### Iowa Science Teachers Journal

Volume 37 | Number 2

Article 2

2010

# When Dissatisfaction is a Good Thing

Michael P. Clough Iowa Academy of Science

Jerrid Kruse Iowa Academy of Science

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.uni.edu/istj



Part of the Science and Mathematics Education Commons

Let us know how access to this document benefits you

Copyright © Copyright 2010 by the Iowa Academy of Science

### **Recommended Citation**

Clough, Michael P. and Kruse, Jerrid (2010) "When Dissatisfaction is a Good Thing," Iowa Science Teachers Journal: Vol. 37: No. 2, Article 2.

Available at: https://scholarworks.uni.edu/istj/vol37/iss2/2

This Editorial is brought to you for free and open access by the IAS Journals & Newsletters at UNI ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Iowa Science Teachers Journal by an authorized editor of UNI ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@uni.edu.

Offensive Materials Statement: Materials located in UNI ScholarWorks come from a broad range of sources and time periods. Some of these materials may contain offensive stereotypes, ideas, visuals, or language.

# When Dissatisfaction is a Good Thing

### Dr. Michael P. Clough and Dr. Jerrid Kruse

Our previous editorial (Clough and Kruse, 2010) in the lowa Science Teacher Journal used conceptual change theory (Posner, 1982; Pintrich et al., 1993; Abd-El-Khalick & Akerson, 2004; Clough, 2006) to highlight the similarities between students learning science content and educators learning to teach well. An important part of conceptual change is first acknowledging and then confronting current ways of thinking. That is, before learners (whether children or adults) will consider altering their thinking, they must first develop some sense of dissatisfaction with their currently held ideas. That can be difficult because the ideas people hold do appear to work — that is why they are satisfied with their current thinking.

For example, many middle school students maintain that "heavy" objects sink and "light" objects float. When asked to explain why they think that, many examples are provided of heavy objects sinking. And, of course, many heavy objects do sink! That's why misconceptions are so resilient; they often do have a grain of truth to them. Thus, even though students may memorize the formula for density, or appear to conceptually understand density, probing often shows deeply held misconceptions regarding why things sink and float. The ability of learners to hold incongruent perspectives side-by-side for use in different contexts with no awareness of a contradiction is well established (Resnick 1987; Galili & Bar 1992; Mortimer 1995; Tyson et al. 1997). What this means is that learners will unlikely abandon their misconceptions without first coming to accept that those ideas don't work as well as they previously thought.

Clear and compelling evidence and reasoning must be directed at confronting strongly held misconceptions to create the dissatisfaction that will result in learners considering alternative ideas. Consider for instance when students are shown several very heavy objects that float and several very light objects that sink. Any teacher who has done this and then asked students to reflect on how what they've observed fits with their thinking that "heavy things sink" can attest to the cognitive dissonance seen on students' faces. Moreover, continuing student reflection with a question such as "What is the demarcating line between heavy and light?" helps students see cracks in their previous explanation regarding sinking and floating. These sorts of direct experiences and cognitive challenges

initiate the dissatisfaction prerequisite to the eventual abandonment of students' intuitively appealing and strongly held ideas regarding floating and sinking. While traditional instruction may quickly have students reciting the correct formula for density with fidelity, if they have not become dissatisfied with their "heavy" logic, students will easily slip into previous problematic ways of thinking.

Politicians, business people, scientists, and even educators also possess strongly held intuitive ideas about teaching and learning. Many of these ideas have rarely been examined, but they are strongly held because they appear to make sense. For instance, many people subscribe to the idea that "as long as the expert tells the story clearly and that the person who is learning is listening and paying attention then they will automatically build up the understanding that the expert has (Driver, 1997)." Reflecting this view, presenting information via lectures, presentation slides, textbook readings, the internet, and cookbook activities just makes sense. These common science teaching practices appear to work because they do have an element of truth about them — in the same way that some heavy things do sink. Moreover, these intuitively obvious ideas about teaching and learning are held by students, parents, policymakers, and even many teachers and administrators. Thus, intuitive views of teaching and learning, the fact that such views have some truth to them, and their widespread appeal coalesce to make difficult creating dissatisfaction with common teaching practices. But as we noted in our last editorial, "Long-held views about learning and teaching science just ain't so, and these misconceptions are hurting students and the teaching profession."

Given the ubiquitous view that teaching is presenting information and learning is recalling that information, and the high stakes testing that reflect and promote that view, why should science teachers question and become dissatisfied with the status quo? We maintain that teachers truly do care about children of all ages and that teaching is a sacred activity (Clough, 2008). This genuine caring for our students and their learning, and acknowledging our responsibility as teachers (in the most noble sense of that word) is what initiates the questioning and dissatisfaction with traditional teaching practices. The connection between genuine

interest in our students' welfare and dissatisfaction with traditional teaching practices is nicely illustrated in the words of Minstrell (1997):

When I started as a teacher, my students, my administrators thought that I was doing a very admirable job. And as long as I asked questions I had trained the students to do, they did fine. But if I snuck up on them just slightly and went for some depth of understanding, then they were in trouble. And that bothered me.

