The momentum toward reform of science education brings pressures on schools and teachers to evaluate or otherwise account for children's progress in science. Although this interest can bring with it a certain amount of rush to judgment, it brings an opportunity to explore assessment alternatives that are fundamentally different from conventional evaluation methods. This paper focuses on one purpose of assessment, to inform instruction and support learning, starting from the premise that the foremost function of classroom assessment in the early years is to enhance teachers' powers of observation and understanding of children's learning. The paper discusses the guiding principles of preschool assessment: (1) including multiple forms and sources of evidence; and (2) using evidence collected over time, evidence highlighting what the individual knows, and evidence showing the collective knowledge of groups of learners. The paper also discusses documentation as an approach to assessment, including children's talk, guidelines for documenting science discussions, and a sample document recording a class discussion. The paper concludes with an examination of how lessons from early literacy assessment can be applied to early science assessment. (EV)
SCIENCE ASSESSMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD PROGRAMS

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The momentum toward reform of science education brings pressures on schools and teachers to evaluate or otherwise account for children’s progress in science. During an earlier era of neglect of science education not much attention was paid to assessment and evaluation, but currently there is widespread interest at all levels of the educational system. This interest can bring with it a certain rush to judgement, but it also brings an opportunity to explore assessment alternatives that are fundamentally different from conventional evaluation methods.

Assessment can be defined as the process of identifying, collecting, and analyzing the records of learning in order to make informed judgments about students. Especially in early childhood, this process should support teachers’ inquiry into children’s learning more than identify discrete strengths and weaknesses. We know that learning takes time, young children need the chance to explore and make connections, and learning is social. Yet this very complexity of learning makes it difficult to see the “science” in children’s activities. What does young children’s science look like? How do you know it when you see it? Given this context, a first purpose of assessment in early childhood should be to enhance teachers’ capacities to observe, document, and understand learning. Opportunities for thoughtful examination of children’s learning may not be a routine part
of the professional life of many teachers, but new approaches to assessment could provide occasions for such reflection.

GENERAL PURPOSES OF ASSESSMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD

Educational assessments serve a variety of purposes and yield different kinds of results. The term assessment itself carries multiple meanings. Often, assessments are equated with testing—statewide "assessment programs" of science are, in essence, statewide "testing programs." Sometimes the term suggests a more diagnostic function, as in the identification of children with special needs. And, sometimes assessment invokes a wide array of procedures drawing upon various kinds of information; for example, classroom assessments of mathematics and early literacy that include use of student work samples and portfolios.

A recent statement of principles and recommendations for early childhood assessment prepared by an advisory group for the National Education Goals Panel accentuates the importance of differentiating purposes of assessment (Shepard, Kagan, & Wurtz, 1997). (Distinctions of purpose are also prominent in the National Science Education Standards (National Research Council, 1996)). As the report indicates, the purposes determine the content of the assessment; the methods of collecting evidence; and the nature of the possible consequences for individual students, teachers, schools or programs. In the past, serious misuse of tests and other instruments in early childhood has often stemmed from confusion of purpose. Instruments designed for one purpose, such as
identification, may be completely inappropriate as instruments to measure the success of a program. With respect to early childhood education, four purposes provide the framework for the report's recommendations:

- assessments to support students' learning and development as part of instruction,
- assessments for identification of special needs,
- assessments for program evaluation and monitoring trends, and
- assessments for high-stakes accountability.

In this paper, we focus upon the first assessment purpose identified above—to inform instruction and support learning. We start from the premise that the foremost function of classroom assessment in the early years is to enhance teachers' powers of observation and understanding of children's learning. We stress this function for two reasons: the rapid and variable nature of children's learning and the interactive nature of teaching. The classroom science envisioned in *Benchmarks for Science Literacy* (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1993) calls for interactive instruction, which presumes that teachers can respond to young children's interests, background knowledge, and emerging skills. Whether the program is defined by science themes, units, or kits, the role of the teacher as observer and shaper of the classroom program is critical. Science instruction, which promotes children's inquiry and problem solving, must be guided by cues in the children's behaviors and language as well as by curriculum expectations.
GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF PRESCHOOL ASSESSMENT

Multiple Forms and Sources of Evidence

Learning in early childhood is rapid, episodic, and marked by enormous variability. Even the most carefully designed assessment instrument cannot, by itself, capture the complexity of a child’s understanding. Instead, evaluation of learning should be based on multiple forms of evidence from many sources. In active science programs, children make choices, voice opinions, and perform various investigations. In such settings, children might demonstrate their interests, understandings, and emerging skills through their conversations; their questions; their actions; and the work they produce, such as constructions, drawings, or writings. It is this sort of evidence that teachers can rely upon when evaluating whether an activity is meaningful and whether children are learning. The children’s ongoing behaviors and their work are the stuff of teachers’ everyday observations, records and evaluations. In the case of science education, the richer the instructional environment, the broader the potential range of evidence for assessing learning (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1995).

