The National Research Council’s recent publication *A Framework for K–12 Science Education: Practices, Crosscutting Concepts, and Core Ideas* (NRC 2011), which is the foundation for the Next Generation Science Standards now being developed, places unprecedented focus on the practices involved in doing scientific and engineering work. In an effort to lend specificity to the broad notion of “inquiry,” the intent behind the practices outlined in the *Framework* is for students to engage in sensible versions of the actual cognitive, social, and material work that scientists do. This article focuses on one of those practices.

**Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information**

Reading and writing comprise over half of the work of scientists and engineers (NRC 2011; Tenopir and King 2004). This includes the production of various scientific representations—such as tables, graphs, and diagrams—as well as other forms of communication such as giving conference presentations and speaking to the public and other stakeholders. The reading and writing that scientists do help them better understand scientific ideas and communicate their research to their colleagues and to the public. Thus, K–12 students of science should have substantial and varied experiences with reading, analyzing, writing, and otherwise communicating science so that they too can deeply engage with disciplinary core ideas and crosscutting concepts while exploring practices associated with scientific reading and writing. This is why the “obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information” practice was included in the *Framework*.

K–12 students should learn how to conceptualize, compose, and refine different types of scientific writing from detailed scientific research abstracts to articles for a lay audience on current issues related to topics such as health and the environment to elaborate evidence-based arguments and even to proposals for funding. They should also learn how to find and understand everything from science-related newspaper articles to peer-reviewed journal articles—at reading levels that are developmentally appropriate and with use of relevant disciplinary criteria to select pieces and judge their quality. K–12 students also need practice obtaining information and evaluating it (to make personal health decisions or take informed action on environmental issues, for example). Students should learn to search and browse scientific and library databases, the internet, and print and digital media outlets (newspapers, magazines, blogs, Twitter, RSS feeds) for information they can use to inform their research and learning of science. They need to practice evaluating the information they find, learning how to judge whether information is credible and by whose criteria, as well as learning which information is necessary and useful for any given purpose.

In articulating the related learning goals, the *Framework* (NRC 2011, pp. 75–76) specifies that all students should be able to:

- Use words, tables, diagrams, and graphs, as well as mathematical expressions, to communicate their understanding or to ask questions about a system under study.
- Read scientific and engineering text, including tables, diagrams, and graphs, commensurate with their scientific knowledge and explain the key ideas being communicated.
Recognize the major features of scientific and engineering writing and speaking and be able to produce written and illustrated text and oral presentations that communicate their own ideas and accomplishments.

Engage in a critical reading of primary scientific literature (adapted for classroom use as appropriate) and of media reports of science and discuss the validity and reliability of associated data, hypotheses, and conclusions.

Instruction as a “Cascade of Practices”

The Framework calls for students to routinely participate in extended science and engineering investigations that engage them in authentic practices while learning about disciplinary core ideas and making connections to the crosscutting concepts. Direct participation in scientific and engineering work will support students’ science learning and the scientific literacy goals of the Framework. We argue that it will also help students understand specific career possibilities in the sciences and in engineering.

The practices do not operate in isolation, and we argue that part of giving students opportunities to participate in authentic scientific and engineering work is ensuring that they can experience firsthand the interrelatedness of these practices—as an unfolding and often overlapping sequence, or a cascade. For example, students may begin by learning about natural resources and posing a testable scientific question (practice 1) before designing a study and collecting data (practice 3), analyzing and interpreting those data (practice 4), developing a model (practice 2), and communicating important aspects of that model to an audience (practice 8). Many such permutations exist for sequencing and overlapping the practices during investigations, depending on the type of scientific or engineering investigation underway and the specific learning goals in question.

Promoting Educational Equity Through Practices

The focus on practices can also advance an educational equity agenda. There is often an artificial distinction made in science learning experiences between what counts as science and what is not science (Calabrese Barton 1998; Warren et al. 2003). Removing this barrier allows for learners to make connections between their lives and science and engineering and allows for diverse voices to be heard (Calabrese Barton 1998, p. 389). This is particularly important for the language-intensive practice of obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information. The Framework describes another instructional strategy: “Recognizing that language and discourse patterns vary across culturally diverse groups, researchers point to the importance of accepting, even encouraging, students’ classroom use of informal or native language and familiar modes of interaction” (NRC 2011, p. 285). These inclusive instructional strategies allow students to leverage what they know and participate in the work of science focused on community interests and practices.

