Toward a Systematic Evidence-Base for Science in Out-of-School Time: The Role of Assessment

KAREN HUSSAR, ED.D.
SARAH SCHWARTZ, M.ED.
ELLEN BOISELLE, PH.D.
GIL G. NOAM, ED. D., PH.D. (HABIL)

Program in Education, Afterschool & Resiliency
Harvard University and McLean Hospital

A Study Prepared for the Noyce Foundation
August 2008
EMBARGOED
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Purpose

After-school programs are gaining recognition as a setting that holds great potential for increasing child and youth literacy and engagement in science. With this awareness comes a call for evidence that demonstrates after-school programs’ impacts on students’ knowledge, engagement, and interest in science. Consequently, there are a growing number of evaluations of science after-school programs. For these evaluations, a multitude of instruments have been developed to assess the impact of after-school science programs. Although the use of these instruments has contributed to the assessment of after-school science programs, the field now needs to examine critically the most efficacious and efficient means of assessment, whether these assessments should differ across programs, and how they relate to constructs of science learning and program quality. To address these fundamental questions, the Noyce Foundation, a leading strategic funder in the after-school science field, requisitioned this study to review and report on the current state and needs of the after-school science assessment world.

In this report, we approach the assessment of after-school (and summer) science programs from a set of significant descriptive and interpretive perspectives: What instruments are currently being used in the field? Have these tools been assessed with regard to psychometric properties? Is there a need for the creation of generalized assessment tools that could be used to compare across programs? What would be the most useful structure for creating generalized assessments? Would it be more effective to create one integrated instrument, multiple instruments for multiple science education
domains, an item bank of assessment questions from which programs can select, or a decision tree with various assessment options?

Methods

We began this project with an extensive search for existing assessment tools in the informal science and science education fields and uncovered 64 assessment tools that we believed warranted further investigation. We then narrowed our list of assessment tools from 64 to 16 by establishing specific criteria that these tools needed to meet in order to be considered for a more in-depth review.

Our review and analysis focused primarily on student outcomes, based specifically on a framework provided in a recent National Science Foundation report (Friedman et al., 2008) for evaluating the impact of informal science education programs. We used the following five domains, grounded in the NSF framework, to classify instruments.

- Engagement/Interest
- Attitude/Behavior
- Content Knowledge
- Competence and Reasoning
- Career Knowledge/Acquisition

We examined instruments according to these five domains, as well as looking at other key areas including: quantitative vs. qualitative instruments, psychometric properties, domestic vs. international instruments, age of respondents, underrepresented groups, and administration time.

In addition to our review and analysis of assessment tools, we convened focus groups of practitioners and evaluators involved with after-school and informal science
education around the country to gather information about what types of assessment tools they found most useful and which domains of science programming they believed should be assessed.

Recommendations

At the onset of this project, two possibilities appeared probable: the modification of existing instruments or the creation of one or more comprehensive instruments. While many science assessment instruments do exist, we determined that there is a need for new assessment tools in the field. More specifically, we recommend three strategies to strengthen the evidence base for this field.

1. We recommend the creation of an online database that includes the tools described in this report as well as many of the tools that evaluators throughout the country have developed for their individual programs. This database should be continuously updated with newly-created assessment tools. It should be organized to allow programs to select the appropriate instrument(s) for their sites according to a variety of criteria including domain, grade-level, assessment time, etc.

2. In addition to the online database, we recommend that funders encourage the use of a small number of informal science assessment questions that the entire field would use whenever an evaluation is performed. This strategy would allow for some baseline comparisons across programs. However, it is important to note that these questions would not be sufficient for a detailed analysis of all five domains nor would they have the psychometric qualities of a cohesive instrument.
3. While the first two recommendations provide important initial steps, they do not provide the growth this field needs. In addition to these strategies, the field needs a tool or a set of tools that would eventually gain sufficient acceptance to be utilized by a significant number of programs across the country, thereby allowing for national norms to be established and true comparison to be made. Since, at this point, there are no instruments that assess all five domains through outcome measures, we recommend that steps be taken to develop such instruments. Specifically, we recommend the creation of two complementary tools: (1) a quantitative tool consisting of student surveys to assess participant outcomes in the five domains, and (2) a qualitative-quantitative tool consisting of an observation instrument to assess program quality in the five domains. These tools should be validated, have strong psychometric properties, be normed-based on different populations, include developmentally appropriate adaptations for younger children, allow administration in a reasonable amount of time, and be sensitive to change (to allow for pre- and post-testing).

Taken together, these recommendations will require a commitment on the part of foundations and leaders in the field to support the creation of valid and reliable assessment tools that can be used across programs. The process of creating a stronger evidence base for this field will be most effective if programs across the country view assessments as tools that will enhance the quality of their program and that are reflective of the outcomes towards which they are striving.
INTRODUCTION

Politicians, educators, and business leaders alike emphasize the critical importance of scientific literacy among citizens for both individual and national success in the 21st century. Yet, research indicates that by most measures, our system of science education is not working. Middle school and high school students are performing poorly on international tests when compared to their peers in other developed nations. In addition, few undergraduates are choosing to major in science or engineering (15% in the United States, as compared to 47% in France, 50% in China, and 67% in Singapore) (Augustine, 2005). Moreover, students report low levels of interest in science classes in middle and high school (Zacharia & Calabrese-Barton, 2003).

In response to this need to enhance both the quality and quantity of science education in the U.S., practitioners, researchers and policy-makers have begun to expand the role of informal science learning as a venue to promote science literacy and engagement. This strategy focuses increasingly on the large potential of out-of-school time (OST) settings, which include programs that occur after school and during the summer. After-school and summer programs typically provide an environment where exploration can take place in a more relaxed, experiential, and test-free setting. Moreover, a chief reason for low levels of interest in science among students in the United States is that school science often feels disconnected from students’ lives outside of school (Bouillion & Gomez, 2001). Because the after-school setting exists in between the world of school and students’ homes and communities, it is in a privileged position to address this perceived disconnect, offering science programs that may be more personally and contextually relevant than those that are driven primarily by defined curricula and tests (Noam, Biancarosa, & Dechausay, 2003).
There is considerable philosophical overlap between after-school programs and informal science education. Youth development research has shown ideal after-school settings as student-centered and providing opportunity for cooperation and relationship-building while developing knowledge and skills through authentic, hands-on activities (Eccles & Gootman, 2003; Noam, Biancarosa & Dechausay, 2003). Similarly, ideal informal science programs are described as hands-on, learner-directed, and interactive in the context of a social group and consisting of cooperative activities and real-world tasks (Ash & Klein, 1999).

While there are many reasons to believe after-school programs can play a significant role in increasing students’ interest, engagement, knowledge and achievement in science, the evidence that after-school science programs are succeeding in these goals remain sparse. In the past decade, there have been increasing numbers of independently commissioned evaluations of science after-school programs. The data from these studies are very promising, indicating that after-school science programs can improve students’ attitudes towards science; increase their scientific knowledge and skills; and, in some cases, raise grades, test scores, and college attendance (Schwartz & Noam, 2007). Participation in science after-school and summer programs has also been correlated with increased likelihood of selecting science-related college majors (Schwartz & Noam, 2007).

To date, many of the studies that show promising results have used “home-grown” assessment tools to demonstrate impact. Although this practice has its benefits (e.g., instruments relate directly to a specific program), it results in two challenges. First, the use of program-by-program assessments calls into question the validity and/or reliability of the studies (since they traditionally lack norms, psychometric
properties, and peer-reviewed reports), and this can render them less persuasive in the eyes of researchers, funders and policymakers. Second, because many programs and program evaluators create their own tools, it is difficult to compare or summarize results across programs or evaluators. As a consequence, there is very little comparative data available to support the claim that OST science programming is effective, or to support best practices for the field (Schwartz & Noam, 2007).

It should be noted that other applications of informal science, particularly in museum science, have a voluminous body of evaluation research. Furthermore, there are several organizations that make available an open source for evaluation findings studying informal science (see informalscience.org, visitorstudies.org, and the National Science Foundation’s Informal Science Education website). While these sites do not focus specifically on after-school science, they demonstrate the accumulation of a large body of collective knowledge of the informal science field. Yet even in this more mature field, the evaluations remain, for the most part, quite focused on individual projects, and they rarely can be generalized or used to compare data across programs.

The field of after-school and summer science is at a critical juncture. Interest in and federal funding for after-school programs has surged over the last decade (Afterschool Alliance, 2007; Dynarski, Moore, Mullens, Gleason, James-Burdumy, Rostenberg, Pistorino, Silva, Deke, Mansfield, Heaviside, & Levy, 2003). In 2005, 40% of all students in grades K-8 were in at least one weekly non-parental after-school care arrangement (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Yet in order for the field to continue to grow and improve in quality, research and evaluation efforts must keep pace. Increasingly, funding is contingent upon programs’ capacity to show evidence of their success. Consequently, there has been an increase in the number of instruments
created to evaluate individual programs. Although the use of these instruments has already made significant contributions to the assessment of after-school science programs, the field is now at a point where it is necessary to examine critically what are the most efficacious and efficient means of assessment, whether these assessments should differ across programs, and how they should relate to constructs of science learning and program quality. To address these fundamental questions, the Noyce Foundation, a leading funder in the after-school science field, invited this study, review and report to better understand the current state as well as the needs of the after-school informal science assessment world.

In this report, we approach the assessment of after-school informal science programs from a set of significant descriptive and interpretive perspectives: What instruments are currently being used in the field? Have these tools been assessed with regard to psychometric properties? Is there a need for the creation of generalized assessment tools that could be used to compare across programs? What would be the most useful structure for creating generalized assessments? Would it be more effective to create one integrated instrument, multiple instruments for multiple informal science education domains, an item bank of assessment questions from which programs can select, or a decision tree with various assessment options?

Our review focuses primarily on student outcomes, specifically in the domains outlined in a recent National Science Foundation paper (Friedman et al., 2008), including engagement/interest, attitude/behavior, content knowledge, competence and reasoning, and career knowledge/acquisition. These domains will be further discussed in the following section. While the report addresses instruments utilized across science programs, which are typically quantitative instruments, we also explored any
qualitative instruments that have been used repeatedly across programs and have been published. Additionally, although the report is focused on science, we also review assessment tools used by mathematics after-school programs to determine if the mathematics field has resolved any of the questions currently faced by the science world. There also exists further literature on technology and engineering that is relevant, but beyond the scope of this report. We believe the recommendations made in the paper with respect to science will also have implications in the neighboring fields of technology and engineering. Over time, all STEM literatures should be brought together, but this report will focus specifically on the science and informal science literature.
DOMAIN CLASSIFICATIONS

Meaningful assessment is always grounded in program goals. Although the specific goals of after-school programs in science may vary in both focus and degree, typical objectives include enhancing positive attitudes and behaviors regarding science and increasing scientific knowledge and reasoning skills. A recent report from the National Science Foundation (Friedman et al., 2008) provides a foundation for this work by creating a framework for evaluating the impact of informal science education programs, including museums, community initiatives and OST programs. Specifically, this consensus report outlines five domains in which informal science education can have an impact on participants:

- awareness, knowledge, or understanding of STEM concepts, processes, or careers,
- engagement or interest in STEM, concepts, processes, or careers,
- attitude towards STEM-related topics or capabilities
- behavior related to STEM concepts, processes, or careers, and
- skills based on STEM concepts, processes, or careers

The creation of these separate domains is important for two related reasons. First, it highlights the significance of each domain in informal science education and it encourages researchers and practitioners to consider multiple areas of impact. Second, it provides a framework with which researchers and practitioners can both articulate and differentiate specific program goals. Such articulation and differentiation is critical for any effective evaluation, particularly as it fosters both clarity of purpose and efficiency of design.

We used the domains in the National Science Foundation report as a starting framework for our examination of existing evaluation tools in the informal science education realm. After carefully considering NSF’s domains, as well as surveying existing assessment tools, we delineated five separate domain categories. Although
these categories are similar to those created by the consensus report, we made modifications to suit the specific nature of this project on existing tools. We also added a category of interest in science careers because of the importance of this issue for national policy and support of science education. Table 1 summarizes the components of each domains used in the current report. Figure 1 shows how the NSF domains translate into the domains used in this report.

**TABLE 1. ASSESSMENT DOMAIN CLASSIFICATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Engagement / Interest</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of participation / Interest in activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity in STEM-related activities and issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement about / Enthusiasm for engaging in STEM activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun / Enjoyment in STEM activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to become a scientist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude / Behavior</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belief that science / math is sensible, useful and worthwhile</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief in one’s ability to understand and engage in science and math (“can do attitude”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro-social / adaptive learning behaviors in relation to STEM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced anxiety / trepidation around STEM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive scientific / math identity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Knowledge</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and/or re-affirmation and expansion of what one already knows</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of fundamental skills (i.e, measuring)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to use basic instruments (i.e, graphing calculator, microscope)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence and Reasoning</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to formulate strategies and to investigate scientific / mathematical problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to think logically, reflect, explain and justify one’s strategies and solutions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to see connections between topics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to apply content knowledge in novel context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of and the ability to apply principles of scientific inquiry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of knowledge and ability to apply ethical principles of the profession</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Knowledge / Acquisition</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge about STEM career options</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of pathways to STEM careers (i.e. pre-requisite classes, internships etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first domain, engagement/interest, is directly aligned with the corresponding category from the NSF report. This domain focuses on participants’ feelings towards and resulting engagement in STEM, specifically addressing areas such as their level of participation in activities, their enjoyment of those activities, and their curiosity and enthusiasm about science topics and endeavors. We also include in this category participants’ desire to be a scientist, since the aspiration to become a scientist is largely related to their feelings towards science.