The following figure schematically represents forms of classroom evidence. The figure is based on input from teachers who were developing assessment methods that would be compatible with their hands-on approaches to science instruction. It reflects their analysis of the many ways in which children reveal or express their understandings.
### Forms of Classroom Evidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Teacher/Parent Observation:</th>
<th>Preschool</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Upper Elementary</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anecdotes &amp; narratives</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>logs or inventories of student activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>observational checklists</td>
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<tr>
<th>Records of Children’s Talk:</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>group meetings &amp; class charts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student comments about their work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discussions, conversations &amp; questions</td>
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<tr>
<th>Children’s Work Samples:</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>drawings, writings</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science journals</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>constructions</td>
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<tr>
<th>Tests / Test-like Procedures:</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teacher-made &amp; unit-based tests</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>standardized tests</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The categories constitute a continuum of assessment opportunities, from relatively open-ended settings of observations and listening, to children’s talk, to the collection of work samples, to the use of more structured performance tasks and tests. As indicated in the figure, the more open forms are especially important in the preschool and primary settings. But by their nature, these are exactly the types of information that can elude documentation. Teachers carry most of this information in their heads. During the course of the day, teachers listen to children and observe them in action but generally they end up with few tangible records to review, share with a colleague or parent, or re-examine at some later point in the year. Children’s talk, for example, was identified by teachers of
young children as perhaps the single richest source of information; yet, when compared to their drawings or early writings, the most difficult to document.

In the early years, these multiple forms of evidence can come from several sources: teachers, parents, caregivers, and children. Parents and teachers can become educational partners by sharing information across the range of the child's experiences. This is well exemplified in the Primary Language Record, an instrument designed to incorporate parent and teacher observations (ILEA/Center for Language in Primary Education, 1988).

Evidence Collected Over Time

Since young children's thinking reflects both developmental and experiential factors, teachers need to have a good sense of the appropriate instructional pace, allowing time for exploration and accommodation of new ideas. Children need time to revisit interesting phenomena; they need opportunities to ask the same question over and over again, perhaps in new or slightly different ways. Important ideas develop gradually—over days, months, and years—and are seldom the result of a single lesson or demonstration. Moreover, the development of thought is not neatly sequential, but rather marked by detours and explorations. Given this pattern of learning, indicators need to be collected on a regularly scheduled basis. For example, some portfolio assessment programs require that documents be collected at three or four specified periods of the year. Whatever the data collection method, the goal is to obtain records that reflect the child's developmental progress (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1995).
Evidence Highlighting What the Individual Knows

The evidence collected in early childhood assessments should go beyond the "deficit" model and highlight what children know. Teachers need to understand that children's "misconceptions" about natural phenomena are not necessarily unproductive, but may reflect keen observations and efforts to make sense of the world. For the teacher, this requires an attitude of listening, of asking questions in an open way, and of attending to unanticipated answers. This stance toward assessment is exemplified when teachers collect information about children's interests and prior experiences as a step in planning instruction. For example, as an introduction to a unit on paper, kindergarten teachers made experience charts from the things that children said were "made out of paper," "not made out of paper," or "not sure." The chart was revisited over the course of the unit.

Evidence of the Collective Knowledge of Groups of Learners

Young children's science learning is inherently social. A teacher with whom we have worked remarked, "It's the many little conversations among children that really count for something" in promoting their ideas and observations. As an example, she described how a child discovered that by getting under the aquarium stand and looking through the glass bottom, one could witness a whole new dimension to the life of the fish tank, such as watching the sea worms tunneling in the sand. This caught on among the children and over the course of weeks it promoted much talk and exchange of observations.

Although individual learning is typically the focus of classroom assessments, teachers need to be responsive to the patterns of interest and knowledge within the group.
Documents reflecting the social dimension abound in early classrooms, such as displays of drawings, records of class discussions, and observations of group projects. Exploration into the understandings of a community of learners can provide insight into the prior knowledge and experiences that students bring to learning environments.

**DOCUMENTATION AS AN APPROACH TO ASSESSMENT**

For a number of years we have been meeting with teachers in elementary and preschool settings to explore classroom strategies for documenting children’s science learning. Documentation is an approach to assessment that attempts to build directly upon evidence from teachers’ everyday experiences of observing and listening to children and collecting samples of their work. As an approach, these methods are more open-ended than tests or checklists, yet more structured and systematic than incidental record keeping.

**Children’s Talk**

In our work to date, we have found that children’s talk and language about natural phenomena is of particular interest to teachers and serves as a useful starting point. In the early grades, children’s conversations and discussions constitute perhaps the single richest source of evidence to teachers concerning the substance of their ideas. However, in contrast to drawings, writings, and constructions, discussions leave behind no artifacts or documents for the teacher to review or consider. Children’s talk is a facet of teaching experience that tends to remain unrecorded, and hence not ordinarily accessible to review.
Guidelines for Documenting Science Discussions

In early education classrooms, most discussions and conversations among the children occur spontaneously and informally. However, there are also occasions when teachers bring the children together to share ideas and to talk about some activity. With some attention on the teachers’ part, these occasions can become opportunities for investigating children’s thinking.