Example 1 (Prekindergarten): Beginning a science research practice with our youngest students

Young children are curious about the world around them and readily engage in informal science throughout their everyday lives. The Framework calls for a significant focus on providing science learning opportunities in preschool and early elementary school, so it is important to consider how young students still learning to read and write can engage in the practices of science. Through a multiyear research collaboration with two prekindergarten classrooms, the team has developed an approach to science instruction that aligns to the vision in the Framework by incorporating students’ science-related interests and experiences while engaging them in practices, developing an understanding of core ideas, and making connections to crosscutting concepts.

During a unit early in the school year, one teacher was reflecting on all of the questions her students had been asking about the natural world and their varied interests related to the unit. Realizing that she did not have enough time to address each student’s individual questions, she came up with an activity that became known as “Research Day.” Students were given classroom time to do their own research using relevant nonfiction books preselected by the teachers and the school librarian, and then they drew, dictated, and shared their research findings with their peers.

In a later unit about garden ecosystems, students asked many questions about insects and other living creatures found in a garden (e.g., aphids, bees, worms, spiders, etc.), so the teachers offered another Research Day. One student, Eleanor, was immediately attracted to a book with colorful illustrations of ladybugs in a garden. A teacher came over to read the text to her, and Eleanor, satisfied with her book selection, drew a detailed picture of a ladybug surrounded by aphids on her research paper. She then dictated information about ladybugs to be written on her paper by a teacher (see photo, previous page): “Sometimes ladybugs’ food runs out, and there are not enough aphids to go around. The ladybugs gather in a swarm and fly off somewhere near to survive.” Here, the teacher’s support of the students’ individual interests allowed Eleanor to find information that provided further evidence related to Core Idea LS2 (Ecosystems: Interactions, Energy, and Dynamics) in their garden ecosystems unit: Animals depend on their surroundings for survival.
All students were given time to look through books and document their newly learned information through drawings and dictations, just like Eleanor. At the end of Research Day, the students stood in front of the class to share their research papers with their peers, describing their drawings and explaining what they learned that day. Later, the teachers compiled the research papers into a book that was displayed in the classroom. Research Day was repeated during various units throughout the year, resulting in a collection of student research that was reviewed by the students and their parents.

Example 2 (Grade 5): Using public service announcements to communicate the science behind everyday health practices

The Micros and Me curriculum unit focuses students on the learning of microbiology by connecting it to personally and community-relevant health issues. We incorporate inquiry investigations, such as investigating the presence of beneficial microorganisms like yeast, sampling for microorganisms in school, and conducting student-centered investigations about hand washing and “green” cleaning. The design has two goals: (1) making science personally consequential to students’ lives, and (2) connecting authentic scientific practices and content deeply with students’ everyday practices. Students learn about the characteristics of life such as reproduction (LS1.B) and the structure of plant and animal cells (LS1.A). While learning about growth of “micros” (bacteria, viruses, fungi), they learn that organisms have certain requirements for life (LS1.C).

One of the central innovations in the curriculum is a self-documentation technique (Tzou and Bell 2010) accompanied by community-based interviews conducted by the students to elicit students’ family and community-based activities related to health and illness prevention. Self-documentation is a technique where, in this case, students were given digital cameras to take home for one night to document the activities in their lives related to an open-ended prompt. However, we have also used self-documentation in other contexts where students just record in a journal or on a worksheet the activities in their everyday lives related to a prompt.

In Micros and Me, students investigate the following prompt: “What are ways that you and your family/community stay healthy and keep from getting sick?” We argue that because non-Western customs and ways of thinking are typically marginalized in traditional school science curricula (Ballenger and Carpenter 2004), it is particularly important—when thinking about broadening participation in science—to find ways to connect a broader range of practices to important curricular goals in science education. In Micros and Me, the self-documented activities are connected to a student-led research project where students synthesize information from scientific investigations in the unit, self-document home and community activities, and conduct independent internet and library research on health issues found in their community to construct an evidence-based argument in the form of a public service announcement, several of which are displayed in the school and the local public library.