The next three categories are based on the NSF domains, but are reorganized. We chose to separate content knowledge from competence and reasoning since they capture two very distinct levels of learning which are, themselves, reflected in the
assessment instruments we surveyed. More specifically, content knowledge characterizes knowledge at a concrete, factual level. This domain includes factual knowledge (for example, the distinction between insects and arachnoids in the study of biology), knowledge of fundamental skills such as measuring, and the ability to use basic instruments (for example, the use of a microscope). In contrast, competence and reasoning focuses on applying knowledge, thinking logically, and formulating strategies. Also included in this category is the ability to apply ethical principles of the profession, as this requires the application of abstract concepts to one’s work, such as intellectual honesty or the willingness to alter one’s opinion based on evidence.

In addition, we combined attitude and behavior because we believe engagement/interest in scientific activities can result in changes in behavior (e.g., beginning to recycle), as well as changes in attitudes (e.g., I know that I can help the environment by recycling). Moreover, we consider attitude and behavior to be mutually reinforcing, with attitudes influencing behaviors, and behaviors contributing to attitude.

Perhaps the most significant change we made was in the creation of our last domain, career knowledge/acquisition. We chose to make this a separate domain because, although currently very few assessments address this domain, it is clear that this is an area that needs further attention, particularly in light of the fact that not enough students in the United States are studying science in college or entering STEM careers (Augustine, 2005). This domain includes knowledge about STEM careers and an understanding of what steps are necessary to prepare oneself for a career in STEM. Importantly, we do not consider a youth’s desire to study science as a component of this domain; we instead include this component in engagement/interest because it pertains
to youth’s feelings towards STEM. For example, it is not enough for youth to simply feel that it would be fun to be an engineer; they also need to know what an engineer does on a daily basis, as well as what classes, internships, jobs, or research would prepare them to be competitive in the engineering world. The domain of career knowledge/acquisition is particularly appropriate for the after-school setting since after-school programs, with their connections to community organizations and businesses, and their frequent use of mentors, are in a unique position to promote knowledge and understanding of science careers.

Although our domain classifications were grounded in the categories created in the NSF report, we recognize that other researchers and practitioners in the field develop their instruments with different constructs and definitions in mind. Thus, connecting the existing assessment literature to the newly formed consensus evaluation strategies does not represent a perfect match. Our attempt to bridge the consensus document with the existing literature has led to the categories that are strongly aligned with the NSF document.

We reference these categories throughout our analysis of both science and math assessment tools. To clarify how we used these categories in the subsequent analysis, Table 2 provides examples of individual items from science assessment tools that we classified in a specific domain.
### TABLE 2. EXAMPLES OF ASSESSMENT ITEMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Engagement / Interest</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Science Opinion Survey, Item #5:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I leave school, I would like to work with people who make discoveries in science.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I strongly agree</td>
<td>I agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Science Curiosity Scale, Item #9:** |  |
| I would like to experiment with the gadgets inside the space shuttle. |  |
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Uncertain | Agree | Strongly agree |

| **ROSE, Item A.7:** |  |
| How interested are you in learning about how the human body is built and functions? |  |
| Not interested | A little interested | Interested | Very interested |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Attitude / Behavior</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS), #5:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would be willing to ride the bus to more places in order to reduce air pollution.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very true</td>
<td>Mostly true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory, ATSI Item Statements, #1:** |  |
| Science is useful in helping to solve the problems of everyday life. |  |
| (1) Strongly disagree | (2) Disagree | (3) Uncertain | (4) Agree | (5) Strongly agree |

| **Test of Science-Related Attitudes (TOSRA), Item #29:** |  |
| The government should spend more money on scientific research. |  |
| Strongly agree | Agree | Not Sure | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Content Knowledge</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ohio’s Evaluation &amp; Assessment Center Science Inquiry Test, Item #2:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A small animal with dry skin and no legs that hatches from an egg is probably</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. a snake</td>
<td>B. a worm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS), Item #46:** |  |
| Which is most responsible for creating acid rain? |  |
| (1) sulfur dioxide | (2) carbon dioxide | (3) ozone | (4) nitrogen | (5) ultraviolet radiation |

| **Ohio’s Evaluation & Assessment Center Science Inquiry Test, Item #2:** |  |
| Which of the following objects has the most inertia? |  |
| A. A 50-kilogram rock | B. A 100-kilogram football player | C. An automobile | D. An oil tanker |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Competence and Reasoning</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SAI (Moore and Foy), Item 3-A:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To operate in a scientific manner, one must display such traits as intellectual honesty,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
dependence upon objective observation of natural events, and willingness to alter one’s position on the basis of sufficient evidence.

1 (Strongly agree)  2 (Agree)  3 (Undecided)  4 (Disagree)  5 (Strongly disagree)

**VASS, Question 9:**
When they investigate a particular event in the natural world, physicists: (a) look for all possible aspects that might be attributed to the event under investigation. (b) concentrate on particular aspects that they consider relevant to the purpose of the study

1. (a) >> (b)  2. (a) > (b)  3. (a) = (b)  4. (a) < (b)  5. (a) << (b)

**EBAPS version 6.1, 02-01-2006, Item #19:**
Scientists are having trouble predicting and explaining the behavior or thunder storms. This could be because thunder storms behave according to a very complicated or hard-to-apply set of rules. Or, that could be because some thunder storms don’t behave consistently according to any set of rules, no matter how complicated and complete that set of rules is. In general, why do scientists sometimes have trouble explaining things?

(a) Although things behave in accordance with rules, those rules are often complicated, hard to apply, or not fully known.
(b) Some things just don’t behave according to a consistent set of rules.
(c) Usually it’s because the rules are complicated, hard to apply, or unknown; but sometimes it’s because the thing doesn’t follow rules.
(d) About half the time, it’s because the rules are complicated, hard to apply, or unknown; and half the time, it’s because the thing doesn’t follow rules.
(e) Usually it’s because the thing doesn’t follow rules; but sometimes it’s because the rules are complicated, hard to apply, or unknown.

**Career Knowledge / Acquisition**

**PISA, Q27c:**
The subjects I study provide me with the basic skills and knowledge for a science-related career.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**PISA, Q27d:**
My teachers equip me with the basic skills and knowledge I need for a science-related career.

| Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
METHODOLOGY

The following section outlines our overall approach to locating and analyzing assessment tools in the formal and informal science field. It is best described in four distinct phases.

PHASE 1

The first phase of this project began in the spring and summer of 2007 with an in-depth review of existing assessment tools in the informal science and science education fields. We began this review by searching relevant journals (see Appendix A, page 79) for articles that were related to informal science, science education, and assessment. We also researched relevant programs and organizations (see Appendix B, pages 80-84) to determine what (if any) assessment tools they employed for student assessment. When necessary, we followed up (via email or phone) with an appropriate individual within a particular program or organization to ascertain more information about their particular method(s) of assessment. We also reviewed dissertation abstracts via keyword searches (e.g., “assessment,” “evaluation,” “science,” “program quality,” “after-school,” “out-of-school-time,” and “child outcomes”). Using these various sources, we compiled an extensive list of science assessment tools that these various journals, programs, organizations, and dissertations referenced. In total, we found 64 assessment tools that we believed warranted further review (see Appendix C, pages 85-86).

PHASE 2

We narrowed the list of assessment tools compiled in Phase 1 from 64 to 16 by establishing specific criteria that these tools needed to meet in order to be considered for the in-depth review. The criteria included: potential for implementation beyond the
specific program for which the assessment tool was originally designed; assessment of elementary, middle and/or high school-aged students; written in (or translated into) English; assessment of at least one domain classification in addition to content knowledge\(^1\); inclusion of psychometric data or an explanation as to why the tool developers decided not to evaluate the psychometric properties of their instrument; and availability of instrument and its relevant information.

PHASE 3

During the winter of 2008, we convened focus groups, each with a particular group of STEM experts: practitioners, evaluators, and Boston-based STEM leaders. The purpose of these discussions was to determine what types of assessment tools these STEM experts found most useful, which domains of science programming they believed should be assessed, and how funders evaluated the success of their STEM programs.

PHASE 4

Based on our in-depth analysis of the condensed list of science assessment tools, as well as the feedback we received from focus group participants, we compiled and integrated the information presented in the current report.

\(^{1}\) An instrument was identified as targeting a domain if at least one question addressed that particular domain.
DESCRIPTION OF ASSESSMENT TOOL TABLES

In order to provide an overview of all assessment tools, we created a detailed chart that highlights their central features (see Table 3, pages 65-73). These features include: a short description of the tool, the type of assessment, its scale, respondents, domain(s) evaluated, sample item(s), administration time, reliability, validity, frequency of use, primary reference, and additional comments. We chose these categories by examining papers (e.g., Measuring Youth Program Quality: A Guide to Assessment Tools [Yohalem & Wilson-Ahlstrom, 2007]) and websites (e.g., www.toolfind.org) that utilized categories to analyze assessment tools and by incorporating suggestions from focus group participants. We then restructured the information presented in Table 3 so that readers could easily compare specific features across all assessment tools (see Table 4, pages 74-78). For example, if a program evaluator wanted to identify assessment tools that took less than an hour to administer, she could reference the “administration time” category. Likewise, if a teacher wanted to identify assessment tools that incorporated both multiple-choice and extended response questions, he could reference the “method of assessment” category. It is our intention to make these tables accessible to interested individuals via a searchable web tool.
ANALYSIS OF SCIENCE ASSESSMENT TOOLS

INTRODUCTION

This analysis highlights both general and specific issues related to assessment, including domain classifications, qualitative vs. quantitative instruments, psychometric properties, domestic vs. international instruments, age of respondents, underrepresented groups, and administration time. Before reading our commentary, we encourage readers to review Tables 3 and 4 in order to familiarize themselves with these instruments. Readers also may want to reference these tables as they read the following section.

DOMAIN CLASSIFICATIONS

Of the sixteen child assessment tools highlighted in the current report, none address all five domain classifications. More than three-quarters of the instruments we assessed address attitude/behavior and/or engagement/interest, about half of the instruments address competence and reasoning and content knowledge, and only one assessment tool addresses the domain of career knowledge/acquisition (see Table 4, pages 74-78). This pattern of emphasizing questions related to the domains of attitude/behavior and engagement/interest and neglecting the domain of career knowledge/acquisition appears to be representative of an overall trend in the science assessment field.

Attitude/Behavior & Engagement/Interest

With the exception of two instruments (the Discovery Inquiry Test in Science and Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire), all the assessment tools include questions
related to the domain of attitude/behavior. Similarly, ten of the sixteen tools include questions related to the domain of engagement/interest. Many assessment tools (the Children’s Science Curiosity Scale, Modified Attitudes toward Science Inventory, Science Opinion Survey, Scientific Attitudes Inventory, Test of Science Related Attitudes, Wareing Attitudes toward Science Protocol) address both of these domains. This is likely due to the call from experts in the science field who believe that an increase in students’ interest and positive attitudes towards science will lead to increased participation in science careers (Tai, Liu, Maltese, & Fan, 2006).

Those assessment tools that predominantly address attitude/behavior and engagement/interest tend to devote a large number of items (a minimum of 25) to these two domains. Among those assessment tools that the current paper highlights, the majority tend to address these domains through a Likert-scale. Notable exceptions to this trend include the Draw-a-Scientist Test which assesses attitude/behavior through a drawing and the Views about Science Survey and Views-on-Science-Technology-Society which assess this domain through multiple-choice questions.

Content Knowledge & Competence and Reasoning

As previously mentioned, about half of child assessment tools we studied include items related to content knowledge and competence and reasoning. However, instruments tend to assess content knowledge and competence and reasoning through different formats. For example, many utilize multiple-choice questions (the Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale, Discovery Inquiry Test in Science, Epistemological Assessment for Physical Science, Views about Science Survey, Views on Science-Technology-Society), while others use Likert-scale items (Programme for
International Student Assessment, Relevance of Science Education) or short-constructed responses (The Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire). One assessment instrument, the National Assessment of Educational Progress uses a combination of multiple-choice, short constructed and extended-response questions.²

Among those assessment tools that use multiple-choice questions, there is great variety as to how they evaluate content knowledge and competence and reasoning. The Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale and Discovery Inquiry Test in Science present the most traditional format with respondents choosing the correct response among four or five possibilities. However, the multiple-choice questions posed in the Discovery Inquiry Test in Science and the National Assessment of Educational Progress require respondents to interpret graphs, charts, and illustrations, as opposed to the Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale which merely asks students to respond to a question and requires no such application of skills. Conversely, both the Views about Science Survey and the Epistemological Assessment for Physical Science present students with two contrasting positions related to a science issue. Respondents must determine if they favor one position over the other and, if they do, to what extent. However, the ambiguity of the “contrasting alternative design” the Views about Science Survey utilizes may be difficult for respondents to comprehend whereas the Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physical Science coherently presents five contrasting viewpoints from which respondents can choose. The Views on Science-Technology-Society is similar to the Views about Science Survey and the Epistemological Assessment for Physical Science in that it presents respondents with an extreme position about a science-related topic. Respondents must first determine if

² It should be noted that NAEP tests being developed to be used in 2009 include computer-based simulation activities which aim to examine students’ inquiry skills.
they agree with this position; if not, they must select an alternative statement that is closely aligned with their position.