The following guidelines were formulated with teachers who participated in a study of children’s science learning. These guidelines were intended to facilitate the sort of discussions that are sustained by child-initiated questions and ideas and that allow children some control over the direction or drift of their remarks. In such settings, interactions among children may well bring out lines of thinking that are not so evident in individual interviews or group lessons, when children must deal more directly with the adult’s agenda.

1. Discussions begin with open-ended questions, such as:

   “What are some things made of paper?”

   “Where have you seen shadows?”

   “What do you know about water?”

   “What have you noticed lately about our caterpillars?”
2. Children shape the agenda of the discussion.

The teacher sets the stage for conversation but does not dominate it. Children are allowed time and space to formulate ideas in their own terms and to pursue aspects of a topic that are of greatest interest to them. Teachers generally refrain from correcting or modifying children's comments.

3. Participation by all children is encouraged.

Teachers steer the discussion in a way that encourages comments from each child at some point. "Going around the circle" is one strategy. A discussion that involves most of the group will bring out evidence of variety of interests among children; it will also highlight issues or questions that are commonly shared.

4. Records are made of each child's statements.

There are different ways of making a written record of the discussions. The fullest records can be made via tape recording or observer notes. Other records can take the form of "experience charts," lists, etc. Full transcripts are not needed, but an effort should be made to capture the key terms in any child's statement.
A Sample Document

The following discussion of a "dead" fish illustrates how the teacher provides structure for a conversation while allowing the children to shape the agenda. The result is that the matter of a fish's scales—the intended topic—becomes subsidiary to larger questions of whether the fish is dead and how to make that determination. In this particular example, the discussion led directly to a classroom investigation.

Note: Donna Erickson, a Philadelphia kindergarten teacher, made this transcript.

Kindergarten Class Discussion: The Fish

Fish Observation: While I was reading The Rainbow Fish to the class, a child asked what "scales" were. A few days later I bought a fish at the supermarket and brought it to the class. Sitting in a circle, I showed the class how to feel the scales and invited them to tell us anything else that they noticed about the fish. Their discussion follows.

Darryl: You got to scrape the scales off and then cook it.
Kate: Was the other fish bigger in the book?
(Class thought the book fish was bigger.)
Blair: I had a fish that die.
Jennifer: Fish will swim in the water.
Sarah: I love to eat fish.
Ashley R.: I notice that he's dead.
Alina: It makes me remember trout fishing with my grandfather.
Derek: At my old school we fed fish in a pond.
Liam: The eye reminds me of jelly.
Edward Chittenden and Jacqueline Jones

Frank: It reminds me of my alive fish. This one's alive. No. It's dead. I see the blood (around the eye).

Earl: It's wet. I can feel its scales. I think it's alive.

John: I think it's dead.

Teacher: Why?

John: I don't know.

Mickey: It smells bad. I think it's dead because I see blood.

Richard: It's dead.

Teacher: Why do you think so?

Richard: Because fishes always die?

Shelby: I like fish. I think it's alive.

Teacher: Why do you think it's alive?

Donovan: I like fish.

Ashley H.: It feels like my cousin's fish. It's dead 'cause it ain't movin'.

Danielle: It's not movin'. It's dead.

Darryl: Jumps up and yells. "No! Fishes swim in the water. You gotta put it in water!" (Many students agree.)

Zoe: It's dead.

I got a plastic shoebox and filled it with water and put the fish in and set it before the children. I heard someone say, "It's sleepin'," and many agreed. I told the class that I'd put the fish on the table and they could keep their eyes on it. Kids went over throughout the day to check it out. Once there were screams of "It's moving! It's
moving!” but then someone said, “No it’s not. You just bumped the table and the water’s movin’.” By the end of the day when I asked the class about the fish, they all agreed that it was dead because it never moved.

LESSONS FROM EARLY LITERACY ASSESSMENT

Over the past three decades there have been major changes in assessment of early literacy, with some lessons for primary science. Where once readiness was narrowly measured, newer methods reflect a broader conception of literacy and recognize that children’s steps toward reading and writing entail much more than alphabet recognition. These changes not only reflect theoretical advances but also extensive teacher participation in the observation of young children’s efforts to make sense of print. Portfolios and other methods have played an important part in strengthening the teacher’s capacities for inquiry and contributions to new models of assessment. These methods have also demonstrated how assessments can build upon practice, how they need not interrupt teaching but can be embedded within instruction (Jones & Chittenden, 1995).

Interest in science assessments brings the opportunity to explore methods that require a central role for early childhood science teachers. There are of course some critical differences between language arts and science instruction. For teachers, recognizing the science in children’s behavior may well be more problematic than observing children’s development as readers and writers, in part because of the teachers’ own limitations of content knowledge. Also, the boundaries of the child’s development as
a "scientist" are less clear. Children's ways of figuring out how the world works are not constrained by science lessons but cut across the curriculum areas. These points argue for greater involvement of teachers in the documentation and analysis of children's science learning, both for professional development and for design of appropriate assessments.
References


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