

Explorations of Educational Purpose 23

Bronwyn Bevan · Philip Bell · Reed Stevens · Aria Razfar *Editors*

LOST Opportunities

Learning in Out of School Time

Learning in informal settings is attracting growing attention from policymakers and researchers, yet there remains, at the moment, a dearth of literature on the topic. Thus this volume, which examines how science and mathematics are experienced in everyday and out-of-school-time (OST) settings, makes an important contribution to the field of the learning sciences. Conducting research on OST learning requires us to broaden and deepen our conceptions of learning as well as to better identify the unique and common qualities of different learning settings. We must also find better ways to analyze the interplay between OST and school-based learning.

In this volume, scholars develop theoretical structures that are useful not only for understanding learning processes, but also for helping to create and support new opportunities for learning, whether they are in or out of school, or bridging a range of settings. The chapters in this volume include studies of everyday and 'situated' processes that facilitate science and mathematics learning. They also feature new theoretical and empirical frameworks for studying learning pathways that span both in- and out-of-school time and settings. Contributors also examine structured OST programs in which everyday and situated modes of learning are leveraged in support of more disciplined practices and conceptions of science and mathematics. Fortifying much of this work is a leading focus on educational equity—a desire to foster more socially supportive and intellectually engaging science and mathematics learning opportunities for youth from historically non-dominant communities. Full of compelling examples and revealing analysis, this book is a vital addition to the literature on a subject with a fast-rising profile.

I believe that the studies represented in this volume will move our work forward as we seek to understand better which social ecologies support – indeed, ratchet up – learning and give meaning for youth, especially those from non-dominant communities.

Kris Gutiérrez, University of Colorado Boulder

For someone who has long been interested in afterschool educational activities as a promising supplement to formal, in-school education, this book provides rich opportunities to think about the promise and the problems that such programs offer to those concerned with the infusion of science into the learning and development of their participants.

Mike Cole, University of California San Diego

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A fifth-grade girl, born in Haiti and adopted into a Seattle family, talked at home 10
about how she wanted to be a chemist or a paleontologist when she grew up. For 6 11
months, she spent portions of her Saturdays mixing perfumes, as a chemist might, 12
with her mother. But her public schoolteacher, who is a seasoned professional with 13
sophisticated teaching expertise, did not believe the girl always put forth her best 14
effort and was surprised to see her become highly excited about and engaged in a 15
science curriculum unit at the end of the year that the girl counted as “real science” 16
A fourth-grade boy in the same school was often moved to the back of the classroom 17
because he was “off task” and “resistant” to the school curriculum. He spent periods 18
of his time in the back of the room mentally deconstructing the physical environment 19
around him, “thinking in structures” as he put it. Unbeknownst to his teachers, the 20
boy had been deepening his participation in a hobby—an elective vocation—since 21

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22 attending a summer design program at a local park when he was six years old. Outside
23 of school he engaged in sophisticated design, construction, and building projects
24 with all manner of physical and technological objects. It would be 3 more years
25 before he came to understand that there is such a field as engineering and that it might
26 be a good match for his interests. By that point it would be much more difficult to
27 make his way along the typical academic path. To simply say that these youth may
28 be “at risk” for making their way along academic pathways ignores the depth of
29 their academic-related interests and developing expertise. It skirts the evaluation and
30 positioning of them that occurred in different contexts based on a partial understand-
31 ing of who they were at the time and who they wanted to become, and it severely
32 discounts the complexities associated with them productively pursuing and becom-
33 ing who they might wish to become. We argue that we need to discover and then
34 support the successful learning pathways of youth across social settings over devel-
35 opmental time so that we can promote the development of interests and expertise that
36 may lead to both academic and personal success.

37 Learners navigate a range of diverse social, material, and discursive contexts
38 everyday—from the classroom to home, after-school programs, informal education
39 institutions, and out into their communities—with a variety of purposes and value
40 systems in place (Banks et al., 2007). Learning is accomplished across these diverse
41 pathways of participation in activity and affiliation with cultural groups in ways that
42 the field of education barely understands. Our empirical literatures tend to focus on
43 the details of learning that occur (or fail to) within specific contexts (e.g., instructional-
44 units-taught classrooms, programs offered by museums, or moments of elective activity
45 in family life). We need more complex empirically informed theoretical models for
46 how learning is accomplished and impeded across sociocultural contexts throughout
47 the diverse social niches and networks of activity in society. We lack theoretical ways
48 of accounting for the learning processes involved with extended pathways of deepening
49 participation and expertise development across physical settings and social groups
50 along developmental timelines. Toward these ends, this chapter describes and reports
51 on a longitudinal study of child development as it occurs across the breadth of
52 contexts present in the lives of diverse youth.