As previously mentioned, two instruments, the Programme for International Student Assessment and Relevance of Science Education, utilize Likert-scales to measure the competence and reasoning and content knowledge domains. However, Likert-scales may not be the ideal method to assess these two domains, as they rely on respondents to report the frequency with which they participate in certain activities that would be categorized within one of these two domains. Without any cross-validation of these self-reports, it is impossible to determine the accuracy with which respondents report this information.

The two assessment tools that incorporate short and/or extended responses to address competence and reasoning and content knowledge employ different strategies for assessing respondents’ answers. The National Assessment for Education Progress has scorers classify responses in one of four categories: complete, essential, partial, or unsatisfactory/incorrect. For each question that requires a short or extended response, scorers receive a detailed explanation as to what constitutes a response within each of these four categories. The Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire’s test developers have a different philosophy related to their short-constructed responses. They explain,

> Each question . . . is followed by . . . what is considered to be an answer consistent with reform documents and contemporary views about science. “Scoring” of answers is not meant to yield a numerical value, but rather a description of whether the respondent has the desired view (Abd-El-Khalick, 2002, p. 6).

In other words, the test developers do not intend to have these short-constructed responses evaluated for their “rightness” or “wrongness.” Rather, through
respondents’ answer, they hope to determine the degree to which respondents’ views are aligned with current opinions about science.

Clearly, different assessment tools utilize different strategies, such as multiple-choice and open-response questions, to assess content knowledge and competence and reasoning. A benefit of multiple-choice questions is that they do not require a great deal of time to administer. However, multiple-choice questions do not provide the depth of information about respondents’ knowledge that short and extended-response questions do. This is not to say that short and extended-response questions are an ideal form of assessment. These types of questions are more difficult to assess; they introduce issues of inter-rater reliability and they are challenging for respondents who are not skilled writers.

There is also considerable variability in the actual content instruments address (see Table 3, pages 65-73). For example, the Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale is the only instrument that assesses respondents’ knowledge about the environment. This contrasts the Views on Science-Technology-Society which addresses the epistemological, social and technological aspects of science. Both the Views about Science Survey and Views of the Nature of Science Questionnaire assess the “methodology” of science. However, for both of these instruments, this is just one aspect of the content knowledge they address. Similarly, both the Discovery Inquiry Test in Science and National Assessment of Educational Progress address earth, physical and life sciences, but these topics are just a portion of the content knowledge the instruments assess.

Given that different programs choose to focus their curricula on different content areas, this variability is not surprising. More likely than not, this trend will persist in
the formal and informal science fields. As such, it is unreasonable to assume that one standardized assessment tool would be able to address all potential content areas. The question arises, however, whether there could be guidelines for assessment in multiple disciplines, such as biology, environmental science, and physical science. Some core knowledge or principles exist in each of these disciplines that one could potentially assess. It is also possible that some core competencies and reasoning processes cut across disciplines that would allow for some common assessment instruments to be developed for this domain. Finally, an alternative strategy would be to have experts from the field develop a set of guidelines focusing solely on how evaluators assess content. This approach would allow for some consistency across assessment tools while still allowing programs to address their specific content areas.

Career Knowledge/Acquisition

Unlike the other four domains, very few child assessment tools address the domain of career knowledge/acquisition. In fact, only one assessment tool that we evaluated, Programme for International Student Assessment, includes questions related to this domain. Even in this instance, there are only four probes that address exposure to science careers and career counseling and none that address mentoring relationships. In one respect, this trend is surprising given the emphasis that experts in the science field have placed on increasing the numbers of individuals who opt for science careers (e.g., Rising about the Gathering Storm, 2007). However, given that the NSF did not highlight this domain in their recent report (Friedman et al., 2008), it appears that this domain has not been sufficiently established yet in the science field. Regardless, given the scarcity of existing questions, as well as the demand from the science field, there is a
need for more effective assessment related to the domain of career knowledge/acquisition.

QUANTITATIVE VS. QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENTS

The current paper highlights quantitative assessment tools for a variety of reasons. In general, quantitative instruments provide a significant amount of data in a reasonable amount of time—a key feature for teachers and administrators who want to assess the progress of a group of students. Such instruments are also more easily transferred from one program to another. Quantitative data is easier to analyze, as it does not require the creation and application of code categories. It also tends to be reported more frequently in papers and reports, thus giving them more visibility. Furthermore, we learned from focus group participants that individual programs tend to create their own qualitative instruments that they do not share with a larger audience. Unfortunately, this discretion ultimately prevents the field from collaborating in the creation and implementation of qualitative instruments.

Even though they are not highlighted in this paper, many assessment tools currently being used in the field are qualitative in nature (see Appendix C, pages 85-86). These instruments provide a depth of information related to participants’ learning process, engagement and attitude towards science. Yet, they tend to lack the formal tools that are necessary for standardized use and are often cumbersome in terms of implementation and scoring. As such, we did not find qualitative methods that were widely used and/or published in the science field. Consequently, these instruments did not meet the criteria for inclusion in the current report.
One instrument that is likely to be considered qualitative is the Draw-a-Scientist Test. However, this tool ultimately can be regarded as quantitative as each drawing receives a numerical rating, based on the presence of pre-determined elements. Interestingly, the developer of the Draw-a-Scientist Test appears to be suggesting its similarities to other quantitative assessment tools by highlighting that it takes “no more than one to three minutes to analyze” a child’s drawing (H. Harty, personal communication, February 4, 2008).

The only other instrument we surveyed that includes a qualitative component is the Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire. In addition to responding to a series of open-ended questions, respondents are given an opportunity to “clarify and elaborate on their written responses” (Lederman, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell, & Schwartz, 2002, p. 506) through a follow-up interview. This interview is also intended to “ensure a faithful interpretation of their [respondents] responses” (F. Abd-EL-Khalick, personal communication, February 5, 2008). However, the developers of this instrument explain that it is not necessary to conduct individual interviews with all respondents; instead, this can be done with a “reasonable sample of respondents” (Lederman et al., 2002, p. 511). Thus it appears as if the Views of Nature of Science’s developers are trying to minimize its overall administration time by not requiring individual interviews with all respondents.

Interestingly, the Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire, as well as the Draw-a-Scientist Test seem to be best described as “mixed method instruments.” Such instruments may be the most effective way to evaluate the essence of participants’ growth as they are multi-dimensional. Consequently, instrument developers need to
create instruments that utilize both qualitative and quantitative methods and minimize the time needed for administration and scoring.

PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES

Because psychometric properties are a significant indicator of the merit of assessment tools, we were pleased that most instruments the current paper highlights address reliability and validity (see Table 4, pages 74-78). Of course, as readers may recall, an instrument needed to establish reliability and validity (or justification of a decision not to) in order to be considered for our in-depth analysis. Regardless, there is some disparity in the ways in which these instruments establish reliability. Some instruments (the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale, Children’s Science Curiosity Scale, Test of Science Related Attitudes) establish reliability through Cronbach’s alpha and test-rest reliability. Another instrument, the Scientific Attitude Inventory uses Cronbach’s alpha and split-half reliability. Some instruments just report one form of reliability: Cronbach’s alpha (Discovery Inquiry Test of Science, Modified Attitudes toward Science Inventory, Relevance of Science Education) or inter-rater reliability (The National Assessment of Educational Progress; Views about Science Survey). Other instruments (Draw-a-Scientist Test, Views on Science-Technology-Society) choose not to report reliability, although subsequent studies that administer these instruments have established their reliability. Regardless of how test developers chose to assess the reliability of their instruments, most have established an acceptable rating. Interestingly, one instrument, the Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physical Science does not include reliability data as the developers of this assessment
tool “don’t want to assume that each subscale corresponds to a stable, consistent belief (or set of beliefs).”

Given that validity can be established through a variety of means, such as content, face, predictive and discriminate validity, it is not surprising that test developers employed numerous strategies to assess this psychometric property. We were encouraged to see that three instrument developers (the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale, Children’s Science Curiosity Scale, Science Attitude Inventory) established validity through factor analysis, as this is considered one of the most rigorous and empirically sound methods of assessing validity. The most common strategy instrument developers (the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale, Children’s Science Curiosity Scale, Discovery Inquiry Test in Science, Relevance of Science Education, Scientific Attitude Inventory, Views about Science Survey, Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire, Views on Science-Technology-Society, Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol) employed to establish content and face validity was to convene a group of experts from the science field (e.g., educators, students, scientists, researchers) who then confirm that assessment items measured what the developers intended for them to measure. Other instrument developers (e.g., Views about Science Survey, Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire, Views on Science-Technology-Society) conducted follow-up interviews with respondents in order to determine why respondents answered particular questions in the manner that they did, as well as to ensure that respondents understood the posed questions. In order to establish predictive validity, the creators of the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale and Children’s Science Curiosity Scale also compared the answers of respondents who had previously been identified as either having high or low interest in
science and science-related issues. The developers of the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale and the Test of Science Related Attitudes addressed discriminate validity by determining the inter-correlations among the various scales in order to ensure that each subscale was assessing an attitude that one of the other scales was not. Regardless of how tool developers assess reliability and validity, we believe that any quality assessment tool must be able to establish these psychometric properties.

DOMESTIC VS. INTERNATIONAL INSTRUMENTS

A distinction among the child assessment tools we analyzed is whether or not they have been adapted for international use. Some instruments, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment and the Relevance of Science Education, were created with the intention of being used across countries and cultures. The Draw-a-Scientist Test was originally administered to children in Australia, Canada and the United States and now is used in many countries across the world. The Views on Science-Technology-Society was translated into numerous languages for international use. This contrasts with tools like the Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physical Science, Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory, Scientific Attitude Inventory, Science Opinion Survey, and the Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol that are solely administered in the United States and Canada. A middle ground between these two extremes are assessment tools like the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale, Children’s Science Curiosity Scale, Views about Science Survey, and Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire that were originally administered in the United States and have subsequently been administered in several
other countries. Conversely, the Test of Scientific Related Attitudes was originally administered in Australia and then was validated in the United States. Finally, other instruments, such as the Discovery Inquiry Test in Science and the National Assessment of Educational Progress, were specifically designed for US students and were not intended for international comparisons.

Interestingly, when assessment tools are created (or modified) for international comparisons, they tend to compare school-based programs. However, given the global nature of after-school programs, there is a need for assessment tools that can effectively compare out-of-school-time programs across countries. Such cross-cultural comparisons will ultimately strengthen the field of informal science education.

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

The majority of the assessment tools we analyzed tend to focus on middle and high school respondents (see Table 4, pages 74-78). Consequently, there is a relative dearth of instruments that assess elementary school students, particularly early elementary school. In fact, only two instruments (the Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Social Knowledge Scale and Draw-a-Scientist Test) we studied are appropriate for early elementary school children. This pattern of having the majority of instruments focusing on middle and high school-aged respondents with only a few focusing on younger children appears to be representative of an overall trend in the science assessment field. An problematic solution to this issue would be to administer assessment tools to elementary school-aged children that were originally created for older respondents, particularly as the vocabulary and/or syntax of the instruments is
not appropriate for younger respondents. Instead, additional science assessment tools should be created that are developmentally appropriate for younger children.

UNDERREPRESENTED GROUPS

Many out-of-school time programs work with underrepresented populations, such as urban and female students. Therefore, it is important that instruments used to assess these particular audiences maintain an acceptable level of validity and reliability. Yet, not all instruments transfer from their original audience to underrepresented samples. In such cases, it may be necessary to revise the targeted instrument. We were encouraged that one assessment tool, the Modified Attitudes towards Science Instrument, adapted this strategy: its test developer revised its original form to better assess an under-represented audience, urban African American students. NAEP also took elaborate steps to address cultural bias in its tests. Similarly, the Science Attitudes Inventory was also modified in order to eliminate gender-biased statements. By acknowledging the diverse populations that their instruments assess, these tool developers have strengthened the quality and transferability of their instruments. Such awareness among all test developers will only strengthen the quality of instruments administered in the field.

ADMINISTRATION TIME

As demonstrated in Table 4, administration time varies greatly among the instrument tools the current paper highlights, ranging from 10 minutes to up to 2 hours. However, the administration time of some instruments (Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory, National Assessment of Educational Progress, Programme for
International Assessment, Relevance of Science Education) can be reduced by eliminating background questions that may not be relevant for a particular program (e.g., parent background, number of books in the home).

It is important to note that administration time is not directly related to the quality of an instrument. For example, the Children’s Science Curiosity Scale is a well-validated, frequently-used instrument that takes less than 15 minutes to administer. Furthermore, administration time does not directly relate to number of domains addressed. For example, the Views of Nature of Science requires a significant amount of time to administer (an hour and fifteen minutes) but only addresses two domains (content knowledge and competence and reasoning). Given the limited time and money programs are typically afforded with respect to evaluation, program evaluators may benefit from creating, refining or choosing assessment tools that are relatively short while still addressing the domains of interest.

