

## **Chapter 7**

### **Science and Technology: Public Attitudes and Understanding**



**Table of Contents**

1

2 Highlights..... 1

3 Information Sources, Interest, and Engagement ..... 1

4 Public Knowledge about S&T ..... 2

5 Public Attitudes about S&T in General ..... 3

6 Public Attitudes About Specific S&T Issues ..... 4

7 Introduction..... 7

8 Chapter Overview ..... 7

9 Chapter Organization ..... 7

10 A Note About the Data ..... 8

11 Information Sources, Interest, and Involvement..... 8

12 S&T Information Sources ..... 9

13 Public Interest in S&T ..... 12

14 Involvement ..... 16

15 Public Knowledge About S&T ..... 17

16 Understanding Scientific Terms and Concepts..... 19

17 Reasoning and Understanding the Scientific Process ..... 25

18 Understanding of Statistics and Charts ..... 26

19 Pseudoscience ..... 27

20 Public Attitudes About S&T in General ..... 27

21 Promise and Reservations ..... 28

22 Federal Funding of Scientific Research ..... 30

23 Confidence in the Science Community’s Leadership..... 32

24 Influence on Public Issues ..... 33

25 What Makes an Activity Scientific ..... 35

26 Views of S&E Occupations ..... 37

27 Public Attitudes About Specific S&T-Related Issues ..... 39

28 Environment and Climate Change ..... 40

29 Nuclear Power..... 42

30 Biotechnology and Its Medical Applications..... 43

31 Genetically Modified Food ..... 43

1	Nanotechnology .....	44
2	Stem Cell Research and Human Cloning.....	46
3	Science and Mathematics Education .....	48
4	Scientific Research on Animals .....	49
5	Conclusion .....	50
6	Glossary .....	51
7	Notes .....	52
8	References.....	58
9		

1 students had an advantage over adults in that classroom preparation preceded their tests.  
2 Research indicates that learning material, practicing it, and being tested on it periodically  
3 play a critical role in consolidating learning and helping individuals remember the  
4 information (Cepeda et al. 2008; Karpicke and Roediger 2008).

5 The variation patterns on these items were similar to the trend questions.  
6 However, men scored higher than women in all but one of the additional factual  
7 knowledge questions included in the GSS 2008 (appendix table 7-10 and 7-12).

### 8 9 *International Comparisons*

10 Adults in different countries and regions have been asked identical or  
11 substantially similar questions to test their factual knowledge of science. Knowledge  
12 scores for individual items vary from country to country, and no country consistently  
13 outperforms the others (figure 7-11). For the questions reported in figure 7-11,  
14 knowledge scores are relatively low in China, Russia, and Malaysia. Compared with the  
15 United States and the highly-developed countries in Europe, Japanese scores are also  
16 relatively low.<sup>19</sup>

17 Science knowledge scores vary considerably across the EU-25 countries, with  
18 northern European countries, led by Sweden, recording the highest total scores on a set  
19 of 13 questions. For a smaller set of four items that were administered in both 1992 and  
20 2005 in 12 European countries, each country performed better in 2005. In contrast, the  
21 U.S. data on science knowledge do not show upward trends over the same period. In  
22 Europe, as in the United States, men, younger adults, and more highly-educated people  
23 tend to score higher on these questions (for more details on scientific literacy in  
24 individual countries in Europe, see NSB 2008).

### 25 26 *Evolution and the “Big Bang”*

27 In international comparisons, U.S. scores on two science knowledge questions  
28 are considerably lower than those in almost all other countries where the questions have  
29 been asked. Americans were less likely to answer “true” to the following scientific  
30 knowledge questions:

31

- 1 • “Human beings, as we know them today, developed from earlier species of animals.”
- 2 • “The universe began with a huge explosion.”

3           In the United States, 45% of GSS respondents answered true to the first question  
4 in 2008, similar to other years when the question was asked. In other countries and in  
5 Europe, the comparable figures were higher: 78% in Japan, 70% in Europe, 69% in  
6 China, and 64% in South Korea. Russia and Turkey were the only countries where less  
7 than half of respondents responded correctly (44% and 27% respectively) (Gokhberg  
8 and Shuvalova, 2004; EC 2005). Similarly, Americans were less likely than survey  
9 respondents in South Korea and Japan to answer the big bang question correctly: one-  
10 third of Americans answered this question correctly compared with 67% of South  
11 Korean and 63% of Japanese respondents (figure 7-11).

12           Americans’ responses to questions about evolution and the big bang appear to  
13 reflect factors beyond familiarity with basic elements of science. An experiment  
14 conducted in the 2004 Michigan Survey of Consumer Attitudes showed that  
15 respondents were more likely to answer these two questions correctly when the  
16 questions were prefaced by “according to the theory of evolution” or “according to  
17 astronomers.” These differences probably indicate that many Americans hold religious  
18 beliefs that cause them to be skeptical of established scientific ideas, even when they  
19 have some basic familiarity with those ideas (for additional details see NSB 2008).

20           Recent surveys conducted by the Gallup Organization provide similar evidence.  
21 A 2009 survey showed that more than half (55%) of Americans could correctly name  
22 evolution or another closely associated term, such as natural selection, when asked  
23 which scientific theory they associate with Charles Darwin. However, in a follow-up  
24 question, only 39% of Americans say they believe in the theory of evolution, 25% say  
25 they do not believe in this theory, and 36% do not have an opinion on this subject either  
26 way (Newport 2009).