53 US society is becoming increasingly diverse in terms of ethnic and racial group
54 membership, immigrant status, and linguistic variation. Some schools are now
55 serving significant numbers of nonwhite youth or immigrant youth for the first time.
56 Yet, as evidenced by a long history of inequitable outcomes in science education,
57 few teachers or university professors are equipped to work effectively with all
58 students. In our research, we give central attention to individuals and groups from
59 historically nondominant communities, in order to expand scientific accounts of
60 learning related to how all people learn. We continue to be in need of theoretical
61 accounts of the learning worlds of nondominant groups, in order to understand the
62 normal variation present in the circumstances of learning found in society writ large.
63 Such an approach also helps to expand and develop our theoretical accounts in ways
64 that have more direct benefits for society (Flyvbjerg, 2001).

65 Cultural and ecological perspectives are increasingly understood to be central
66 in the scientific understanding of learning and development, and they have strong

implications for educational practice (Banks et al., 2007; Bell, Lewenstein, Shouse, & Feder, 2009; Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003; Lee, 2008; Moll & Gonzalez, 2004; Rosebery, Warren, Ballenger, & Ogonowski, 2005). Scholars have made significant progress in describing how science learning is influenced by the cultural histories, practices, and values of learners and communities (Barton, Ermer, & Burkett, 2003; Bell, Bricker, Lee, Reeve, & Zimmerman, 2006; Lee & Luykx, 2007; Medin & Atran, 2004). In response to the complexities associated with taking a holistic view of how people learn across settings and the cultural variation in human activity present in society, we agree with Lee (2008) that a major program of interdisciplinary research in the field should focus on better understanding the multiple pathways associated with socially significant learning and development of youth.

Over the past several years, we have been developing a theoretical framework focused on everyday expertise development that seeks to account for the social and material dimensions of sophisticated domain learning as it relates to the interests and practices of individuals and their communities. More specifically, our empirical project has involved: (a) documenting the range of expertise that youth develop and apply in their lives that is personally consequential and meaningful to them; (b) understanding the learning pathways associated with the development of that expertise and the myriad sociocultural forces that give shape to those pathways; and (c) aiding in the systemic coordination of successful learning pathways that are meaningful to youth, their families, and their communities and studying the effects of those efforts. We are ultimately trying to understand the extended learning pathways of youth at this historical moment in order to shift and stabilize those pathways by recognizing and leveraging their developing competencies across the range of informal and formal learning environments in which they participate.

In this paper, we describe our efforts to engage the driving question: How do everyday moments—experienced across settings, pursuits, and social groups—result in expertise, sophisticated understanding, and expert identification? We have focused on theory development related to this question as a result of specific gaps in our literatures on learning and expertise development and given present opportunities for interdisciplinary research and synthesis on how, why, and where people learn science across settings over developmental timescales (Bell et al., 2006). As Bransford and Schwartz (2009) argue, “it takes expertise to make expertise,” acknowledging that the social processes that support expertise development are understudied and undertheorized. The ultimate explanatory goal of our effort is to better understand the extended learning pathways (e.g., related to the accomplishment of expertise development in science and other domains) that are culturally architected through complex sequences of contingent interaction and activity that occur across the breadth of everyday life.

Cultural learning pathways are conceptualized as a series of linked actions where individuals are positioned—or position themselves—in ways that deepen their participation in a practice amidst a myriad, and often competing, set of different systems of competency. These systems of competency operate throughout cultural experiences taking place across the breadth of social groups and settings in a learner's life. These are complex processes. We pay heightened attention to the various social

112 processes that shape learning, how stylistic forms of talk occur within and across
113 different settings and influence learning, the affordances and constraints of material
114 resources that help us understand the accomplishment and evaluation of situated
115 performance, the multiple cultural meanings that circulate around specific domains
116 of activity, and the linguistic forms of talk that shape and inform learning pathways
117 (e.g., how sense-making gets accomplished by groups across social encounters).
118 Before describing research findings related to this broad effort, we start by summarizing the study.
119

120 **The Purpose of the Study: Documenting Life-Long,** 121 **Life-Wide, and Life-Deep Learning Pursuits and Pathways**

122 Our theoretical and empirical accounts of learning need to more directly mirror how
123 people learn as they routinely circulate through the settings, activities, and pursuits
124 of everyday life. Disparate accounts of learning and teaching that exist in balkanized
125 literatures need to be brought together, juxtaposed, coordinated, and synthesized—
126 or actively differentiated. The project described in this chapter is an attempt to more
127 holistically account for human development and learning in cultural and cognitive
128 terms by documenting the myriad of activity systems and consequential decisions
129 that individuals and groups navigate and constitute as a fixture of social life. As we
130 detail below, our conceptualization of *everyday expertise* involves a complex coordi-
131 nation of the personal meanings, cultural practices, identities, motives, underlying
132 ideologies, and the specific learning resources that come to be intertwined, as learn-
133 ing pathways open up in conjunction with the development and application of
134 personally meaningful or locally consequential expertise. The work has broad
135 implications for understanding learning as a cultural and cognitive phenomenon
136 that shapes, and is shaped by, a complex, interacting mixture of social forces associ-
137 ated with the formal, informal, and nonformal educational institutions present in the
138 lives of youth. The approach sheds insight into the contributing and interfering
139 influences of various formal and informal learning environments, and related insti-
140 tutional routines and systems, in the development and application of everyday
141 expertise (Bell et al., 2006).