The goal of the public service announcement is threefold: (1) to validate and leverage students’ everyday activities within the context of formal science instruction, (2) to give students practice unpacking and evaluating internet and book-based research sources, and (3) to engage students in communication of scientific ideas to a public audience of their choosing. Students are asked to choose a personally relevant health activity to research (e.g., managing asthma), find at least three sources about that activity, and construct a convincing public service announcement aimed at persuading their friends and families to take some type of action related to the activity in question. In a public service announcement poster about E. coli, written in crayon, we see evidence of the student communicating scientific information in the language that is appropriate to his peer audience. The student gives four examples for avoiding the contraction of E. coli: ordering well-cooked meat in a restaurant, not drinking water in lakes, drinking pasteurized juice, and washing hands after using the restroom. Finally, the student translates this information into a list in Spanish on the left side of the poster since that language is prominent in his community. This example shows how empirical and research-focused activities can be integrated with high personal and community relevance by designing instruction to include the communication practice.

Example 3 (Grade 8): Evaluating and arguing with evidence in a classroom science debate

The third example comes from a curriculum intervention study conducted in an eighth-grade physical science classroom where the teacher made extensive use of computer learning environments to support students’ science investigations (Linn and Hsi 2000). This example highlights how two scientific practices—“obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information” and “engaging in argument from evidence”—can be productively sequenced to support students’ conceptual learning.

It can be very productive to view science classrooms as “scientific communities writ small” where students produce, share, debate, and refine knowledge in similar ways to how practicing scientists do it. In this unit, students evaluated disparate sources of information—from their classroom experiments, various web sources and advertisements, to their own life experiences—according to scientific criteria. They identified and evaluated this information as they prepared for a classroom debate. The goal of the classroom debate is to come to a group consensus about the topic as a “scientific community.”
After conducting four weeks of experiments related to the properties of light embedded in Core Ideas PS4.B and PS4.C (e.g., light intensity over distance, how light travels through space from distant stars, reflection, absorption/energy conversion), students then engaged in an eight-day debate project as a culminating activity for the light unit. They evaluated a shared corpus of evidence, searched out new evidence on the internet, developed detailed written, evidence-based arguments, and engaged in two days of whole class debate about “How Far Does Light Go?” (Bell 2004).

Figure 1 shows the kind of written arguments students authored, for various pieces of evidence in the corpus, when they were given the sentence-starter “We think this supports the theory ____ because....” In addition to this “causal prompt” scaffold, students also reflected on multiple relevant criteria related to how well the evidence fits with scientific knowledge, whether appropriate methods were used, the trustworthiness of the source, and the usefulness of the information for the debate topic. As shown in Figure 2, each pair of students created an argument map using a software tool called SenseMaker that related pieces of evidence (shown as dots) to conceptual claims (shown as boxes). These argument maps allowed for an easy comparison of students’ ideas during the classroom debate. The transcript (opposite) highlights the kind of sense-making discussions that happened as students tried to develop a shared understanding of the physics of light.

Student 2 explains the decision to consider a certain phenomenon labeled “The Soccer Field” irrelevant, meaning that it doesn’t provide any evidence that can be used to distinguish between the two alternative theories. Student 3 provides a different perspective, saying that the light is stopped at different distances, which leads student 2 to reconsider the evidence. This approach to drawing the relationships between theories and evidence allows for more focused questions to be posed to peers, and the detailed written arguments allowed students to share and refine their conceptual ideas at a deeper level.

Whole class sense-making conversations like this one were shown to support students’ conceptual learning about light on cognitive assessments (Bell 2004). Students also developed epistemic knowledge that science is a social enterprise that progresses through the evaluation of evidence, systematic argumentation from evidence, and the collaborative debate of ideas (Bell and Linn 2002).

Example 4 (Grade 10): Communicating research investigations to scientists

This fourth example showcases the communicative practices of high school biology students who participated in contemporary infectious disease-related research. Students learned the biology behind why various pathogens make humans sick at the cellular level, as well as the science behind how and why infectious diseases are transmitted locally and globally. They learned ideas embedded in Core Idea LS1 (From Molecules to Organisms: Structures and Processes), such as cell structure and function related to the immune system, as well as ideas embedded in Core Idea LS4 (Biological Evolution: Unity and Diversity), such
as viral evolution. Students had their choice of project: a local social network analysis in order to learn about and apply constructs like herd immunity or a global epidemic modeling study in order to think about the various factors affecting the spread of infectious disease, such as seasonality and viral latency periods. As part of these projects, students read original research, communicated with scientists who conduct this type of research, and conducted their own research. Students developed products to communicate various aspects of their work to scientists and other health professionals, their teachers, and their peers. These products included: (a) a research design plan, (b) an elevator speech, and (c) an original research paper.