27           In response to another group of questions on evolution asked by Gallup in 2008,  
28 43% of Americans agreed with the statement that “God created human beings pretty  
29 much in their present form at one time within the last 10,000 years or so,” while the  
30 52% agreed with either of two statements compatible with the theory of evolution: that

1 human beings developed over millions of years either with or without God’s guidance  
2 in the process (figure 7-12). These views on the origin of human beings have remained  
3 virtually unchanged in nine surveys since the questions were first asked in 1982 (The  
4 Gallup Organization 2008c).

5 For almost a century, whether and how evolution should be taught in U.S. public  
6 school classrooms has been a frequent source of controversy. The role of alternative  
7 perspectives on human origins, including creationism and intelligent design, and their  
8 relevance to the teaching of science, has likewise been contentious (The National  
9 Academies 2008a). A recent national survey of high school biology teachers in public  
10 schools shows that there is a large variation in how teachers approach the topic of  
11 evolution. How they teach evolution, in turn, affects public knowledge (see sidebar,  
12 How Schools Teach Evolution).

13 In other developed countries, controversies about evolution in the schools have  
14 occurred more rarely. However, signs of opposition to the theory of evolution are  
15 emerging in Europe (Clery 2008, *Nature* 2006).

### 17 How Schools Teach Evolution

18 A national survey found that high-school biology teachers devoted an average of 13.7 hours to  
19 the theory of evolution over the course of the school year (Berkman, Pacheco, and Plutzer 2008).  
20 Nearly all high school biology teachers addressed evolution in some form. Virtually all (98%)  
21 devoted some time to general evolutionary processes, and 83% covered human evolution.<sup>20</sup>

22 However, teachers differed significantly in their views about the importance of evolution to their  
23 courses. Six in ten strongly agreed with the statement that “evolution serves as the unifying  
24 theme for the content of the course.” Those who strongly agreed (23%) devoted a higher number  
25 of hours to evolution (18.5) than other teachers. Most (82%) disagreed with the statement “It is  
26 possible to offer an excellent general biology course for high school students without mentioning  
27 Darwin or evolutionary theory,” but 13% said they agreed.

28 About one-quarter of the teachers devoted at least some time to creationism or intelligent design  
29 (18% between 1-2 hours; 5% between 3-5 hours; and 3% between 6-20 hours). Almost half of  
30 these teachers agreed with the statement “I emphasize that this is a valid, scientific alternative to  
31 Darwinian explanations for the origin of the species.”

32 Why do some teachers spend much more time on the theory of evolution than others? The  
33 authors dismiss the variation on state curricular standards as at most a minor factor affecting  
34 coverage of this subject and conclude that teachers’ personal beliefs about evolution are one of  
35 the main factors affecting the amount of time teachers spend on this subject.

36 In response to a question that has been asked in Gallup surveys over the years, 16% of teachers  
37 agreed with the statement that “God created human beings pretty much in their present form at  
38 one time within the last 10,000 years or so” (figure 7-12). Teachers who expressed this view

1 devoted 35% fewer class hours to evolution than all the other teachers. In addition, teacher  
2 qualifications were associated with the amount of time teachers devote to evolution in the  
3 classroom. High school teachers who completed the most number of college-level credits in  
4 biology and life science classes and whose coursework included at least one class in evolutionary  
5 biology devoted 60% more time to evolution than teachers with the fewest credits in these areas.

6 (end sidebar)

## 8 Reasoning and Understanding the Scientific Process

9 Past NSF surveys have used questions on three general topics—probability,  
10 experimental design, and the scientific method—to assess trends in Americans’  
11 understanding of the process of scientific inquiry. One set of questions tests how well  
12 respondents apply principles of probabilistic reasoning to a series of questions about a  
13 couple whose children have a one-in-four chance of suffering from an inherited  
14 disease.<sup>21</sup> A second set of questions deals with the logic of experimental design, asking  
15 respondents about the best way to design a test of a new drug for high blood pressure.  
16 An open-ended question probes what respondents think it means to “study something  
17 scientifically.” Because probability, experimental design, and the scientific method are  
18 all central to scientific research, these questions are relevant to how respondents  
19 evaluate scientific evidence.

20 In 2008, 65% of Americans responded correctly to the two questions about  
21 probability, 38% to the questions testing the concept of experiment, and 22% to the  
22 questions testing the concept of scientific study. Scores in the probability questions  
23 fluctuate each year but are relatively stable over time; however, between 2006 and 2008  
24 the combined scores of the two probability questions declined. Scores in the other  
25 scientific process questions were generally higher than they were in the mid-1990s, but  
26 decreased somewhat in 2008 (appendix table 7-13). Performance on these questions is  
27 strongly associated with the different measures of science knowledge and education  
28 (appendix table 7-14). Older Americans and those with lower incomes, two groups that  
29 tend to have less education in the sciences, also score lower on the inquiry measures.  
30 Men and women obtain similar scores in these questions (table 7-4 and table 7-6).

31 The 2008 GSS included several additional questions on the scientific process  
32 that provide an opportunity to examine Americans’ understanding of experimental