AREAS FOR FUTURE STUDY

We now address two important areas that are largely unaddressed in the science instruments we have discussed, but about which much can be learned by highlighting research from neighboring fields. The first area focuses on the way anxiety might affect students’ interest and learning in science, based upon research from mathematics assessment. The second area addresses the need for observation instruments in addition to instruments focusing on student outcomes.
Learning from Math Anxiety Assessments

In addition to our comprehensive review of science assessment tools, we also conducted a survey of mathematics assessments to determine if any of the assessment practices in the math field could inform our study of the sciences (see Addendum 1). Although our survey of assessments currently used in OST math programs did not, in most areas, yield substantive models or tools that could guide OST science, we were intrigued by educational research related to math anxiety and its potential applications to the OST science field. Math anxiety is often defined as a feeling of tension, apprehension or fear that interferes with math performance in real-world and academic settings (Ashcraft, 2002; Richardson & Suinn, 1972). Research has demonstrated that math anxiety is conceptually distinct from generalized anxiety (Dew, Galassi & Galassi, 1983) and that it is not associated with intelligence (Hembree, 1990). Math anxiety can lead to deliberate avoidance of the subject as well as career paths that require mathematical competencies. While the etiology of math anxiety remains unknown, researchers speculate that multiple pathways can result in math anxiety including: negative classroom experiences, difficulty learning math, the development of maladaptive problem-solving schema, and having teachers who prize accuracy, but provide limited cognitive or motivational support. Research has shown that math anxiety typically emerges during middle school and increases over the course of adolescence. Some educators and researchers speculate, however, that math anxiety can begin as early as elementary school (M. H. Ashcraft, personal communication, February 5, 2008).

Since the 1970s, researchers have been developing instruments to measure math anxiety. Yet, while extensive research has been conducted the role of math anxiety in
school and OST settings, only one of the sixteen science assessments we have reviewed even touched on feelings of anxiety towards science (Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory). It is very possible that science anxiety exists, but has not yet been acknowledged by the science community. Moreover, math anxiety could be a significant obstacle to students’ success in science since science frequently is predicated on knowledge of math. If science or math anxiety does indeed influence student learning and pursuit of science careers, then the more relaxed, cooperative learning environment often found in after-school may be an ideal setting to reduce anxiety.

**Observation Tools**

No matter how valid and sensitive student outcome measures are, they will not answer the “input” programmatic question: “What makes a quality program that is responsible for positive outputs?” One can infer that if outcomes are strong, then the program (if in fact it is responsible for these outcomes) is effective. However, given selection biases and the lack of strong experimental designs in many studies, it is not easy to relate good outcomes to specific program elements. The role of assessment tools and measurements across programs cannot end with student self report. The goal of assessment is not only to strengthen outcomes, but also to strengthen programs so they can reach the productive outcomes we envision for the field. The only way to provide such data is to study program quality together with program outcomes. An added benefit of such tools is that they not only examine quality, but they also have the potential to study the learning and exploration process and trace specific interactions between staff and students that result in learning.
The importance of observation tools has become accepted over the past few years in the generic after-school field, with multiple tools competing for a growing market of program assessment. A recent review of these quality program assessment tools demonstrates that these instruments have become quite sophisticated with detailed coding systems and reported reliability (Yohalem & Wilson-Ahlstrom, 2007). The application of these tools to after-school programs has yielded some interesting results that are helping the field develop a growing consensus around characteristics of quality after-school programs. For example, most research agrees that key elements to quality after-school programs include: physically and psychologically safe environments, strong relationships between staff and students, strong leadership, and intentional, authentic learning activities (Birmingham, Pechman, Russell, & Mielke, 2005; Honig & McDonald, 2005; McLaughlin, 2000; Pathways to Success for Youth, 2005; Reisner, White, Russell, & Birmingham, 2004; Vandell, Reisner, Pierce, Brown, Lee, Bolt & Pechman, 2006).

Instruments developed for researching quality in generic after-school programs typically include detailed observations of the activities students are engaged in and can be used for observation of any activity, from arts to homework help to informal science activities. However, since these instruments are designed to be applicable to any type of activity, they do not address issues unique to informal science, such as authenticity of science or inquiry-based learning.

There have been some recent attempts to create observation tools that focus more specifically on science, but most of these tools were developed primarily for classroom use. For example, the Reformed Teaching Observation Protocol (RTOP) was developed to assess the degree to which classroom math and science instruction was “reformed,”
in line with the reform movement valuing student engagement and authentic inquiry (Piburn, Sawada, Falconer, Turley, Benford, & Bloom, 2000). The Science Management Observation Protocol (SMOP) is an instrument designed to examine specific teacher behaviors and classroom characteristics that influence how well an inquiry-based science classroom is managed (Sampson, 2004). Currently, the Education Development Center is in the final stages of developing an inquiry science instruction observation protocol (ISIOP) to identify the nature and extent to which inquiry science instruction occurs in middle school science classrooms (Education Development Center, 2008). Finally, the Program in Education, Afterschool, and Resiliency has piloted an observation tool designed specifically to assess informal science along the NSF domains for after-school and OST settings. The tool focuses on indicators of quality informal science including categories such as content learning, engagement, and relevance.

The development of quality observation tools for after-school science programs will be extremely important for the field, since it will allow researchers and practitioners to better understand the links between inputs and outcomes and the mediating processes between them.
RECOMMENDATIONS

As evidence-based programming has become essential in the field of formal and informal science education, the Noyce Foundation asked us to assess the availability of quality science outcome instruments with the intention of making recommendations about the future of assessment in this field. At the onset of this project, two possibilities appeared probable: the modification of existing instruments or the creation of one (or more) comprehensive instruments. While countless science assessment instruments do exist, we determined that there is a need for new assessment tools for the field. We based this conclusion on a number of factors, including the fact that no assessment tool effectively addresses all significant domain classifications and that no assessment tool effectively incorporates both qualitative and quantitative outcomes.

The creation of a systemic data collection process is essential for the betterment of science education and quality after-school programming. Funders and policymakers have recognized the importance of evaluation and assessment and are investing significant funds for this purpose. This produces a great opportunity to create the evidence base needed for this field to stabilize and grow. If the field does not seize this opportunity, the parameters of evidence and outcomes will undoubtedly be imposed by outside forces, as this has already happened in other areas of after-school research (e.g. Dynarski, Moore, Mullens, Gleason, James-Burdumy, Rosenberg, Pistorino, Silva, Deke, Mansfield, Heaviside, & Levy, 2003). In such a case, measurement could easily become school-based standardized tests and other academic outcomes, similar to those that have been instituted in schools. Informal and after-school science learning are built around a framework of exploration, engagement, and reasoning that require their own assessment.
But it is important to acknowledge that the field remains far from consensus around how to assess practices and student outcomes and how to institutionalize those assessments. We repeatedly heard from focus group participants that there is great anxiety about moving to one or more standardized tools. One concern expressed was that each program has its own culture, history and purpose. A standardized instrument would not allow each program to be assessed on its own merits and from within the meanings and goals of its learning environment. While this perspective has a great deal of validity and is voiced especially in qualitative and cultural psychology circles, we contend that this point of view does not necessarily preclude comparative assessments across programs. Programs can and often do administer instruments as well as a tailored assessment that address a program’s specific culture and goals. Moreover, we contend that instruments will never be the only way program success is assessed; qualitative observations and satisfaction inventories are both important to effective assessment. No assessment can make visits to programs and conversations with staff and students a thing of the past. But the field needs comparative data for quality improvement, planning, and policy-making. Such data would allow, not only for individual programs to become evidence-based, but for the whole field to do the same.

Focus group participants also expressed concern that funders may use outcomes in a punitive way against individual programs or multi-sited organizations. If programs do not demonstrate progress on a particular standardized assessment tool, they may not receive funding. Similar fears arose in response to the Mathematica reports (Dynarski, James-Burdumy, Moore, Rosenberg, Deke, J., & Mansfield, 2004; Dynarski, Moore, Mullens, Gleason, James-Burdumy, Rosenberg, Pistorino, Silva, Deke, Mansfield, Heaviside, & Levy, 2003) assessing after-school outcomes; however, these
fears did not come true, and foundations did not withdraw funding of programs based on the report’s findings. We argue that at the present time it would be inappropriate for funders to deny financial support based on quantitative outcomes as many of the assessments we surveyed do not have national norms. In addition, support from the field will be jeopardized if a punitive approach is selected. It will be important to initiate a dialogue with funders so that they have realistic expectations about outcomes and to ensure that assessments are used to inform, not to punish. Over time, however, there is no reason why valid and agreed upon outcomes cannot be part of an overall, in-depth decision-making process about funding.

There is also a concern that any assessment tool will not actually strengthen the field but simply provide evidence that the field is not strong, thus creating negative policy implications. However, from our perspective, evidence-based practice does not mean that programs need to demonstrate positive results immediately. Instead, if individual programs are unsatisfied with their results, they should have the opportunity to revamp their programs without significant consequences. Programs are looking for ways to measure their impact and funders are looking for evidence that programs work. It is important that these two groups come together to help shape the content of instruments that will provide formative, not punitive, feedback that can strengthen the field.

Despite concerns about a standardized assessment tool, moving the field to one or more assessment tools remains a necessary step for several reasons. First, state and national testing of science learning was introduced in 2007. As stated above, if the informal field does not work to develop its own instrument, assessment of all science programs will likely be reduced to academic outcomes as measured by the state-
mandated tests. This is a concern because informal science education requires its own form of assessment. It should not be judged primarily against traditional formal science assessment measures, such as content knowledge and competence and reasoning. While these domains tend to dominate program goals among formal science education programs, this is not the case for informal science programs. In fact, engagement/interest and attitude/behavior tend to be the primary focus of informal science education programs.

Second, we learned from focus group participants that individual programs are, in fact, creating their own instruments to assess program quality. Clearly, they recognize the importance of evidence-based programming and also that programs should be able to choose the most suitable assessment strategies for their programs. But working in isolation and focusing only on their own internal questions does not allow programs to benefit sufficiently from the expertise and previous work of their colleagues as they create and implement quality assessment tools and outcomes measures. Undoubtedly, collaboration among instrument developers will only help strengthen the quality of assessment tools that are being administered in the field. Also, qualitative observations will continue to be essential and serve as excellent case studies of the potential in environments where adults and youth work, explore and invent together. But the field as a whole will not move forward with sufficient precision and speed through the existing approach alone, nor will the present strategy convince policy makers and funders sufficiently to secure financial support for the future.

The consensus document from the National Science Foundation (Friedman et al., 2008) has provided a new possibility to address assessment in informal science. One issue that has been a barrier to comparable data collection across program is that
evaluators have used different domains to assess science learning. While many studies touched on similar issues such as interest/engagement, attitude/behavior and content knowledge, definitions, language, and outcomes varied widely. In part, this is due to differences in content and goals across programs, but much of it also has to do with lack of clarity and precision in defining the practices and goals of science learning. With the consensus report from NSF, we now have a document that explicitly defines the domains of science learning across different program contexts. This in turn allows the field to take the next logical step of connecting these domains with assessment strategies and tools. Obviously, with clearer constructs it is possible to create better instrumentation. This framework, which we adapted for this report, provided us with a structure to analyze the existing tools.

The recommendation that comes from our analysis is that we need to evolve instruments that can assess process and impact in these five domains across programs. We recommend three strategies to strengthen the evidence base for this field.

Recommendation #1: Online database of assessment tools:

We recommend the creation of an online database that includes the tools described in this report as well as many of the tools that evaluators throughout the country have developed for their individual programs. This database should be continuously updated with newly-created assessment tools. All of these tools should be organized around the NSF-inspired domains outlined in this report. Our review has shown us that, in certain domains, there are some strong instruments already in existence. Our hope is that this database will guide programs increasingly to use these already-developed instruments. The database would be organized to allow programs
to select the appropriate instruments for their sites according to a variety of criteria including domain, grade-level, assessment time, etc. This tool would strengthen existing NSF-funded communities of practice such as ITEST and AYS. In addition, this database would likely lead to an organic movement towards shared instrumentation and, thus, increased comparability between programs.

Recommendation #2: Item bank of questions:

In addition to the online database, we recommend that funders encourage the use of a small number of informal science assessment questions that the field would use whenever an evaluation is performed. A consensus group should be established to determine those essential items. A possible place to begin would be the science National Assessment of Educational Progress questions, since they have already been validated. They do not, however, address all domains, and we therefore suggest adding items for those unrepresented domains. This strategy of identifying a limited number of items to be used in evaluations throughout the field would allow for some baseline comparisons across programs, although it would not be sufficient for a detailed analysis of all five domains, and lacks the psychometric qualities of a cohesive instrument.

Recommendation #3: New instruments

While the first two recommendations provide important initial steps, they will not bring the field to where we believe it needs to be. Informal science learning consists of complex pedagogy and different levels of processing information and creating a scientific identity on the part of children and youth. This task cannot be accomplished
by including a few consistent items within a diverse set of tools, nor will the field mature sufficiently by individual programs choosing from a database of many assessment tools. In addition to these strategies, **the field needs a tool or a set of tools that would eventually gain sufficient acceptance to be utilized by a significant number of programs across the country.** This would allow for national norms to be established and true comparison to be possible. Since, at this point, there are no instruments that assess all five domains through outcome measures, we recommend that steps be taken to develop such instruments. We recommend the creation of two complementary tools: (1) a quantitative tool consisting of student surveys to assess participant outcomes in the five domains, and (2) a qualitative-quantitative tool consisting of an observation instrument to assess program quality and informal science learning processes in the five domains.