142 Building upon the broad conceptualization of learning developed in the consensus
143 study of how people learn in diverse environments (Banks et al., 2007), we orient to
144 the three conceptual dimensions of learning:

- 145 1. *Life-long Learning* refers to the acquisition of fundamental competencies and a
146 facility with real-world information over the life course—from infancy to old
147 age. Generally, learners prefer to seek out information and acquire ways of doing
148 things because they are motivated to do so by their interests, needs, curiosity,
149 pleasure, and sense that they have talents that align with certain kinds of tasks
150 and challenges.
- 151 2. *Life-wide Learning* shows how learners navigate diverse social ecologies each day
152 as they circulate through everyday activities and settings—from the classroom to

home, after-school programs to informal educational institutions, and into their communities and online spaces. Learning derives, in both opportunistic and patterned ways, from this breadth of human experience and the related supports and occasions for learning—in ways we do not really understand. As a result of the boundary-crossing nature of social life, people need to learn how to navigate the different underlying assumptions and goals associated with education and development across the settings and pursuits they encounter.

3. *Life-deep Learning* embraces religious, moral, ethical, and social values that guide what people believe, how they act, and how they judge themselves and others. In these ways, learning, development, and education are tied deeply to value systems—although frequently implicitly.

In the empirical and theoretical aspects of our project, we give primacy to “recovering persons” as causal agents in their own learning. In arguing for using ethnographic approaches to better detail human development, Jessor (1996) makes the development of ethnographic cases a scientific priority. This chapter theoretically frames, argues for, and empirically showcases how personally consequential science and technology learning is accomplished across the social ecologies of everyday life by youth and families within an urban, multicultural community.

Conceptual Themes of the Study 171

Over the course of 5₁ years, using a team-based ethnography approach, we have conducted a longitudinal study of youths’ development and learning across the social settings of their lives. We have employed a mixture of ethnographic and experimental methods to help us navigate into the social lives of these youth, their families and friends, and their classmates and teachers in order to identify successful and unsuccessful learning pathways. We consider how specific pathways and associated outcomes can be viewed as successful (or not, or indeterminate) from both member-driven (emic) and analyst-driven (etic) perspectives.

To bind and focus the work, we have focused on four conceptual themes—or topical spaces of concentrated data collection and analysis—in this study:

1. *Personally Consequential Biology*: How do youth learn about the living world across social settings and apply that understanding in their own lives? The focus is on consequential topics: personal health, nutrition, and local environmental conditions.
2. *Everyday Argumentation*: What are the forms of argument youth engage with and construct across settings? How do they learn about and through argumentation?
3. *Images of Science and Self*: Based on the various accounts and images they encounter, what do youth count as “science” and why? How do these images influence their own identity formation?
4. *Technological Fluencies*: How do youth learn with and about digital technologies? How are technologies a focus of their learning or bound up in the learning of other domains of interest?

194 **The Everyday Expertise Framework: How Significant Learning**
195 **Is Accomplished Socially and Materially in Everyday Life**

196 Although the expert/novice literature has shed significant insight into the nature of
197 disciplinary expertise and competence, it has not given enough clarity to the everyday
198 forms of significant competence rooted in social life. In contrast to more traditional
199 mentalistic accounts of expertise, we conceptualize everyday expertise as a social
200 construct that is given meaning and form within specific cultural ecologies of prac-
201 tice (Cole, 1996; Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hutchins, 1995; Lave & Wenger, 1991;
202 Saxe & Esmonde, 2005; Scribner, 1984). We give primacy to problem domains of
203 everyday life where situated judgments, with corresponding meanings and conse-
204 quentialities, are made (cf. Spradley, 1979). In this view, specific aspects of disci-
205 plinary domains are viewed not as end goals in the development of expertise, but as
206 composite elements that serve to make up what are taken to be successful solutions
207 to problems from the perspective of the learners and those in the local contexts in
208 which they participate.

209 In contrast to a reductionist theoretical accounting, we are actively striving to
210 understand the “buzzing complexity” of social life associated with learning path-
211 ways as they get architected, navigated, and renegotiated. In contrast to experimental
212 traditions that might seek to develop *corridors of (parsimonious) explanation* across
213 multiple levels associated with a phenomena (e.g., cognitive system neuroscience,
214 perceptual/sensorimotor, cognitive behavioral), we actively seek to develop a
215 scientific accounting of the *blankets of contextual explanation* that render the com-
216 plex systems and interacting phenomena and features of social life associated with
217 successful and unsuccessful learning pathways.

218 ***The Strands of Domain Proficiency: A Multifaceted Approach***
219 ***for Understanding Expertise Development***

220 At the core of our framework for the development of everyday expertise, we focus
221 on how people develop means of participating in science, technology, engineering,
222 and math (STEM) domains in increasingly sophisticated ways. We leverage recent
223 consensus reports from the National Research Council that summarize research on
224 science learning and define six strands of science expertise development (or disci-
225 plinary proficiencies) (Bell et al., 2009; Duschl, Schweingruber, & Shouse, 2007),
226 and we add a seventh, navigation knowledge. In situated moments of activity, the
227 seven dimensions are intertwined in complex ways (e.g., symbolic knowledge is
228 frequently learned and marshaled through social sense-making routines like argu-
229 mentation; knowledge is leveraged and manifested in judgments and moments of
230 material practices). But, each strand also represents an important and unique aspect
231 of what is being learned associated with STEM practices. The seven strands, taken
232 together, define the “outcome space” associated with sophisticated STEM learning
233 (see the center of Fig. 9.1 below).