Being bothered by students' superficial recall of fundamental science ideas, their difficulties applying in novel situations what has been previously taught, their misunderstandings of the nature of science, and falling well short of the goals in figure 1 *should* bother us and initiate a sense of dissatisfaction with long held views about teaching and learning.

But obviously something about time-honored science teaching practices makes sense and appears to work. In addition to the intuitive idea that understanding results from having something carefully explained,

### 

- Demonstrate deep and robust understanding of fundamental science concepts.
- · Use critical thinking skills.
- Convey and apply an accurate understanding of the nature of science.
- · Identify and solve problems effectively.
- Use communication and cooperative skills effectively.
- Actively participate in working towards solutions to local, national, and global problems.
- · Be creative and curious.
- · Set goals, make decisions, and self-evaluate.
- · Convey a positive attitude about science.
- Access, retrieve, and use existing scientific knowledge in the process of investigating phenomena.
- Convey self-confidence and a positive self-image.
- Demonstrate an awareness of the importance of science in many careers.

many students do pass our classroom and high-stakes assessments, and some students do successfully enter science and science-related careers. That evidence, like the evidence students cite supporting their views that heavy things sink, appears sufficient to support time-honored teaching practices. However, just as we have students look beyond their superficial confirming evidence for why things sink and float, we must look more broadly at the research regarding students' understanding of science content, the nature of science, and other goals in figure 1.

Perhaps the greatest indictment against traditional instruction is the persistence of students' misconceptions regarding fundamental science ideas despite having been repeatedly told correct science explanations (Lord, 2005; Minds of Our Own, 1997; Private Universe Project, 1995). Indeed, research into the general public's science literacy demonstrates that time-honored science teaching practices do little to improve understanding of science content and the nature of science (Miller, 1983, 1987; NAEP, 1979; Ziman, 1991). Although citizens continually express interest in science, they are largely not well informed about science issues (National Science Board, 1986, 1998, 2000, & 2002). The 1998 National Science Board reports that adults universally could not explain science ideas when asked open-ended questions. Students' superficial grasp of science ideas is illustrated in their inability transfer what has been taught to new contexts (Georghiades, 2000). Even the best students too often struggle to accurately explain and apply what they are told. For instance, graduates from some of our country's finest universities provide naïve intuitive responses to questions regarding science content repeatedly taught in their K-college schooling, and other graduates struggle to light a light bulb with a battery and wire (Minds of Our Own, 1997; Private Universe Project, 1995).

While science content is accurately taught via traditional teaching practices, it is too often not learned by students. Accurate responses on end-of-chapter tests and other recall assessments mask the underlying conceptual misunderstandings that students possess. Those misunderstandings and the inability to apply scientific knowledge in novel circumstances persist despite traditional teaching practices. Furthermore, traditional science teaching practices create and reinforce inaccurate views of the nature of science (Clough, 1995; Durant et al. 1989; Millar and Wynne 1988; Miller 1983, 1987; National Science Board 2002: Rowell & Cawthron, 1982: Rubba, Horner & Smith, 1981; Ryan and Aikenhead, 1992) and make science-related careers appear unappealing.

We do not mean to paint an overly bleak picture of the state of science education. Pockets of undeniably excellent science teaching do exist and science teachers do care about their students. Everything we write here reflects our deep respect for teachers, the teaching profession, and the complexity of truly effective science teaching. However, we must acknowledge the overwhelming evidence that something is amiss with traditional teaching practices, and become dissatisfied with how science teaching is commonly done.

Moreover, defending archaic teaching practices will further intensify the attacks by those who wish to see computers and on-line instruction replace face-to-face teaching. Simply presenting information to students, having them read textbooks, complete worksheets, follow highly directive activities, and repeat back information are not effectively promoting the goals in figure 1. On-line instruction will be just as ineffective as this kind of face-to-face instruction, but it will be less expensive!

We are genuinely concerned that the sacred nature of teaching is being lost as policymakers reduce the goals of schooling to simply passing high stakes exams. Truly effective science teaching practices cannot be replaced by machines. Children deserve the presence of a caring teacher, one who interacts with them and engages them in a way a computer cannot. Intuitive and time-honored science instructional

practices can be easily replicated and replaced by machines, and that alone should make us pause, create a great sense of dissatisfaction about traditional teaching practices, and move us all toward what research has made clear for decades is crucial for a meaningful and effective science teaching and learning.

Choosing to be dissatisfied with long-held teaching practices and the journey toward effective science teaching are cognitively and emotionally challenging — as is all meaningful conceptual change. But the results are worth the effort. Our next two *ISTJ* editorials will address that journey, and the obstacles that can interfere with the most ardent desire to promote highly effective science teaching practices that restore the sacred nature of teaching.