Depending on a program’s resources, it can either use the student survey alone, or, for a more in-depth evaluation, use the student survey in conjunction with the observation tool. While it is important that the tools address outcomes from all five domains, it should be noted that program evaluators should not feel pressure to include questions from all five domains. Instead, they can focus their assessments on those domains that are central to their individual program goals.

These tools should be validated, have strong psychometric properties, be normed based on different populations, allow administration in a reasonable amount of time, and be easy to administer. It is especially important that the quantitative instrument assessing participant outcomes be robust enough to register change over time when used in pre- and post-testing. In addition, since there is a relative dearth of instruments designed to assess students in elementary school, it is necessary that the instrument
include an adaptation that is developmentally appropriate for younger children. The instrument would examine the same constructs, but using different items and language. We also recommend that researchers further explore the role of anxiety in science education, and that the instrument should include items that address science anxiety. Finally, we believe it is important to convene a group of experts from various science content disciplines to make decisions about whether there exist some core competencies that cut across disciplines or whether each discipline needs to be assessed separately.

It is not sufficient, however, to assess participant outcomes alone, and for this reason we also recommend the development of an observation tool specifically designed for use in after-school and OST science settings. In part, it will important to include an observation tool to overcome biases associated with self-report, particularly when assessing domains such as engagement/interest and attitude/behavior. Even more importantly, as we discussed in our analysis section, it is important for the field to examine not only participant outcomes, but also the inputs that potentially created those outcomes. The inclusion of an observation tool allows the field to correlate program characteristics with participant outcomes, and thereby build a base of best practices in the field.

While observation tools are already being developed, and are unlikely to engender resistance from the field, the development of a new instrument to assess student outcomes will most likely be a longer and more complex process. For this reason, a strategy of inclusion has a greater chance of succeeding and will create less resentment than one that is entirely mandated from above. Strengthening support and building consensus among various groups including funders, policymakers, practitioners and researchers will be critical. Thus we recommend a well-planned
meeting or set of meetings with leaders representing all these groups before developing any outcome instruments. This report can serve as the foundation for the discussions together with well-organized panels. The initiative would be strengthened if it could be sponsored by multiple foundations, ideally in a joint public-private initiative.

For the development of the instruments, we recommend the creation of a center on assessment that allows key players who are versed in assessment development and have the conceptual and practical capacity to complete the task. At this point, there is no one organization that has the knowledge and capacity to do this work alone. As such, a center would allow a focused team across universities and other organizations to come together to undertake this essential work, while reducing the potential for unproductive competition in the field.

Taken together, these recommendations will require commitment on the part of foundations and leaders in the field to support the creation of valid and reliable assessment tools that can be used across programs. The process of creating a stronger evidence base for this field will be most successful if programs across the country view assessment as a tool to enhance program quality as well as a reflection of the outcomes towards which they are striving. This report and its recommendations are designed to be the basis for ongoing discussions and feedback from the field, as well as to guide future policy. We hope this report will engender the discussion this important topic deserves.
ADDENDUM

In an effort to inform our comprehensive review of science assessment tools, we undertook a delimited review of mathematics assessment tools currently used in after-school and out-of-school-time settings. This review consisted of conversations with experts in the field, research on assessment literature, and online searches. Importantly, this review was conducted for the purpose of determining whether there were any important trends in the assessment of mathematics in out-of-school-time (OST) settings that might inform our understanding of science assessments. Thus our review should not be considered comprehensive or all-encompassing but rather a sampling from the field. Our review of the math assessments revealed several interesting findings. First, we found that many evaluators of OST programs in mathematics rely on traditional standardized tests (e.g., IOWA, Terra Nova) or state-mandated states (e.g. Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System) to assess the efficacy of their programs in developing content knowledge and competence and reasoning (see D’Agostino, 1995; Deeb-Westervelt, 2003; Harlow & Baenen, 2001; Huang, Gribbons, Kim, Lee & Baker, 2000; Klein & Bolus, 2002; Kociemba, 1995; Leslie, 1998; Lovell, 2006; McDonald & Trautman, 2005; McKinney, 1995; E. Schaps, personal communication, October 15, 2008; Welsh, Russell, Williams, Reisner, & White, 2002; Zia, Larson, & Mostow, 1999). Although this trend is not surprising considering the emphasis placed on raising scores for the high-stakes math tests currently given in all states, it does present certain challenges. First, because standardized tests typically measure students’ competency in a broad range of math subject-areas, it can be difficult to capture the learning that takes place in one summer or in an hour per day after school. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that scores for these standardized and state-
mandated tests are not always reported according to separate competencies (such as content knowledge versus reasoning) but instead as a single, generalized score. For example, on the MCAS, a student’s performance is classified into one of four categories: Warning, Needs Improvement, Proficient, or Advanced. Evaluators cannot determine whether a student performed well on a given topic or in a given domain (e.g., reasoning) unless they perform an item analysis. A possible solution to these challenges may lie in criterion referenced tests such as Balanced Assessment in Mathematics (McGraw Hill), which is currently being used by the Silicon Valley Math Initiative. Balanced Assessment focuses on problem solving and communication, and allows staff and students to examine in which areas students show competency and in which areas they need improvement.

Another approach to the assessment of content knowledge and competence and reasoning is the use of homegrown tools. A prime example of this type of assessment is the ASM+ Student Assessments, used by After-School Math PLUS (Fancsali & Orellana, 2007). The ASM+ Student Assessments consist of open-ended questions relating directly to math activities from the program. This type of assessment poses a distinct advantage over standardized tests in that it directly assesses the learning that results from program activities. However, these types of assessments cannot be used to compare programs, even within the same state.

A second finding from our survey of math assessments involves assessments addressing the domains of attitude/interest and engagement/behavior. In these categories, attitudinal measures appeared to be the most frequently addressed. Some of these attitudinal measures were specific to math, such as the Indiana Mathematics Belief Scale (Kloosterman & Stage, 1992). Others, such as the Patterns of Adaptive Learning
Survey (PALS) (Midgley, Maehr, Hruda, Anderman, Anderman, Freeman, Gheen, Kaplan, Kumar, Middleton, Nelson, Roeser, & Urdan, 2000), are not math specific, but have been used in studies of attitudes towards math (Friedel, Cortina, Turner, & Midgley, 2007). The majority of these measures, however, were developed for use with high school and college students. Although some have subsequently been adapted for use with younger students, particularly for those in the middle and upper elementary grades, few attitudinal measures exist for early elementary students. Another method used to assess attitudes/behavior and engagement/interest in math is through student journals (Edwards, Kahn, & Brenton, 2001). While this is a useful method of obtaining in-depth information in both domains, it is not an efficient method of assessment, particularly for comparison across programs. Importantly, the National Science Foundation is currently funding a project at the University of Michigan that focuses on math and science attitudes and beliefs, studying tools for evaluating motivation-related outcomes (MSP-MAP). Their findings will represent an important step in building a research base in the study of student attitudes towards math and science.

Notably, our review did not reveal assessments pertaining to career knowledge/acquisition in mathematics, showing that this area of assessment is lacking, not only in science, but in mathematics as well.

In general, we see many of the same trends in the fields of science and math assessment. In both fields, most of the assessments fall in the content knowledge, competency and reasoning, engagement/interest, or attitudes/behavior domains and include little in the career knowledge/acquisition domain. In fact, science appears to be more advanced in this domain. In addition, both fields are struggling with a tension between homegrown measures that lack the capacity to compare between programs,
and standardized measures that may not capture the learning that takes place in after-
school and summer programs. Again, science may be more advanced in this area, as a
result of the significant body of literature pertaining to informal science learning along
the fact that until recently, science was rarely included in standardized tests.

Although our survey of assessment tools currently used in OST math program
did not, in most areas, yield substantive models that can be used to guide OST science,
we were intrigued by educational research related to math anxiety and its potential
applications to the OST science field. Math anxiety is often defined as a feeling of
tension, apprehension or fear that interferes with math performance in real-world and
academic settings (Ashcraft, 2002; Richardson & Suinn, 1972). Research has
demonstrated that math anxiety is conceptually distinct from generalized anxiety (Dew,
Galassi & Galassi, 1983) and is not associated with intelligence (Hembree, 1990). Math
anxiety can lead to deliberate avoidance of the subject and career paths that require
mathematical competencies. While the etiology of math anxiety remains unknown,
researchers speculate that multiple pathways can result in math anxiety including:
negative classroom experiences, difficulty learning math, the development of
maladaptive problem-solving schema, and having teachers who prize accuracy, but
provide limited cognitive or motivational support. Research has shown that math
anxiety typically emerges during middle school and increases over the course of
adolescence. Some educators and researchers speculate, however, that math anxiety can
begin as early as elementary school (M. H. Ashcraft, personal communication, February
5, 2008).

Starting in the 1970s, researchers have been developing instruments to measure
math anxiety. The Fennema Sherman Mathematics Attitude Scale, developed originally
in 1976 and later modified explores not only math anxiety, but also areas such as confidence in math, usefulness of math, and math as a male domain (Fennema & Sherman, 1976). These instruments have been used to assess math anxiety as well as attitudes towards math in both school and OST settings (DeHaven & Weist, 2003; Ring, Pape, & Tittle, 2000). Another early assessment tool measuring math anxiety is Richardson and Suinn’s (1972) Mathematics Anxiety Rating Scale (MARS). This instrument, designed for high school and college students, as well as older adults, asks subjects to rate how anxious they would feel in a variety of academic and everyday situations. These early tools have spawned a variety of descendents (e.g., AMAS). More recently, researchers began developing measures that are appropriate for younger students. Suinn revised the MARS to created measures for high school students (MARS-A) and later for students in grades 4-8 (MARS-E) (Suinn & Edwards, 1982; Suinn, Taylor, & Edwards, 1988) The Mathematics Anxiety Scale for Children (Chiu & Henry, 1990) also is designed specifically for students in grades 4-8. Efforts are also currently underway to develop updated measures to assess math anxiety in adolescents and elementary school students (M. H. Ashcraft, personal communication, February 5, 2008).

While extensive research has been conducted on math anxiety, only one of the sixteen science assessments we reviewed addressed feelings of anxiety towards science (Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory). It is possible that science anxiety exists—particularly since science frequently is predicated on knowledge of math—but that it has not yet been acknowledged by the science community. If science anxiety does indeed exist, then the more relaxed, cooperative learning environment often found in after-school may be an ideal setting to reduce anxiety.
REFERENCES


Education Development Center (2008). The Inquiry Science Instruction Observation Protocol (ISIOP), National Science Foundation, Award Abstract #0535787.


Matters, Occasional Paper Series, No. 5, Fall.


Leslie, A. V. L. (1998). The effects of an after-school tutorial program on the reading and mathematics achievement, failure rate, and discipline referral rate of


TABLES AND FIGURES

FIGURE 1. COMPARISON OF NSF DOMAINS AND DOMAINS USED IN CURRENT REPORT

- NSF Domains
- Engagement / Interest
- Attitude
- Behavior
- Awareness, Knowledge, Understanding
- Skills

- Domains Used in Current Report
- Engagement / Interest
- Attitude / Behavior
- Content Knowledge
- Competence / Reasoning
- Career Knowledge / Acquisition
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1. ASSESSMENT DOMAIN CLASSIFICATIONS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engagement / Interest</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of participation / Interest in activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity in STEM-related activities and issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement about / Enthusiasm for engaging in STEM activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun / Enjoyment in STEM activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to become a scientist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitude / Behavior</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief that science / math is sensible, useful and worthwhile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief in one’s ability to understand and engage in science and math (“can do attitude”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro-social / adaptive learning behaviors in relation to STEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced anxiety / trepidation around STEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive scientific / math identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Knowledge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and/or re-affirmation and expansion of what one already knows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of fundamental skills (i.e, measuring)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to use basic instruments (i.e, graphing calculator, microscope)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competence and Reasoning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to formulate strategies and to investigate scientific / mathematical problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to think logically, reflect, explain and justify one’s strategies and solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to see connections between topics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to apply content knowledge in novel context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of and the ability to apply principles of scientific inquiry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of knowledge and ability to apply ethical principles of the profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Career Knowledge / Acquisition</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge about STEM career options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of pathways to STEM careers (i.e. pre-requisite classes, internships etc.)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**TABLE 2. EXAMPLES OF ASSESSMENT ITEMS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Engagement / Interest</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| *Science Opinion Survey, Item #5:*  
  When I leave school, I would like to work with people who make discoveries in science.  
  | I strongly agree | I agree | I’m not sure | I disagree | I strongly disagree |
| *Science Curiosity Scale, Item #9:*  
  I would like to experiment with the gadgets inside the space shuttle.  
  | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Uncertain | Agree | Strongly agree |
| *ROSE, Item A.7:*  
  How interested are you in learning about how the human body is built and functions?  
  | Not interested | A little interested | Interested | Very interested |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Attitude / Behavior</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| *Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS), #5:*  
  I would be willing to ride the bus to more places in order to reduce air pollution.  
  | Very true | Mostly true | Not sure | Mostly false | Very false |
| *Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory, ATSI Item Statements, #1:*  
  Science is useful in helping to solve the problems of everyday life.  
  | (1) Strongly disagree | (2) Disagree | (3) Uncertain | (4) Agree | (5) Strongly agree |
| *Test of Science-Related Attitudes (TOSRA), Item #29:*  
  The government should spend more money on scientific research.  
  | Strongly agree | Agree | Not Sure | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Content Knowledge</strong></th>
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</table>
| *Ohio’s Evaluation & Assessment Center Science Inquiry Test, Item #2:*  
  A small animal with dry skin and no legs that hatches from an egg is probably  
  | A. a snake | B. a worm | C. an eel | D. a lizard |
| *Children’s Environmental Attitude and Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS), Item #46:*  
  Which is most responsible for creating acid rain?  
  | (2) sulfur dioxide | (2) carbon dioxide | (3) ozone | (4) nitrogen | (5) ultraviolet radiation |
| *Ohio’s Evaluation & Assessment Center Science Inquiry Test, Item #2:*  
  Which of the following objects has the most inertia?  
  | A. A 50-kilogram rock | B. A 100-kilogram football player | C. An automobile | D. An oil tanker |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Competence and Reasoning</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| *SAI (Moore and Foy), Item 3-A:*  
  To operate in a scientific manner, one must display such traits as intellectual honesty,
dependence upon objective observation of natural events, and willingness to alter one’s position on the basis of sufficient evidence.