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Fig. 9.1 Bridges and barriers in everyday expertise development in relation to the strands of domain proficiency

The seven strands of STEM proficiency and expertise we focus on are (1) personal interest in the domain, (2) social sense-making routines (e.g., forms of reasoning, explanation, or argumentation), (3) social and material practices (i.e., specialized ways of talking and acting), (4) symbolic knowledge (i.e., disciplinary facts, concepts, models, and explanations), (5) navigation knowledge (i.e., how people learn to support their own learning with resources and experiences), (6) knowledge of the enterprise (i.e., what counts as disciplinary work, how it relates to everyday life and society), and (7) a domain-linked identity (i.e., coming to think of oneself as someone who knows about, uses, and sometimes contributes to science). We take these seven strands as the focus of “what people develop” during STEM expertise development. Next we specify social and material influences on the development of these seven strands.

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246 ***Social and Material Supports for Extended Learning:***
247 ***Bridges and Barriers in Everyday Expertise Development***
248 ***Across Encounters***

249 What are the social, material, and cultural processes that shape the learning of these
250 intertwined strands of proficiency? Our theoretical stance on expertise development
251 builds upon the social, cultural, and material perspectives associated with situated
252 perspectives on learning (cf., distributed cognition (Hutchins, 1995), situated learn-
253 ing (Lave & Wenger, 1991), the agency-identity framework (Holland, Lachiocotte,
254 Skinner, & Cain, 1998), and critical feminist perspectives (Barton et al., 2003;
255 Suchman, 2007)). These perspectives allow us to develop a theoretical and empirical
256 understanding of the social and material influences on what is taken to be sophisticated
257 learning and activity that occurs within and across social contexts. Such situated
258 moments, exhibit significant cultural variation, are often contested among social
259 actors, and are inequitably available to individuals and groups. The Everyday
260 Expertise framework allows for an accounting of how moments of situated meaning
261 and activity (e.g., how a child is positioned to have relevant expertise for an immedi-
262 ate task) are contingently related across a series of encounters influenced by multiple
263 actor-networks operating with multiple systems of competency at a given moment
264 (e.g., formal instruction shaped by high-stakes accountability pressures relative to
265 actions related to peer youth culture). Within the range of efforts that focus on the
266 cultural and material accomplishment of complex disciplinary activity, our approach
267 resonates heavily with the actor-network theory view (Latour, 1987; Law, 1999).
268 This perspective postulates that activities are best understood by examining how
269 actors-in-activity create the operating material networks in which they are situated.
270 In terms of equity dimensions of the analysis, we focus on how (in)equalities in
271 participation and recognition are discursively manufactured and regulated in these
272 situated moments and we highlight the broader, arranged actor-networks that
273 influence such dynamics (e.g., how educational accountability systems shape the
274 evaluation of what teachers count as relevant expertise in the classroom—and what
275 expertise gets marginalized). Expertise is then taken to develop along extended
276 cultural learning pathways that get architected across social encounters over the
277 course of developmental time (Bell et al., 2006). Learning is afforded or constrained
278 across settings through the material resources that are available to shape actions,
279 the value systems that are operating to evaluate actions, and the specific bridge-
280 and-barrier mechanisms that are in place to explicitly or implicitly connect the
281 meanings and actions from one moment to prior one.

282 **Methods and Data**

283 The data utilized in our work were collected as part of a 4-year team ethnography.
284 Researchers followed the same youth across the settings of their lives to study how
285 these youth learn about science and technology, as well as develop various areas of

expertise (Bell et al., 2006). In the spring of 2005, researchers formed a partnership with a local elementary school (pseudonym Granite), which caters to a student body that is diverse with respect to ethnicity, nationality, languages spoken, and socioeconomic status. In the fall of 2005, researchers began recruiting families into the ethnographic study. Thirteen families agreed to participate and the sample of focal participants from each of those families was balanced for age (six youth were in fourth grade and seven were in fifth grade at the beginning of the study) and gender (seven boys and six girls). Besides the focal participants and their immediate family members, extended family members (e.g., grandmothers, cousins), teachers, and peers consented to participate in the study.

This team ethnography charted the learning of 123 people—including 99 youth, 13 in great depth—over multiple years from an urban, multicultural, multilingual community with significant levels of poverty. We conducted thousands of hours of fieldwork over the first 3 years and have followed up with many of the participants at a lower level of fieldwork over subsequent years. After we developed a saturated accounting of our conceptual themes (and families participated in the study for 1–4 years based on their circumstances), primary data collection was pared back and analysis has been expanded in the latter years. Periodic visits to the homes of many families are still being conducted. Fieldwork in the school remains at a high level, although it has increasingly focused on research surrounding collaborative curriculum design research in science.