Once students selected a project, they designed a research study to conduct. Part of this involved reading published social network analysis studies involving infectious diseases or published global epidemic modeling studies (depending on students’ project choice), reading background information on analysis and modeling tools, and reading background information on the disease(s) they wanted to use as a case study. Students then wrote their research design plan (see Figure 3 for an example with expert feedback) where they developed the specifics of the study they wanted to conduct, including their testable question, their rationale(s) for posing that question, their hypothesis, their methods, and their thinking about how they would know if their data supported or refuted their hypothesis (and spoke to their testable question). Once students designed their studies, they forwarded their research plans to scientists and health professionals, who provided feedback (e.g., questions to ponder, challenges to students’ thinking, resources to investigate, and lessons learned from their own research). Students then revised their plans based on the feedback and proceeded with their studies.

After students collected and analyzed their data, they wrote elevator speeches (Figure 4) in which they clearly and succinctly explained the details of their study, including

---

**Example 3 Transcript Segment**

[Student 1]
Why did you put The Soccer Field in *Irrelevant*?

[Student 2, presenting to the class]
I put *The Soccer Field* in *Irrelevant* because... oh yeah—because it was the one with the flashlight and they held the light back and then the light from the car—like headlights they—it went further so it didn’t—I don’t think it really made a difference. Or I don’t think it really supported either theory because it did go a long ways, but the light intensity wasn’t as strong.

[Student 3]
For *The Soccer Field*, doesn’t that kind of prove how far light keeps going if it keeps showing as its—as [the guy] keeps moving back and the light—light gets stopped like a reflection or would it stop that light because <UNCLEAR>.

[Student 2]
Well, I don’t think it really supports either theory because I know that the light is still there, and it’s being absorbed and it’s spreading out so much that you can’t see it, but the light energy is still there.

---

**FIGURE 3**

A sample research design plan with feedback from a scientist.

3. Describe the global transmission modeling study of influenza you plan to complete. [HINT: What are you interested in investigating? This can change once you become more familiar]

We are interested in investigating the differences in infection rates of influenza based on a few predefined variables such as transmission rate or ability to travel by plane and car.

4. What does your group’s initial research question related to influenza and how it is transmitted globally?

The first question we plan to ask is what effect comes of decreasing the amount of airline travel once the disease begins. The second question we want to ask is if we increased the amount of time a disease is infectious, what effect will come concerning the spread speed of said disease?

5. What is your group’s initial hypothesis? What do you think you will find?

We feel that decreasing air travel will decrease the speed at which the virus spreads, but maybe not too much. This hypothesis comes from the multifarious ways that disease can spread. Decreasing airline travel may seem like a good idea, but there is still sea and land travel that will allow the disease to spread. Also, we feel that as we increase the
their preliminary findings. They received feedback on the text of their speeches from peers, and they then revised their speeches in preparation for a two-minute presentation to scientists and health professionals. Students answered questions based on their research and the ideas they learned in class.

After receiving this additional feedback on their research, students wrote an original mini-research paper in which they fused aspects of their research design plan with their data analysis. They drafted findings and crafted evidence-based arguments to make claims related to their research questions. These claims were undergirded by their data and analyses of those data. These mini-research papers were peer-reviewed and published online so that others ranging from teachers to parents to others in the community could read about their work.

Conclusions

We hope this article can open up a discussion with science educators in all areas of the system—from K–12 schools to informal science institutions and afterschool learning environments—about the varied ways to provide opportunities for young people to obtain, evaluate, and communicate information in science and engineering. Substantial acts of reading, writing, and otherwise communicating should be embedded in students’ science and engineering investigations. As described in the Framework, this supports important cognitive and social learning processes, it helps accomplish the ambitious learning goals outlined in the Framework, and it also allows related learning goals to be focused on (e.g., those outlined in the Common Core State Standards in Mathematics and ELA—Science and Technology). For these reasons, it is an ideal time to engage youth in practices related to obtaining, evaluating, and communicating scientific and engineering-related information.

**References**


**Philip Bell** (pbell@uw.edu) is professor of the learning sciences at the University of Washington, Seattle. He served on the team that developed the NRC Framework. **Leah Bricker** (lbricker@umich.edu) is assistant professor, science education, at the University of Michigan. **Carrie Tzou** (tzouct@uw.edu) is assistant professor, science education, at the University of Washington. **Tiffany Lee** (tlee03@uw.edu) is a post-doctoral scholar with the Learning in Informal and Formal Environments (LIFE) Center at the University of Washington, Seattle; and **Katie Van Horne** (katievh@uw.edu) is a graduate researcher at the University of Washington Institute for Science and Math Education.