1 (Strongly agree) 2 (Agree) 3 (Undecided) 4 (Disagree) 5 (Strongly disagree)

VASS, Question 9:
When they investigate a particular event in the natural world, physicists: (a) look for all possible aspects that might be attributed to the event under investigation. (b) concentrate on particular aspects that they consider relevant to the purpose of the study

1. (a) >> (b) 2. (a) > (b) 3. (a) = (b) 4. (a) < (b) 5. (a) << (b)

EBAPS version 6.1, 02-01-2006, Item #19:
Scientists are having trouble predicting and explaining the behavior or thunder storms. This could be because thunder storms behave according to a very complicated or hard-to-apply set of rules. Or, that could be because some thunder storms don’t behave consistently according to any set of rules, no matter how complicated and complete that set of rules is. In general, why do scientists sometimes have trouble explaining things?

(f) Although things behave in accordance with rules, those rules are often complicated, hard to apply, or not fully known.
(g) Some things just don’t behave according to a consistent set of rules.
(h) Usually it’s because the rules are complicated, hard to apply, or unknown; but sometimes it’s because the thing doesn’t follow rules.
(i) About half the time, it’s because the rules are complicated, hard to apply, or unknown; and half the time, it’s because the thing doesn’t follow rules.
(j) Usually it’s because the thing doesn’t follow rules; but sometimes it’s because the rules are complicated, hard to apply, or unknown.

Career Knowledge / Acquisition

PISA, Q27c:
The subjects I study provide me with the basic skills and knowledge for a science-related career.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

PISA, Q27d:
My teachers equip me with the basic skills and knowledge I need for a science-related career.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
## TABLE 3. INFORMATION CHART FOR SCIENCE ASSESSMENT TOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument Name</th>
<th>Short Description</th>
<th>Type of Assessment</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Domain(s) Evaluated</th>
<th>Sample Item(s)</th>
<th>Admin- istration Time</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Frequency of Use</th>
<th>Primary Reference</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Environmental Attitudes &amp; Social Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS)</td>
<td>Measures children’s global attitudes and knowledge about environmental issues, such as animals, energy, pollution, recycling, water, and general issues.</td>
<td>36 Likert-scale items (addressing attitude) &amp; 30 multiple-choice questions (addressing knowledge)</td>
<td>5-point Likert scale (for attitude questions)</td>
<td>Initial study: 6-13-year-olds (grades 1 through 7) Subsequent studies: 11-17-year-olds; university students</td>
<td>Attitude statement: I have asked my family to recycle some of the things we use. Knowledge statement: Ecology is the study of the relationship between a) different species of animals b) plants and the atmosphere c) organisms and their environments d) man and other animals e) man and the environment</td>
<td>25 minutes</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha: 0.88-0.90 Test-retest: 0.57-0.72</td>
<td>Present &amp; acceptable</td>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>Leeming, F.C. &amp; Dwyer, W.O. (1995). Children’s environmental attitude and knowledge scale: Construction and validation. <em>Journal of Environmental Education</em>, 26(3), 22-32.</td>
<td>Initial study conducted in US. Subsequent studies conducted in Ireland and Turkey.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Science Curiosity Scale (CSCS)</td>
<td>Measures elementary school children’s attitudes towards science in a learning context.</td>
<td>30 Likert-scale items</td>
<td>5-point scale (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, strongly disagree)</td>
<td>Initial study: 5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; graders Subsequent studies: 5-8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; graders</td>
<td>Engagement/interest; attitude/behavior</td>
<td>I would like to experiment with gadgets inside the space shuttle. It is boring to learn new science words.</td>
<td>10-15 minutes</td>
<td>Internal Consistency: 0.85 (for 36 items) Test-retest: 0.67-0.69</td>
<td>Concurrent validity: 0.64 Construct validity: 0.77</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>Harty, H. &amp; Beall, D. (1984). Toward the development of a children’s science curiosity measure. <em>Journal of Research in Science Teaching</em>, 21(4), 425-436.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discovery Inquiry Test in Science (DIT)</td>
<td>Measures students’ ability to analyze and interpret data, extrapolate from one situation to another, and</td>
<td>29 multiple-choice items (11 focusing on life science, 8 on physical science, 6 on NA</td>
<td>Initial study: 6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;- 8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; graders</td>
<td>Content knowledge; competence &amp; reasoning</td>
<td>A small animal with dry skin and no legs that hatches from an is probably (a) a snake (b) a worm (c) an ant (d) a lizard</td>
<td>About 30 minutes</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha: 0.94</td>
<td>Present &amp; acceptable</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>Kahle, J.B., Mece, J. &amp; Scantlebury, K. (2000). Urban African-American middle school DIT was developed in 1994 by a group of university science faculty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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- 65 -
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument Name</th>
<th>Short Description</th>
<th>Type of Assessment</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Respondent Domain(s) Evaluated</th>
<th>Sample Item(s)</th>
<th>Administra - tion Time</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Frequency of Use</th>
<th>Primary Reference</th>
<th>Comments</th>
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</table>

Subsequent studies using DAST have included a checklist for raters, created follow-up questions and surveys with “artists,” and modified the instructions.

Advantages:
- no reading,
- writing or verbal skills needed
- minimizes

Juan thinks that water will evaporate faster in a warm place than in a cool one. He has two identical bowls and a bucket of water. He wants to do an experiment to find out if he is correct. Which of the following should he do?
(a) Place two bowls with the same amount of water in a warm place.
(b) Place a bowl of water in a cool place and a bowl with twice the amount of water in a warm place.
(c) Place a bowl of water in a cool place and a bowl with half of the amount of water in a warm place.
(d) Place a bowl of water in a cool place and a bowl with the same amount of water in a warm place.

Utilize conceptual understanding.

Earth and space science, and 4 on the nature of science; 20 items involve solving problems or conducting inquiry.

Students as well as about 4000 in Philadelphia and other cities


Members of Ohio’s SSI academic leadership teams, and other Ohio teachers.