A guiding methodological principle of this research was to follow the same people as they moved across settings. The majority of the observations of the focal participants took place in school and at home. However, focal participants were observed participating in activities and interacting with others in many additional settings, such as religious institutions, after-school clubs, museums, sporting events, camping excursions/vacations, neighborhoods, and parks. Across these settings, data collection methods included (a) observation and participant observation; (b) interviews (both ethnographic and clinical); (c) self-documentation techniques, where focal participants were given digital cameras and asked to document various objects and phenomena (e.g., argumentation) and then answer questions about their photographs; and (d) document collection. Two surveys, designed to gather information about socioeconomic status and ethnic identity and participation in science respectively, were administered. Researchers also conducted analyses of public census tract data for the neighborhoods in which families lived.

The resulting data corpus was constructed from over 2000 hours of in situ video-recording and field-noting across dozens of social settings (homes, classrooms, neighborhoods, etc.). Data sources included (a) *field notes* of observations, interviews, participant self-documentation assignments, and documents collected; (b) *video- and audio-tape* of observations and interviews (when in settings that allowed video and/or audio taping); (c) *digital photographs* taken during observations and interviews; (d) *video and/or digital photographs* taken by participants as part of their self-documentation assignments; (e) *documents* collected during family visits (e.g., magazines, school work, writing samples from clinical interviews, written survey responses); and *survey results*.

331 **Lines of Research**

332 The compiled data set of people engaged in everyday expertise development
333 supports a broad variety of analyses. We are currently pursuing the following lines
334 of analysis and theory development in conjunction with the methodological approach
335 described.

336 ***Bridges and Barriers in the Learning Pathways***
337 ***of Everyday Expertise Development***

338 Current analytical efforts are documenting *the multitude of cultural learning*
339 *pathways* associated with expertise development that come into existence through
340 a coordination of social and material influences across settings and over extended
341 timescales of activity as people come to more deeply participate in a set of
342 personally consequential social practices (Dreier, 2009). In collaboration with
343 colleagues in the interdisciplinary Learning in Informal and Formal Environments
344 (LIFE) Center, we have been identifying a set of socially occurring bridges and
345 barriers that influence the learning along extended learning pathways of expertise
346 development. Studies of early expertise development highlight the *multiple*
347 *roles of learning partners* to cultivate expertise of individuals (Barron, Martin,
348 Takeuchi, & Fithian, 2009; Bell et al., 2006; Crowley & Jacobs, 2002). Among
349 these important roles is the recognition of early interest in the domain of the
350 learner (e.g., by a parent) and ongoing efforts to *sustain interest by mediating*
351 *and architecting subsequent choices*. For example, parents provide material
352 resources to learners; they broker access to future learning experiences; and they
353 arrange for more expert-others to teach their children how to improve their
354 practice. Learning is also accomplished in situated moments of activity through
355 an *exploitation of flexible learning arrangements* found in particular contexts—
356 the leveraging of social and material resources to accomplish sophisticated action
357 (Stevens et al., [gaming paper](#)). We have also discovered that learning is accom-
358 plished across settings through *interdiscursive uses of language*—specific lin-
359 guistic terms and styles of talk that connect multiple encounters. We have been
360 able to analytically connect sense-making in one situated moment to that in prior
361 moments in the developmental history of learners by attending to the linguistic
362 details of participant talk.

363 Through a series of encounters with situated activity, learners often develop *social*
364 *reputations* for these interests and subsequently as “developing experts” in the
365 domain. Such reputations serve both as a marker and a maker of expertise. That is,
366 social reputations denote developing expertise and also provide an entrée to subse-
367 quent related learning experiences (e.g., providing a youth with a social reputation as
368 an expert in the Halo videogame can put him/her in more challenging gaming

scenarios with other experts). Such reputations and opportunities to learn are strongly influenced by the local *positioning dynamics* (Harré, 2008) constructed through talk and action that assign and regulate the expertise-related rights and responsibilities of individuals within particular moments of activity (e.g., whether or not a young person is positioned as having relevant science knowledge related to classroom instruction). Often, these positions are influenced by *cultural stereotypes of domains* (or storylines) that circulate in the culture more broadly in relation to domain context and specific demographic groups of learners (e.g., whether women excel at doing science and whether girls should be encouraged in learning science). Such stereotypes and supportive positioning dynamics have a strong influence on whether learners come to personally identify with the domain. We have documented how negative positioning dynamics can keep significant STEM-related expertise from being recognized in specific learning environments, although it is rhetorically of interest (e.g., how youth with significant material competencies can be seen as not having relevant expertise for science instruction in school; [Bricker & Bell, in review](#)).

Documenting Children's Understanding of Health

In the context of this team ethnography, we have documented the focal participants' health-related beliefs and behaviors through the use of photodocumentation tasks, semi-structured interviews, and two case-study analyses (Reeve, 2009). Given the far-reaching consequences of health-related decisions and recent increases in childhood obesity, type II diabetes, and other serious conditions, everyday management of personal health is an area of expertise that must be better understood (Reeve & Bell, 2009).

