nr. SGS-COC-005773

© 1996 Forest Stewardship Council

Printed in Germany

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, electrostatic, magnetic tape, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without permission in writing from the copyright holder.

# Contents

1	Science Teaching and Learning.....	7
1.1	Introduction.....	7
1.2	Framework for the investigation of science teaching and learning.....	10
1.2.1	Time to learn science in school (lesson time).....	15
1.2.2	Interactive science teaching.....	15
1.2.3	Hands-on activities.....	17
1.2.4	Student investigations.....	18
1.2.5	Real-life applications.....	18
1.2.6	Enquiry-based teaching models.....	20
1.2.7	Context for science teaching.....	21
1.3	Research Questions.....	22
2	General and School Settings for Science Teaching and Learning.....	23
2.1	General settings for science teaching in OECD countries.....	23
2.2	School settings for science teaching in OECD countries.....	29
2.3	Conclusion.....	34
3	Time Students Spend Learning Science.....	36
3.1	Opportunities to learn science in and out-of-school.....	36
3.2	In-school science learning time.....	39
3.3	Association between learning time and scientific literacy.....	43
3.4	Conclusion.....	46
4	Characteristics of Science Teaching and Learning.....	48
4.1	Science teaching and learning in OECD countries.....	53
4.1.1	Interactive science teaching.....	53
4.1.2	Hands-on activities.....	55
4.1.3	Student investigations.....	58
4.1.4	Real-life applications.....	60
4.2	Comparison of the four teaching and learning scales.....	62
4.3	Conclusion.....	66
5	International Patterns of Scientific Enquiry and their Effects on Students' Scientific Literacy.....	69
5.1	Introduction.....	69
5.2	International patterns of scientific enquiry in science teaching and learning.....	70
5.3	Effects of patterns of scientific enquiry on scientific literacy.....	75

5.3.1	Effects of the three patterns of scientific enquiry on students' science performance .....	76
5.3.2	Effects of the three patterns of scientific enquiry on students' interest in science topics.....	78
5.4	Conclusion .....	81
6	Implications for Policy and Practice.....	84
6.1	Introduction.....	84
6.2	Key findings of the description of science teaching and its effects on students' scientific literacy .....	84
6.2.1	The context of science teaching in schools.....	84
6.2.2	Time to learn science in school is an important condition to build scientific literacy .....	85
6.2.3	Emphasis on different science teaching and learning activities in OECD countries.....	87
6.2.4	International patterns of scientific enquiry as supportive conditions for scientific literacy .....	88
6.3	Implications for educational policy and practice.....	89
	References.....	92
	List of Tables .....	98
	List of Figures.....	100

# 1 Science Teaching and Learning

## 1.1 Introduction

School is the place where young people are systematically familiarized with science over a long period of time. In today's world, scientific competencies are still primarily gained in school. It is, therefore, a place where students have the opportunity to develop a basic understanding of scientific concepts, scientific methods and scientific ways of thinking. In addition, students can start to comprehend the importance of science and may become interested in science topics.

The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) is an assessment of 15-year-old students, which is carried out every three years in the participating countries. The age of 15 was chosen as, in most OECD countries, it represents the age when students reach the end of their compulsory education. A test at this age, therefore, represents a measure of the students' accumulation of educational experiences over a number of years and gives an indication as to how well the students are prepared for the future. PISA assesses three main subjects – reading, mathematics and science. In each survey one of these subjects is the focus of the assessment – in PISA 2000 it was reading, in PISA 2003 it was mathematics and in PISA 2006 it was science. This means that the majority of the two-hour testing time is devoted to that subject. In addition to the assessment, students also complete a questionnaire which indicates their home background, attitudes toward school and, in 2006, their interest in science-related topics as well as the likelihood that they would follow a science-orientated career.

The international report on PISA 2006, (OECD, 2007a) described the science competencies that 15-year-old students develop. The report provided a detailed profile of the science knowledge and skills at the national and international levels and described performance in science for different sub-groups in relation to gender and other background influences. The framework for the assessment of scientific literacy also underlined the relevance of students' attitudes and motivational orientations towards science. The report, however, did not systematically consider science learning environments in schools and their relationship to cognitive and motivational outcomes in terms of scientific literacy. Some of the differences in scientific literacy found in PISA 2006 may be attributed to different learning opportunities in school. Therefore, the conditions under which adolescents deal with science in school lessons should be investigated: What are the conditions? How systematically does the work in science take place? What are typical approaches to teaching



science in school? Which didactical approaches can be found in the participating countries? What do the differences in these approaches mean for students' development of scientific literacy and science-related attitudes, orientations and interests?

With its main focus on science, PISA 2006 was able to examine, in detail, some facets of science teaching and learning in the OECD countries. Using questionnaires, students were asked to describe characteristics of their science lessons that provide opportunities for meaningful learning experiences. The major aim of this report is to investigate how science is taught in the OECD, to study the diversity of science teaching and learning, and to describe typical approaches taken in science teaching. The report also explores the relationship between patterns of science teaching and the level of scientific literacy and interest in science of 15-year-old students.

The questionnaires used for the description of science teaching and learning in PISA 2006 are based on current international research (Scheerens, Seidel, Witziers, Hendriks, & Doornekamp, 2005; Seidel & Prenzel, 2006, Seidel & Shavelson, 2007). Accordingly, the questions are targeted towards teaching and learning activities that are expected to have a positive effect on the development of scientific competencies. Conditions for effective science teaching and learning include the lesson time provided, the degree of interactive teaching, and the frequency of experiments, as well as an introduction to scientific research approaches, scientific modelling, and the application of knowledge and principles. Recent research in science teaching and learning shows that effective science teaching does not necessarily rely on one particular method (Aebli, 1998; Baumert & Köller, 2000a; Prenzel, Seidel, Lehrke, Rimmele, Duit et al., 2002). It is the orchestration, the adaptivity, and the dosage of teaching activities and approaches that is important. The didactical approach of the teacher has to take into account the specific situation and students' backgrounds (Seidel, 2006). Successful teaching is characterised by a variety of methods that carefully support student learning. Good practice in science teaching involves a clear cognitive structure and precise instructions, but also allows and encourages students to use their mind and to develop their own interpretations from scientific experiments.