DIT is exclusively compromised of NAEP 1990 and 1992 publicly released questions.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Instrument Name</th>
<th>Short Description</th>
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<th>Domain(s) Evaluated</th>
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<th>Validity</th>
<th>Frequency of Use</th>
<th>Primary Reference</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physics Science (EBAPS)</td>
<td>Measures students’ views about the nature of knowledge and learning in the physical sciences along five non-orthogonal dimensions (structure of scientific knowledge, nature of knowing and learning, real-life applicability, evolving knowledge, &amp; source of ability to learn).</td>
<td>30 items (Likert-scale &amp; multiple choice)</td>
<td>5-point Likert scale (for 17 questions) strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, neutral, somewhat agree, strongly agree</td>
<td>high school &amp; college students taking introductory physics, chemistry or physical science</td>
<td>attitude/behavior; competence &amp; reasoning</td>
<td>Understanding science is really important for people who design rockets, but not important for politicians. To be successful at science... (a) Hard work is much more important than inborn natural ability. (b) Hard work is a little more important than natural ability. © Natural ability and hard work are equally important. (d) Natural ability is a little more important than hard work. (e) Natural ability is much more important than hard work.</td>
<td>15-22 minutes</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>Present &amp; acceptable</td>
<td>rarely</td>
<td><a href="http://www2.physics.umd.edu/~elby/EBAPS/home.htm">http://www2.physics.umd.edu/~elby/EBAPS/home.htm</a></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory (mATSI)</td>
<td>Measures students’ attitudes towards science related to such factors as students' perceptions of</td>
<td>25 Likert-scale items</td>
<td>5-point scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree)</td>
<td>5th grade students</td>
<td>engagement/interest; attitude/behavior</td>
<td>I like the challenge of science assignments. I often think, “I cannot do this,” when a science assignment seems hard.</td>
<td>25 minutes</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha: 0.70</td>
<td>present</td>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>Weinburch, M.E. &amp; Steele, D. (2000). The modified attitudes toward science inventory: The author (Weinburch) of the ATSI revised her original instrument in order to make it reliable for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument Name</td>
<td>Short Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Science Assessment Instrument</td>
<td>Evaluates students’ knowledge of three fields of science (earth, physical, and life), three elements of knowing and doing science (conceptual understanding, scientific investigation, and practical reasoning), and two overarching domains in science (the nature of science and themes— systems, models, and patterns— present in science).</td>
<td>Multiple-choice, short constructed response questions, and extended constructed response questions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>4th, 8th and 12th grade students</td>
<td>attitude/behavior; content knowledge; competence &amp; reasoning</td>
<td>List four ways that the Earth is different from the moon. (4th grade) What property of water is most important for living organisms? (a) It is odorless, (b) It does not conduct electricity. (c) It is tasteless, (d) It is liquid at most temperatures on Earth. (8th grade) In the space below, draw a rough sketch (not necessarily to scale) illustrating the simplified model of the Solar System by showing the Sun and the four inner planets with their orbits. Be sure to label the Sun and each planet. (12th grade)</td>
<td>70 minutes (4th grade students)</td>
<td>103 minutes (8th and 12th grade students)</td>
<td>Inter-rater reliability: 0.94</td>
<td>present &amp; acceptable</td>
<td>frequently</td>
<td>Allen, N.L., Carlson, J., &amp; Zelenak, C.A. (1998). The NAEP 1996 Technical Report. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Developing an instrument to be used with fifth grade urban students. Journal of Women and Minorities in Science and Engineering, 6, 87-94. Urban African-American 5th grade students and reduce administration time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)</td>
<td>Assesses how well students can apply the scientific knowledge and skills they have learned at school to real-life challenges.</td>
<td>multiple-choice</td>
<td>various 4-point scales</td>
<td>15- and 16-year olds</td>
<td>engagement/interest; attitude/behavior; competence &amp; reasoning; career knowledge/acquisition</td>
<td>How much do you agree with the statement(s) below? I am interested in learning about science. Broad science is valuable to me.</td>
<td>2 hours</td>
<td>Information not currently available</td>
<td>Information not currently available</td>
<td>frequently</td>
<td>PISA 2006 Science Competencies for Tomorrow’s World (2007). Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Vol 1</td>
<td>57 countries participated in 2006 PISA survey, with 4,500-10,000 students in each country completing the survey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument Name</td>
<td>Short Description</td>
<td>Type of Assessment</td>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>Respondent</td>
<td>Domain(s) Evaluated</td>
<td>Sample Item(s)</td>
<td>Admin-istration Time</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>Frequency of Use</td>
<td>Primary Reference</td>
<td>Comments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Student Questionnaire</td>
<td>Assesses children’s interest in, attitude towards, and experiences in science and technology, as well as their opinion about environmental challenges and career aspirations.</td>
<td>Likert-scale items w/one open-ended question</td>
<td>Various 4-point Likert scales</td>
<td>15-year-olds</td>
<td>engagement/interest; attitude/behavior</td>
<td>How interested are you in... how people, animals, plants and the environment depend on each other? To what extent do you agree with the following statements... I can personally influence what happens with the environment. School science has opened my eyes to new and exciting jobs. Thanks to science and technology, there will be greater opportunities for future generations. [Outside of school], how often have you... tried to find the star constellations in the sky?</td>
<td>30-45 minutes</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha: 0.90</td>
<td>present &amp; acceptable</td>
<td>frequently</td>
<td>Schreiner, C. &amp; Sjoberg, S. (2004). Sowing the Seeds of Rose. Background, Rationale, Questionnaire Development and Data Collection for ROSE (The Relevance of Science Education)—A Comparative Study of Students’ Views of Science and Science Education. Department of Teacher Education and School Development. University of Oslo.</td>
<td>Data using the ROSE assessment is being collected in 35 countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science Opinion Survey (SOS)</td>
<td>Assesses current interest and attitudes in science activities at school.</td>
<td>30 Likert-scale items</td>
<td>5-point scale (I strongly agree, I agree, I’m not sure, I disagree, I strongly disagree)</td>
<td>Initial study: 7th-12th graders</td>
<td>Subsequent studies: 6th-8th graders</td>
<td>Science lessons are fun. Working in a science laboratory would be an interesting way to earn a living.</td>
<td>10-15 minutes</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>Gibson, H.L. &amp; Chase, C. (2002). Longitudinal impact of an inquiry-based science program on middle</td>
<td>Five items from the SOS were used in the 1996 NAEP survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument Name</td>
<td>Short Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scientific Attitude Inventory: A Revision (SAI II)</td>
<td>Assesses students' interest in science, their attitudes toward science, and their views of scientists and their desire to become scientists.</td>
<td>40 Likert-scale items</td>
<td>5-point scale</td>
<td>6th, 9th, and 12th grade students</td>
<td>Only highly trained scientists can understand science. The search for scientific knowledge is boring.</td>
<td>Information not available</td>
<td>Cronbach's alpha: 0.78 Split-half: 0.81</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Information not available</td>
<td>Moore, R.W. &amp; Hill Foy, R.L. (1997). The scientific attitude inventory: A revision (SAI II). <em>Journal of Research in Science Teaching</em>, 34(4), 327-336.</td>
<td>The author (Moore) of the SAI revised his original instrument in order to eliminate gender-biased references and words that have been criticized as difficult to read. He also shortened the instrument and changes the scale from 6-points to 5.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Test of Science Related Attitudes (TOSRA)</td>
<td>Assesses science-related attitudes along seven dimensions: social implications of science, normality of scientists, attitude toward scientific inquiry, adoption of scientific attitudes, enjoyment of science lessons, leisure interest in science, and career interest in science.</td>
<td>70 Likert-scale items (10 questions from 7 subscales)</td>
<td>5-point scale (strongly disagree, disagree, not sure, agree, strongly agree)</td>
<td>Original study: 7th, 10th graders</td>
<td>I would prefer to do experiments than to read about them. A job as a scientist would be interesting.</td>
<td>30-45 minutes (for 7th graders) 25-30 minutes (for 10th graders)</td>
<td>Cronbach's alpha: 0.82 Test-retest: 0.78</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>Fraser, B.L. (1978). Development of a test of science-related attitudes. <em>Science Education</em>, 62, 509-515. Fraser also developed a second TOSRA. TOSRA2 is comprised of two 35-statement questionnaires (pretest/protest). It is used with adults and children. The cross-cultural validity of TOSRA has been established in the US.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (VNOS-D)</td>
<td>Assesses students' views about the empirical, tentative, inferential, and creative and imaginative nature of science, as well as the distinction between observation and inference.</td>
<td>7 open-ended questions, along with an individual interview</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>6th graders</td>
<td>content knowledge; competence and reasoning</td>
<td>What do you think a scientific model is?</td>
<td>45 minutes (questionnaire); 30 minutes (interview)</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>Present and acceptable</td>
<td>frequently</td>
<td>Khishfe, R., &amp; Abd-El-Khalick, F. (2002). The influence of explicit and reflective versus implicit inquiry-oriented instruction on sixth graders' views of nature of science. <em>Journal of Research in Science Teaching</em>, 39(7), 551-578</td>
<td>There are two other versions of this instrument: VNOS-B (for preservice elementary teachers and secondary science teachers) (7 items) and VNOS-C (for college graduates and undergraduate and preservice science secondary teachers) (10 items).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views about Science Survey (VASS)</td>
<td>Probes personal beliefs about the nature of science within 3 scientific dimensions (structure, methodology, and validity of science) and learning science within 3 cognitive dimensions (learnability, reflective thinking, and personal relevance of science).</td>
<td>30 multiple choice items (13 related to scientific dimensions, 17 related to cognitive dimensions) set up as contrasting alternatives design (CAD)</td>
<td>5-point scale (most a, rarely b; more a than b; equally a &amp; b; more b than a; mostly b, rarely a)</td>
<td>8th-10th graders</td>
<td>engagement/interest; attitude/behavior; content knowledge; competence and reasoning</td>
<td>Learning physics requires: (a) a serious effort. (b) a special talent. Various branches of physics, like mechanics and electricity, are (a) related by common principles. (b) separate and independent.</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>Internal Consistency: assessed indirectly</td>
<td>present and acceptable</td>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>Halloun, Ibrahim. (2001). Student Views about Science: A Comparative Survey. Beirut: Phoenix Series / Educational Research Center, Lebanese University.</td>
<td>CAD requires respondents to balance between two contrasting statements. There are four forms of VASS, each one focusing on a different discipline (biology, chemistry, physics, and math).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views on Science-Technology-Society</td>
<td>“Monitors” students' views concerning the epistemological, catalog of 114 multiple choice questions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Initial study: 11th and 12th grade students</td>
<td>competence &amp; reasoning; attitude/behavior;</td>
<td>There seems to be two kinds of people, those who understand science and those who</td>
<td>30-55 minutes</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>Present and acceptable</td>
<td>frequently</td>
<td>Aikenhead, G.S., &amp; Ryan, A. (1992). The development of Administrator’s select (and modify) items that address</td>
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<tr>
<td>Instrument Name</td>
<td>Short Description</td>
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<td>Scale</td>
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<td>Sample Item(s)</td>
<td>Administration Time</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>Frequency of Use</td>
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<tr>
<td>(VOSTS)</td>
<td>social &amp; technological aspects of science.</td>
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<td>Subsequent studies: Post-secondary students</td>
<td>content knowledge</td>
<td>understand the arts (for example, literature, history, business, law). But if everyone studies more science, then everyone would understand the sciences. Your position, basically: (Please read from A to K, and then choose one) A. There ARE these two kinds of people. If the arts people did study more science, they would come to understand science, too, because the more you study something, the more you come to like and understand it. There ARE these two kinds of people. But if the arts people did study more science, they would not necessarily come to understand it better: B. because they may not have the skill or talent to understand science. Studying will not give them this skill. C. because they may not be interested in science. D. because they may not be oriented or inclined toward science. Studying science will not change the type of person you are. E. There are not just two kinds of people. There are as many kinds as there are individual preferences, including</td>
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<td>a new instrument: “Views on Science-Technology-Society” (VOSTS). Science Education, 76, 477-491.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument Name</td>
<td>Short Description</td>
<td>Type of Assessment</td>
<td>Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol (WASP)</td>
<td>Measures students' attitudes toward science.</td>
<td>50-item Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree)</td>
<td>4th-12th grade students</td>
<td>engagement/interest; attitude/behavior</td>
<td>We have a better world to live in because of science. Science discourages curiosity.</td>
<td>Information not available</td>
<td>0.91 - 0.94</td>
<td>present</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>Wareing, C. (1982). Developing the WASP: Wareing Attitudes towards Science Protocol, Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 19(8), 639-645.</td>
<td>A Chinese version of the WASP is available.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 4. INFORMATION CHARTS FOR SCIENCE ASSESSMENT TOOLS BY CATEGORY

#### DOMAIN CLASSIFICATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain Classification</th>
<th>Engagement/Interest</th>
<th>Attitude/Behavior</th>
<th>Content Knowledge</th>
<th>Competence &amp; Reasoning</th>
<th>Career Knowledge/Acquisition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Environmental Attitudes &amp; Social Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's Science Curiosity Scale (CSCS)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discovery Inquiry Test in Science (DIT)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Draw-a-Scientist Test (DAST)</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physics Science (EBAPS)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory (mATSI)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) 1996 Science Assessment Instrument</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Student Questionnaire</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Science Opinion Survey (SOS)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scientific Attitude Inventory: A Revision (SAI II)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Test of Science Related Attitudes (TOSRA)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (VNOS-D)</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views about Science Survey (VASS)</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views on Science-Technology-Society (VOSTS)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol (WASP)</td>
<td>✓</td>
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</table>
### METHOD OF ASSESSMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Drawing</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
<th>Multiple-Choice</th>
<th>Short-Constructed Response</th>
<th>Extended Response</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Test Description</td>
<td>Respondent</td>
<td>Elementary School (grades 1-5)</td>
<td>Middle School (grades 6-8)</td>
<td>High School (grades 9-12)</td>
<td>Post-Secondary Students</td>
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<tr>
<td>Children's Environmental Attitudes &amp; Social Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>Initial study (grades 6-7)</td>
<td>Subsequent studies (grade 8)</td>
<td>Subsequent studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Children's Science Curiosity Scale (CSCS)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>(5th graders)</td>
<td>Subsequent studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discovery Inquiry Test (DIT)</td>
<td>Subsequent study</td>
<td>(grade 4 and 5)</td>
<td>Initial study (grades 6-8)</td>
<td>Subsequent study (grade 9)</td>
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<td>Draw-a-Scientist Test (DAST)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>Subsequent studies</td>
<td>Subsequent studies</td>
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<td>Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physics Science (EBAPS)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
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<td>Initial study</td>
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<td>Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory (mATSI)</td>
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<td>(grade 5)</td>
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<td>National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) 1996 Science Assessment Instrument</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>(grade 4)</td>
<td>Initial study (grade 8)</td>
<td>Initial study (grade 12)</td>
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<td>Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)</td>
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<td>Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Student Questionnaire</td>
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<td>Initial study</td>
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<tr>
<td>Science Opinion Survey (SOS)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>(grades 7-8)</td>
<td>Subsequent studies (grades 6-8)</td>
<td>Initial study (grades 9-12)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scientific Attitude Inventory: A Revision (SAI II)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>(grade 6)</td>
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<td>Initial study (grade 9 and 12)</td>
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<td>Test of Science Related Attitudes (TOSRA)</td>
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<td>(grade 9 and 10)</td>
<td>Subsequent studies (grade 9-12)</td>
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<td>Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (VNOS-D)</td>
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<td>(grade 6)</td>
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<td>Alternative Assessment (VNOS-C)</td>
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<td>Views about Science Survey (VASS)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
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<td>Initial study</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views on Science-Technology-Society (VOSTS)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>(grade 11 and 12)</td>
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<td>Subsequent studies</td>
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<td>Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol (WASP)</td>
<td>Initial study</td>
<td>(grade 4 and 5)</td>
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### ADMINISTRATION TIME

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<th>Under 10 minutes</th>
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<th>21-30 minutes</th>
<th>31-45 minutes</th>
<th>Under 1 hour</th>
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<td>Children’s Science Curiosity Scale (CSCS)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Draw-a-Scientist Test (DAST)</td>
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<td>Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physics Science (EBAPS)</td>
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<td>Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory (mATSI)</td>
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<td>Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Student Questionnaire</td>
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<tr>
<td>Science Opinion Survey (SOS)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scientific Attitude Inventory: A Revision (SAI II)</td>
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<td>Test of Science Related Attitudes (TOSRA)</td>
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<td>Ψ (for 10th graders)</td>
<td>Ψ (for 7th graders)</td>
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<td>Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (VNOS-D)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views on Science-Technology-Society (VOSTS)</td>
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<td>Ψ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol (WASP)</td>
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<td>PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Children’s Environmental Attitudes &amp; Social Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS)</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha: 0.88-0.90 Test-Retest: 0.57-0.72</td>
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<td>Children's Science Curiosity Scale (CSCS)</td>
<td>Internal Consistency: 0.85 Test-Retest: 0.67-0.69</td>
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<td>Discovery Inquiry Test (DIT)</td>
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<td>Draw-a-Scientist Test (DAST)</td>
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<td>Not reported</td>
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<tr>
<td>Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physics Science (EBAPS)</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) 1996 Science Assessment Instrument</td>
<td>Inter-rater reliability: 0.94</td>
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<td>Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory (mAISI)</td>
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<td>Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)</td>
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<td>Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Student Questionnaire</td>
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<td>Scientific Attitude Inventory: A Revision (SAI II)</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha: 0.78 Split-Half: 0.81</td>
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<td>Test of Science Related Attitudes (TOSRA)</td>
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<td>Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (VNOS-D)</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Views about Science Survey (VASS)</td>
<td>Internal Consistency: assessed indirectly</td>
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<td>Views on Science-Technology-Society (VOSTS)</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol (WASP)</td>
<td>0.91-0.94</td>
<td>✓</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A. RELEVANT JOURNALS

The American Biology Teacher
American Journal of Evaluation
Bulletin of Sciences
Bulletin of Science, Technology and Society
Cognitive Science
Educational Assessment
Educational & Psychological Measurement
European Journal of Science Education
Journal of Curriculum Studies
Journal of the Learning Sciences
Journal of Research in Science Teaching
Journal of Science Teacher Education
Research in Science Education
Research in Science and Technological Education
Science
Science & Children
Science & Education
Science Education
Science Education International
The Science Teacher
Science, Technology, and Human Values
Studies in Educational Evaluation
Studies in Science Education
School Science & Mathematics
Technology & Society Magazine
APPENDIX B. SAMPLE PROGRAMS