Youths' Understandings of "Healthy" and "Unhealthy"

We asked each participant to document in words and photos the range of things he/she believed was healthy or unhealthy (see Clark-Ibanez, 2004 for a background on self-documentation as a general method). In ethnographic interviews debriefing this activity, young people expressed a surprising breadth of meanings for the concept of health, including weight gain or loss; mental and emotional health; environmental health; organic or "natural" foods; health as determined by growth, strength, or color; cleanliness; and elements of the natural environment that help to sustain human life (e.g., trees that produce oxygen, air for people to breathe). Each participant also described health from multiple perspectives, often giving explanations that incorporated different definitions of health for the same object, or that described complex and nuanced ideas. The youths' responses also revealed meanings that served specific functions for them and their families and were rooted in recurring home activities.

406 Semi-Structured Interviews About Health and Nutrition

407 We also interviewed each focal participant about his or her understandings of five
408 areas related to health and nutrition: (1) staying healthy; (2) sickness and wellness;
409 (3) questions the youth had about health or food-related topics; (4) images of medi-
410 cal careers; and (5) what food is and why people need it.

411 Again, these youth had multifaceted ideas about the five areas, showing that
412 young people can simultaneously hold multiple ideas about scientific processes
413 (cf. diSessa, 1988). Their responses also illustrated that explanations rooted in folk
414 traditions or everyday experience do not necessarily signal the absence of more
415 accepted understandings. For example, 7₁ of the 13 youth suggested that illness can
416 be related both to transmission of germs and to temperature- and weather-related
417 factors (e.g., playing in the rain without a jacket). Although Western science
418 typically recognizes only the former explanation, science educators have a great
419 opportunity to investigate young people's multiple ideas through discussing recent
420 research on this topic (e.g., Johnson & Eccles, 2005; Lowen, Mubareka, Steel, &
421 Palese, 2007) and through helping students think about different ways to evaluate
422 evidence and the dynamic nature of scientific knowledge.

423 Young people's questions about health and nutrition, another area investigated in
424 the interviews, largely focused not on *what* to do to stay healthy, but on *how* and *why*
425 such behaviors work, as well as topics they had heard about recently or that were
426 relevant to practices in their own families (e.g., where do diseases [bird flu, AIDS,
427 etc.] come from? How does calcium help to build muscles?). Their questions suggest
428 significant thought and curiosity about health-related topics, even at this relatively
429 young age; current curricula and instruction would do well to listen to and address
430 such complex questions that reflect young people's personal areas of interest.

**431 Case Studies of Health Practices: Everyday Health Expertise
432 and Cross-Cultural Forms of Health Care**

433 Two case studies represent different kinds of everyday interactions with health and
434 nutrition (cf. Flyvbjerg, 2001). Because of his mother's work as a home-based dis-
435 tributor for two health-related products, one boy's home became a unique learning
436 environment that provided him with instrumental knowledge relative to managing
437 his own health and shaping his future career goals. Bob (pseudonym) learned about
438 health through hearing and taking up distinct types of discourse (e.g., sales claims);
439 reading and hearing print, audio, and visual media; personal experience with serious
440 illness (e.g., chronic food allergies); and the modeled behavior of his mother and her
441 business associates. Despite his deep knowledge and experience, however, we rarely
442 saw Bob make connections (either at home or at school) between classroom curricu-
443 lum and his health- and nutrition-related home activities. Bob's case suggests oppor-
444 tunities for science curriculum and instruction to help young people see relationships
445 between scientific content and issues that are important to them and their families
446 (Banks et al., 2007; Korpan, Bisanz, Bisanz, Boehme, & Lynch, 1997).

A second boy, who immigrated with his family to the USA from the Philippines at the age of 6, grew up in a context of transnational health-care use (across the USA, Vietnam, and Canada). His family flexibly used professional health-care providers, home or over-the-counter remedies, and traditional folk treatments as they made health care decisions (cf. Chrisman & Kleinman, 1983). Luke's (pseudonym) home interactions with health also occurred in contexts of social, economic, and personal significance, such as a grandmother's serious illness. In sharp contrast to Luke's experiences, however, his formal science and health education focused only on Western systems of knowledge and largely separated out the social and economic factors that were closely intertwined with his family's everyday decisions.

These data lay the foundation for increasingly relevant, health-related science curriculum and pedagogy, and underscore the importance of taking nonschool experiences into account when designing and delivering health-related instruction, especially for vulnerable and historically marginalized populations who experience increasing health disparities (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2008; Lee, 2002; US Department of Minority Health Care and Health Disparities, n.d.). By incorporating health topics into instruction, science education has a golden opportunity to help young people make sound health decisions and increase their long-term quality of life.