### References

- Abd-El-Khalick, F. & Akerson, V. (2004). Learning as Conceptual Change: Factors Mediating the Development of Preservice Elementary Teachers' Views of Nature of Science. *Science Education*, 88(5), 785-810.
- Clough, M.P. (2006). Learners' responses to the demands of conceptual change: Considerations for effective nature of science instruction. *Science and Education*, 15(5), 463 494.
- Clough, M. P. (2008). Teaching as a Sacred Activity. *Iowa Science Teachers Journal*, Editorial, 35(1), 2. http://www.iacad.org/istj/35/1/editorial 35(1).pdf
- Clough, M. P. (1995). Longitudinal Understanding of the Nature of Science as Facilitated by an Introductory High School Biology Course. *Proceedings of the Third International History, Philosophy,* and Science Teaching Conference, pp. 212-221. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
- Clough, M.P. & Kruse, J.W. (2010). Conceptual Change: It's Not Just for Learning Science. *Iowa Science Teachers Journal*, Editorial, 37(1), 2-3. http://www.iacad.org/istj/37/1/37-1-editorial.pdf
- Driver, R. (1997). In Annenberg/CPB Minds of Our Own Videotape Program One: Can We Believe Our Eyes, Math and Science Collection, P.O. Box 2345, South Burlington, VT 05407-2345.
- Durant, J. R., Evans, G. A., & Thomas, G. P. (1989). The Public Understanding of Science, *Nature*, 340, 11-14.
- Galili, I., & Bar, V. (1992). Motion Implies Force: Where to Expect Vestiges of the Misconceptions?, *International Journal of Science Education*, 14(1), 63-81.
- Georghiades, P. (2000). Beyond conceptual change learning in science education: focusing on transfer, durability, and metacognition. *Educational Research*, 42(2), 119-139.
- Lord, T. (2005). Understanding, the goal of inquiry instruction. Presentation at the National Association of Biology Teachers, Chicago
- Miller, J. D. (1983). Scientific Literacy: A Conceptual and Empirical Review, *Daedalus*, 112(2), 29-48.
- Miller, J. D. (1987). Scientific Literacy in the United States, in the Ciba Foundation Conference program, *Communicating Science to the Public* (pp. 19-40). John Wiley & Sons, Chichester.
- Millar, R. & Wynne, B. (1988). Public Understanding of Science: From Contents to Processes, *International Journal of Science Education*, 10(4), 388-398.

- Minds of Our Own (1997). Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics. http://www.learner.org/resources/series26.html.
- Minstrell, J. (1997). In Annenberg/CPB Minds of Our Own Videotape Program One: Can We Believe Our Eyes, Math and Science Collection, P.O. Box 2345, South Burlington, VT 05407-2345.
- Mortimer, E.F. (1995). Conceptual Change or Conceptual Profile Change?, *Science & Education*, 4(3), 267-285.
- National Assessment of Educational Progress (1979). *Three Assessments of Science, 1969-1977: Technical Summary.* Education Commission of the States National Assessment No. 08-2-21.
- National Science Board (1986). Science Indicators: The 1985 Report, Government Printing Office, Washington D.C.
- National Science Board (1998). Science and Engineering Indicators 1998, National Science Foundation, Arlington VA.
- National Science Board (2000). Science and Engineering Indicators 2000, National Science Foundation, Arlington, VA.
- National Science Board (2002). Science and Engineering Indicators 2002, National Science Foundation, Arlington, VA.
- Pintrich, P.R., Marx, R.W. & Boyle, R.A. (1993). Beyond Cold Conceptual Change: The Role of Motivational Beliefs and Classroom Contextual Factors in the Process of Conceptual Change. *Review of Educational Research*, 63(2), 167-199.
- Posner, G.J., Strike, K.A., Hewson, P.W. & Gertzog, W.A. (1982) Accommodation of a Scientific Conception: Toward a Theory of Conceptual Change. *Science Education*, 66(2), 211-227.
- Private Universe Project (1995). Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics. http://www.learner.org/resources/series29.html.
- Resnick, L.B. (1987). Learning in School and Out: The 1987
  Presidential Address. *Educational Researcher*, 16(9), 13-20.
- Rowell, J.A. & Cawthron, E.R. (1982). Image of Science: An Empirical Study, European Journal of Science Education, 4(1), 79-94.
- Rubba, P.A., J.K. Horner & Smith, J.M. (1981). A Study of Two Misconceptions About the Nature of Science Among Junior High School Students, School Science and Mathematics, 81(3), 221-226.
- Ryan, A.G. & Aikenhead, G.S. (1992). Students' Preconceptions About the Epistemology of Science, *Science Education*, 76(6), 559-580.
- Tyson, L.M., Venville, G.J., Harrison, A.G. & Treagust, D.F. (1997). A Multidimensional Framework for Interpreting Conceptual Change Events in the Classroom, *Science Education*, 81(4), 387-404.
- Ziman, J.(1991). Public Understanding of Science. Science, Technology, & Human Values, 16(1), 99-105.