Data from PISA 2006 enable lesson features to be described from the perspective of the students. In the questionnaire, they were asked which characteristics of science teaching and learning occur in their lessons. In principle, this procedure of describing teaching through students is considered reliable. This is especially true for student questionnaires at a national level where students' ratings are based on a

more or less common cultural background. However, if learning contexts (e.g. types of schools) are differentiated within a country, differences in responses emerge due to variations in the bases for comparison. The same effect occurs if we compare ratings of students from different countries. Thus, an international comparison of science teaching and learning carried out on the basis of student questionnaires must be interpreted cautiously, as the country-specific reference points for student responses can be different between countries.

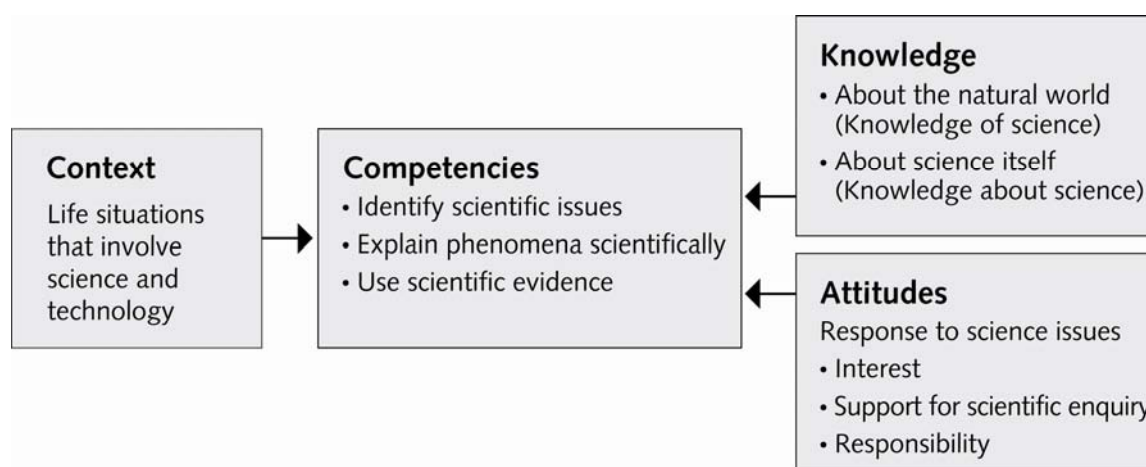
PISA 2006 took these methodological aspects into consideration when formulating the questionnaire items. The student questionnaire is focused on lesson characteristics which – according to international research on teaching and learning – support learning processes in general and are thus relevant in all the countries tested (Scheerens et al., 2005; Seidel & Prenzel, 2006; Seidel & Shavelson, 2007). In particular, the questions refer to observable events which make it easier for students to evaluate lesson characteristics in a way that is independent of subjective comparison. They ask about the frequency with which clearly definable teaching and learning activities occur in science lessons. With this methodology PISA can provide insights into international science teaching and learning. The data collected allow a description of the focus of teaching and learning activities in the context of an international comparison. Of particular interest in this context is whether specific teaching patterns can be identified in the ways in which countries make students familiar with scientific methods and scientific ways of thinking. Thus, the way in which teaching patterns are related to the scientific literacy and interests developed by 15-year-olds will be analysed.

PISA aims to provide reliable, valid internationally comparative data about secondary school students. To do this most effectively, an age based sample is at the core of the design. The fact that the PISA sample is based on age rather than grade does, however, impose some restrictions on the design of the survey. For example, PISA does not include sampling on the classroom level. Therefore, the reports from students cannot be aggregated at that level, making it difficult to provide a complete description of science teaching (Wittwer, 2008). Furthermore, many countries offer science as one comprehensive subject in their schools, while other countries divide science into different disciplines. Moreover, one must keep in mind that PISA asks about features of science teaching in the current school year, while, in fact, student performance in PISA is a result of many years of cumulative learning. When connections between instructional practices and students' test performance are analysed and interpreted; all of these aspects indicate the need for caution.

The report, therefore, provides information about questions regarding the context of science teaching and learning in the OECD countries, the time that students spend on science, the perceptions that students have about their science lessons and whether different patterns of science teaching are related to different levels of student performance in PISA.

## 1.2 Framework for the investigation of science teaching and learning

In the PISA 2006 science framework (OECD, 2006) it is stated that an understanding of science and technology, as well as positive attitudes towards science, are essential to a young person's preparedness for life in modern society. An understanding of science and technology enables people to fully participate in a society in which science and technology play a vital role. As a basis for the development of an international assessment of science, PISA 2006 asks "What is important for citizens to know, value, and be able to do in situations involving science and technology?" (OECD, 2006). The framework for the assessment of scientific literacy, summarised in Figure 1.1, provides directions to answer this question.



*Figure 1.1: Framework for scientific literacy in PISA 2006 (OECD, 2006)*

The core of this framework includes three competencies people will need to participate in modern society. The competencies are:

- (1) Identifying scientific issues; this means, for example, being able to differentiate whether a question can be investigated scientifically, but this competency also encompasses a basic understanding of scientific enquiry
- (2) Explaining phenomena scientifically; this competency enables people to make sense of certain situations that require an understanding of science as a process that produces knowledge and proposes explanations about the natural world.