Documenting the Everyday Argumentation of Youth

With respect to argumentation, we examined the argumentative practices youth utilize in their activity across settings and over time (see Bricker, 2008). We examined youth everyday argumentation within activity to better understand the learning affordances of this discourse practice and also to dialogue with the science education community, which currently proposes that youth in science classrooms should learn how to argue scientifically in order to mimic actual scientific practices in which argumentation plays a central role in knowledge construction (e.g., Duschl et al., 2007). Designs of learning environments meant to engage youth in school science with what it means to argue scientifically have to date not attended to the existing argumentation practices of youth,¹ although the field is strongly oriented to utilizing students' prior knowledge in instruction (e.g., Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Linn & Songer, 1991). We have argued that curricula and instruction designed to engage youth with what it means to argue scientifically could be much better informed by youth's everyday argumentative competencies (e.g., Bricker & Bell, 2008).

We know that youth bring a rich set of argumentative practices to formal education (cf. Corsaro, 2003; Corsaro & Maynard, 1996; Goodwin & Goodwin, 1987; Kyratzis, 2004; Ochs, Taylor, Rudolph, & Smith, 1992). They routinely interpret

¹For an exception, see the work of the Chèche Konnen Center at the Technical Education Research Centers (TERC) and publications from those Centers, such as Hudicourt-Barnes (2003).

484 and produce arguments as they navigate the social settings and activities of their
485 lives but rarely, if ever, are these practices acknowledged and utilized by those
486 designing argumentative learning experiences. To guide our investigations of youth
487 everyday argumentation in order to add to the literature base and possibly inform
488 the design of learning environments, we asked the following research questions: (1)
489 What meanings do youth associate with argumentation and how do they describe
490 aspects of their argumentation practices? (2) How do youth report learning how to
491 argue and do youth argumentation practices help us understand how youth learn?
492 (3) What are the relationships between youth, family, and community culture and
493 argumentation?

494 **Youth Understanding of “Argument”**

495 What do youth associate with the word “argument” and how do they characterize
496 their own argumentative practices? Findings indicate there is enormous variety
497 with respect to youth ideas about argumentation and their accounts of their prac-
498 tices. Furthermore, youth appear quite capable of explicating the fine-grained
499 details of their argumentative practices, some of which are quite sophisticated. We
500 found, however, that without asking youth about their argumentative practices as
501 associated with *specific* activity in *specific* settings, youth tend to associate the word
502 “argument” with fighting, yelling, and inappropriate behavior in general, which
503 has implications for engaging youth in school science with what it means to argue
504 scientifically.

505 **Cultural Grounding of Youth Argumentation**

506 What are the relationships between argument, learning, and culture? Youth utilize
507 culturally influenced frames associated with argumentative practices, such as argu-
508 ment as decision-making and/or problem-solving or argument as social/political
509 protest, in order to make sense of those practices within activity. Findings also show
510 that some youth identify argumentation as a learning practice (e.g., Billig, 1987/1996),
511 highlighting its similarity to critique and its role in helping to make ideas visible so
512 that others can learn from those ideas. This has important implications for utilizing
513 aspects of and details about youth argumentative practices in curricular and instruc-
514 tional design.

515 **Forms of Argumentation That Cross Settings**

516 How do youth linguistically construct arguments that invoke life experiences from dif-
517 ferent settings and over time? Findings indicate that youth use linguistic elements (both
518 verbal and nonverbal), such as discourse markers, evidentials, and indexicals when
519 bringing evidence to bear on their claims (cf., Aikhenvald, 2004; Schiffrin, 1987).

Furthermore, findings show that some of these linguistic elements mark sources of evidence and are helpful in identifying when youth learn something in one setting and transfer it to another setting. Determining what aspects of youths' linguistic competencies are useful for curricular and instructional purposes and how those identified aspects should be utilized as curricular and instructional tools are important areas of future study.

Youth Perspectives on Argumentation in Science 526

Lastly, how do youth perceive the role of argumentation in the sciences and what are their thoughts about being asked to argue as part of their school science experiences? While many youth understand that argumentation is a critical practice in the sciences, many conclude that such efforts in science education are "strange" given that argumentation is not an activity they code as appropriate in school settings, save for specific exceptions (e.g., persuasive writing in English/language arts classes). Findings indicate that the culturally influenced frames associated with certain in-school activities, such as science class, for example, might inhibit youth from employing their argumentative practices during those activities, even when they routinely employ them as part of other activities across the settings of their lives.

Who Counts What as Science? 537

To explore the conceptual theme related to images of science and self, Zimmerman (2008) analyzed youths' ideas about science and their science-related talk and activities across school, home, and neighborhood settings. This line of work has two goals: how youth define science in consequential moments of their lives and how this definitional work relates to how youth participate in science-related practices across settings (McDermott & Webber, 1998; Stevens, 2000). Through this work, we empirically documented developmental trajectories that began to distance and disenfranchise youth from science and those that brought youth closer to science.