4-H Wildlife Stewards (http://4hwildlifestewards.org/index.htm)
The Active Prolonged Engagement (APE) project (NSF funded at The Exploratorium)
The After-School Corporation (TASC)—NYC (http://www.tascorp.org/)
Boston University’s Project STAMP (www.bu.edu/lernet/programs/index.html)
Coalition for School After School
    (http://qt.exploratorium.edu/csas/index.html)
Curriculum Arts Technology and Science (CATS)
Design It! (http://cse.edc.org/curriculum/designit/)
Dragonfly Quest (Boys and Girls Clubs)
    (http://www.units.muohio.edu/dragonfly/bandg.shtml)
Foundations Discovers
Foundations Invents
Foundations Travels
GEMS Kits (http://www.carolina.com)
KidzLit (http://www.devstu.org/afterschool/askl/videos/index.shtml)
Kinetic City After School (http://www.kcmtv.com/evaluation.htm)
KLICK (Kids Learning in Computer Klubhouses)
    (http://klick.baldwin.k12.mi.us/)
Massachusetts Envirothon
Operation SMART (for Science, Math, and Relevant Technology), Girls Incorporated
    (http://www.girlsinc.org/ic/page.php?id=1.2.1)
Project Learn (http://www.ucar.edu/learn/)
Science for All
Science Explorer through Developmental Studies Center
Science and Technology Concepts for Middle School
    (http://www.stcms.si.edu/stcms.htm)
Science and Technology for Children (STC)
    (http://www.nsrconline.org/curriculum_resources/elementary.html)
Science by Stealth
Studio 3D (Digital, Design, and Development)
    (http://www.smm.org/studio3d/index.html)
TechREACH Puget Sound Center
Water Educational Training Science Project (www.emich.edu/wrc/WET.html)
A World of Motion (Society of Automotive Engineers International)
    (http://www.awim.org/)
Youth Exploring Science (http://www.youthexploringscience.com/)
APPENDIX B. SAMPLE PROGRAMS (CONTINUED)

21st Century Community Learning Center
2:00-600 Afterschool Initiative (Boston)
(http://www.bostonbeyond.org/research/Outcomes_Evaluation/index.html)
4-H Afterschool (http://www.4-h afterschool.org/evaluations.aspx)
6 to 6 Extended School Day Program (San Diego)
(http://www.sandi.net/extended_learning/6to6/)
Academic Competitiveness Council (ACC)
Academy of Engineering Labs
Afterschool Alliance (http://www.afterschoolalliance.org/)
American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS)
Arizona Science Center (http://www.azscience.org/)
Assessment of Performance Unit (APU)
Association of Science-Technology Centers (http://www.astc.org/)
AVID Center (http://www.avidonline.org/)
AYS
Berkeley Evaluation and Assessment Research Center (BEAR)
(http://bearcenter.berkeley.edu/)
Assessing Science Knowledge (ASK)
Constructing a Framework for Science Assessment Systems
Better Education for Tomorrow Program (LA’s BEST) Los Angeles
Boston Afterschool for All Partnership
Boston Afterschool DELTAS (http://www.bpsdeltas.org/)
Classroom Assessment Project to Improve Teaching and Learning (CAPITAL)
Center for Equity and Bilingual Education, San Diego State University
(http://edweb.sdsu.edu/i2techscie/index.htm)
Center for Informal Learning and Schools
(http://www.exploratorium.edu/CILS/)
Center for Science Education (http://cse.edc.org/aboutus/default.asp)
Center for Science and Mathematics Education Research
(http://www.umaine.edu/center/)
Center for Social Organization of Schools at John Hopkins University
Center for the Study of Evaluation (CSE)
Center for Summer Learning (http://www.summerlearning.org/)
Challenger Center for Space Science Education (http://www.challenger.org/)
Charles Stewart Mott Foundation
Children’s Aid Society (http://www.childrensaidso ciety.org/)
Citizen Schools (http://www.citizenschools.org/)
Coalition for Science in Afterschool
(http://qt.exploratorium.edu/csas/index.html)
Collaborative After School Project, U of CA (UCI-CASP)
Consumers Guide to Afterschool Science Resources
APPENDIX B. SAMPLE PROGRAMS (CONTINUED)

Consulting Solutions
Department of Education
Education Development Center (EDC)
Educational Equity Center-Academy for Educational Development
(http://www.edequity.org/)
Explora (http://www.explora.us/ExploraPHP/english/index.php)
Exploratorium (http://www.exploratorium.edu/)
Explorit Science Center (http://www.explorit.org/)
Family Museum (http://www.familymuseum.org/currentevents.htm)
The Forum for Youth Investment (http://www.forumfyi.org/)
Foundations, Inc. (http://www.foundationsinc.org/)
Free-Choice Learning Program, Science & Mathematics Education Department
(http://oregonstate.edu/dept/sci_mth_education/)
Girl Scouts of the USA (http://www.girlscouts.org/)
Girls Incorporated (http://www.girlsinc.org/)
Great Lakes Children’s Museum (http://www.greatlakeskids.org/)
Goodman Research Group
Harvard Family Research Project’s Out-of-School Time Program Research and
Evaluation Database
(http://www.gse.harvard.edu/hfrp/projects/afterschool/evaldatabase.html)
The Health Adventure (http://www.thehealthadventure.org/)
Hewlett Foundation
Horizons Research, Inc.
Immersion Presents (http://www.immersionpresents.org/)
Informal Science Education (ISE) program at NSF
Informal Science Evaluation Reports and Resources
(http://www.informalscience.org/evaluation/index.php)
Informal Science Education Resource Center (www.insci.org)
Institute for Research on Learning
International Assessment of Educational Progress (IAEP)
International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Assessment (IEA)
Kimball Group
Learning Center
Learning through Evaluation, Adaptation and Dissemination (LEAD) Center
Learning Point Associates
Liberty Science Center (http://www.lsc.org/)
Marion County Commission on Youth, Inc. (http://www.mccoyouth.org/)
Massachusetts Afterschool Research Study (MARS)
Massachusetts Board of Education (Pat Plummer)
Massachusetts Comprehension Assessment System (MCAS)
McREL (http://www.mcrel.org/)
Mott Foundation
MPR Museum Consulting (http://www.mprconsultants.com/)
APPENDIX B. SAMPLE PROGRAMS (CONTINUED)

National Afterschool Association (NAA)
National Assessment of Educational Programs (NAEP)
National Association of Biology Teachers (NABT)
National Association for Research in Science Teaching
National Center for Atmospheric Research (http://www.ucar.edu/)
National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)
National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing (CRESST)
National Center for Research in Mathematical Science Education
National Council on Measurement in Education
National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS)
National Institute on Out-of-School Time (NIOST) (http://www.niost.org/)
National Partnership for Quality After-School Learning (http://www.sedl.org/afterschool/)
National Research Council (NRC)
National Science Foundation (NSF)
National Science Teachers Association (NSTA)
Nauticus, The National Maritime Center (http://www.nauticus.org/)
New Jersey School-Age Care Coalition (http://www.njsacc.org/index.html)
New York Hall of Science (http://www.nyscience.org/)
Northwest Invention Center (http://www.invention-center.com/)
OERL, the Online Evaluation Resource Library: Search for Learner and Parent Instruments (http://oerl.sri.com/search/instrSearch.jsp)
Oregon Mathematics Leadership Institute (OMLI)
Out-of-School Time Resource Center (http://www.sp2.upenn.edu/text.html)
Pacific Science Center (http://www.pacsci.org/)
Packard Foundation
Partners for Outreach in Informal STEM Education (POISED) (https://php.radford.edu/~poised/)
PlusTime NH (http://www.plustime.org/)
Program Evaluation and Research Group, Lesley College
Program for International Student Assessment (PISA)
Program in Science Education, Teachers College, Columbia
Project Exploration (http://www.projectexploration.org/)
Salvadori Center (http://www.salvadori.org/)
Sayre Schools 21st CCLC PALS Program
Science Club for Girls (http://www.scienceclubforgirls.org/)
UMASS Donahue Institute (Eric Heller)
University of Wisconsin-Extension Program Development and Evaluation
RAND
Sacramento Start
APPENDIX B. SAMPLE PROGRAMS (CONTINUED)

Science Education through Portfolio Instruction and Assessment (SEPIA)
Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) Education Caucuses
(http://www.stemcaucus.org/)
Secondary International Science Study (SISS)
Shake-a-Leg Miami
(http://www.shakealegmiami.org/site/c.kkLUJbMQKpH/b.2521629/k.BF03/Home.htm)
St. Louis Science Center (http://www.slsc.org/)
Stanford Research Institute (SRI)
Steppingstone Foundation
Techbridge Program, Chabot Space & Science Center
(http://www.techbridgegirls.org/)
TERC (http://www.terc.edu/)
The After-School Corporation (TASC) in New York City
(http://www.tascorp.org/index_html)
Tree Frog Treks (http://www.treefrogtreks.com/)
Trends in International Mathematical and Science Study (TIMSS)
United Way (youth development instruments)
University of California Cooperative Extension, Santa Cruz County 4-H Youth
Development Program (http://cesantacruz.ucdavis.edu/)
University of California, Lawrence Hall of Science
(http://www.lawrencehallofscience.org/)
University of Pittsburgh Center for Learning in Out-of-School Environments
(www.informalscience.org)
Vernier Technology Lab, Oregon Museum of Science & Industry
(http://omsi.edu/visit/tech/lab.cfm)
What We Know about Girls, STEM, and Afterschool Programs: A Summary
(http://www.afterschool.org/sga/pubs/whatweknow.pdf)
WGBH (http://www.wgbh.org/)
APPENDIX C. CHILD ASSESSMENT TOOLS

4-H Youth Survey
After-School Environment Scale (ASES)
After-School Initiative’s (ASI) Toolkit for Evaluating Positive Youth Development
Attitudes toward Chemistry
Attitudes toward Science Inventory (ATSI)
Attitude toward Subject Science Scale (ATSSS)
Beacon Program Adolescent Survey
Biology Attitude Scale
Chemistry Attitudes and Experiences Questionnaire (CAEQ)
Career Decision-Making System Revised, Level 1 (CDM-R)
Children’s Environmental Attitudes and Knowledge Scale (CHEAKS)
Children’s Science Curiosity Scale (CSCS)
Colorado Learning Attitudes about Science Survey (CLASS)
Colorado Trust Youth Participant Survey
Colorado Trust Student Survey
Contrasting Alternative Designs (CAD)
Discovery Inquiry Test (DIT)
Draw-a-Scientist Test (DAST)
ECSEL
Epistemological Beliefs Assessment for Physics Science (EBAPS)
Eurobarometer
Fetch
Girls in Information Technology (Girl Scouts)
Health Adventure Student Survey
Inquiry Science Instruction Observation Protocol (ISIOP)
MC²/ChemLinks: Student Interview Protocol
Modified Attitudes towards Science Inventory (mATSI)
National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)
New Traditions Survey & Student Interview Protocol
New York City Beacons Evaluation, Adolescent Interview
Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)
Promising After-School Programs Questionnaire
(2 surveys: elementary & middle school students)
Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Student Questionnaire
School Achievement Indicators Program (SAIP) Science Assessment II
Scope Notebook
Science Explorations
Science Education for Public Understanding Program (SEPUP)
Science Management Observation Protocol (SMOP)
Science Opinion Survey
Science Process Inventory (SPI)
Science-Related Attitude Instrument (SRAI)
Scientific Attitudes Inventory (SAI)
APPENDIX C. CHILD ASSESSMENT TOOLS (CONTINUED)

Scientific Attitudes Inventory II (SAI II)
Special Strategies Observation System
Student Achievement Indicators Program (SAIP)
Student Motivation towards Science Learning (STMSL)
Student Opinion Survey in Chemistry (SOSC)
Survey of Technology Infrastructure (STI)
Techbridge
Test of Biology Related Attitudes (TOBRA)
Test of Science Related Attitudes (TOSRA)
The After-School Corporation (TASC) Student Questionnaire (3 questionnaires: elementary, middle and high school students)
University of Kentucky Field Trip Questionnaire
Views about Science Survey (VASS)
Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (VNOS)
Views of Nature of Science Questionnaire (Elementary-Middle School Version) (VNOSD)
Views on Science and Education Questionnaire (VOSE)
Views on Science-Technology-Society (VOSTS)
Wareing Attitude toward Science Protocol (WASP)
Women in Science Scale (WiSS)
Youth Survey Mentor-Youth Relationships
Youth-Mentor Relationship Questionnaire
AUTHORS NOTE

We would like to thank the board of the Noyce Foundation for their generous support of this project. Dr. Pendred (Penny) Noyce and Ron Ottinger are not only dedicated to strengthening the afterschool science field through research, practice and policy, but were actively engaged throughout the writing process. We also want to thank Alan Friedman who gave his time and expertise at critical moments.

In addition, we want to acknowledge the many researchers and evaluators, policy makers and practitioners whose input has helped form this report. In particular, we would like to thank the following individuals for participating in our focus group discussions: Jessica Andrews (WGBH), Dan Barstow (TERC), Brenda Britsch (National Girls Collaborative Project), Connie Chow (Science Club for Girls), Bob Coulter (Missouri Botanical Gardens), Eda Davis-Lowe (SMILE at Oregon State), Alice Dennis (Girl Scouts), Nancy Deutch (Curry School of Education at University of Virginia), Jason Freeman (Coalition for Science After School), Ellen Gannet (National Institute on Out-of-School Time), Leslie Goodyear (Education Development Center, Inc.), Georgia Hall (National Institute on Out-of-School Time), Charlie Hutchinson (Education Development Center, Inc.), Susan LeMenestrel, (4-H), Sam Piha (Community Network for Youth Development), Kristin Pineo (United Way), Kim Pond (4-H), Tim Porter (Boston Children’s Museum), Elizabeth Reisner (Policy Studies Associates), Judith Stull (Mid-Atlantic Laboratory for Student Success at Temple University), Wendy Surr (Wellesley Centers for Women), Charlie Trautman (Sciencenter), Sam Whalin (College of Education, University of Illinois at Chicago), Nicole Yohalem (Forum for Youth Investment), and John Zuman (INCRE). The discussions with these individuals have played a valuable and significant role in informing our report.