Youth Images of Science 546

Because of concerns about the decreasing interest that children show toward science as they move into middle school (e.g., Zacharia & Barton, 2004) and because so much of the research imposes an external framework which judges children's views on science (cf. Driver, Leach, Millar, & Scott, 1996), an analysis was conducted to give voice to how the youth perceive scientific practices in their daily activities. To accomplish this, we developed a game-like task, called the Science Activity Task (SAT) where the focal participants rated the frequency of the activities that they did and then reflected how these activities connected to scientific knowledge, practices, and tools (Zimmerman and Bell, in review). The analysis of the SAT found that

556 youth participated in scientific practices and saw science in their homes and community
557 activities as well as in school. We identified design principles such as *build science*
558 *activities from the learner's preexisting connections to science* (i.e., mixing things
559 together, conducting informal experiments at home, and understanding how iPod®
560 and like devices work) rather than traditional home–school connections often featured
561 in curriculum. For example, the youth, as a group, did not see science connections
562 to building with Lego® or to sports.

563 **Youth Participation and Identification with Science**

564 Developmental biographical accounts of learning showed how science practices
565 were embedded in the activities and practices of two young women, Penelope and
566 Raven, and how these crossed multiple social settings. These accounts examined
567 how youth performed science practices within activities and how youth crafted
568 different pathways toward science for personal goals. Both girls reported scientific
569 people as doing certain scientific practices like observing, teaching, and measuring.
570 For Penelope, science was when she was engaged with content around nature, tech-
571 nology, or school science. For Raven, science was when something changed from
572 one thing into another (i.e., when a seed grows into a plant) and when a person dis-
573 covered something as in an archeologist. In both cases, a tension was present between
574 participating in science and having their participation not be seen as negative by
575 peers or having a negative impact on time to be spent on other personal goals.

576 Raven and Penelope were recognized for their science work in elementary school,
577 yet they both stopped participating in science-related out-of-school programs in
578 middle school. Raven found her academic enrichment program overwhelming and
579 prohibitive of her nonacademic pursuits. She projected that if she remained in the
580 enrichment program during the sixth-grade school year, it would adversely affect
581 her ability to make honor roll in middle school—her personal goal. Penelope
582 participated in a science after-school club during the academic year offered by a
583 sixth-grade science teacher, yet she also ultimately disengaged from this club.
584 Penelope expressed concerns about enrichment programs as having too much work.
585 Penelope and her mother Eve agreed that school is important, but they stressed that a
586 balance is needed; getting good grades without time for fun is not a fair exchange.

587 **Social Supports for Science Learning**

588 In looking at who youth tapped as learning partners, Raven and Penelope were
589 assisted in science by people that would not be normally classified as scientific.
590 Their social networks included a guardian's golfing partner, nurse's aides, owners of
591 home businesses, pet shop workers, godparents, farming grandparents, former
592 teachers, peers, and more.

593 Results (Zimmerman, 2008) have implications to assumptions we make about
594 youth and their development, to learning theory, and to the development of design

principles for program developers of informal spaces and formal education curriculum. 595
 First, the youth in this study had complex practices in their homes related to science 596
 in multiple domains as well as school. Second, children's interests in science were 597
 not always aligned to the school science content, pedagogy, or school structures for 598
 participation, yet youth like Raven and Penelope found ways to engage with science 599
 despite these differences—through crafting multiple pathways into science. A posi- 600
 tive outcome was that the youth who did not connect to science at school found a 601
 space at home to participate in science in their hobbies and other personal pursuits. 602
 Third, urban parents were active supporters of STEM-related learning environments 603
 through brokering access to social and material resources. The brokering involved a 604
 full deployment across the social network, bringing in fellow church parishioners, 605
 family members, godparents, retail workers, and friend within and outside of formal 606
 science connections. A final result was that the natural world was a relevant context 607
 for urban youth to learn about science, albeit in nontraditional ways. The connec- 608
 tions with houseplants and animals as pets provided opportunities to integrate cul- 609
 tural understandings, build competencies with scientific practices, and develop 610
 expertise relevant to peer and community groups. 611

Connecting Repertoires of Practice Across Home, Community, and School Boundaries: The Micros and Me Science Curriculum 612
 613

For many students, learning science in school is like learning another culture 614
 (Aikenhead, 1996). Students may not see themselves or their ways of knowing reflected 615
 in the practices of science in school. We argue for the need to diversify the images of 616
 science that students encounter in school so they may come to see themselves as people 617
 who can do science, based on images that reflect actual scientific practices and their 618
 own culturally based ways of knowing. Gutiérrez and Rogoff (2003) argue that we 619
 need to see individual students as having their own experiences and histories that are 620
 influenced rather than dictated by their membership in certain cultural groups. In this 621
 way, we can start to see students as coming to the classroom with various repertoires of 622
 practice, or areas of everyday expertise, that stem from their membership in multiple 623
 groups—peer, cultural, community, and family, just to name a few. 624

This section describes a design-based research effort aimed at constructing learn- 625
 ing pathways between students' culturally based *repertoires of practice* (Gutiérrez & 626
 Rogoff, 2003) around health and school science. We asked two questions: (1) How 627
 can we *elicit and make visible* students' everyday expertise around health in science 628
 instruction? (2) How can we *deeply connect* this expertise to authentic scientific 629
 practices? In the unit, we used the self-documentation technique described earlier in 630
 this paper to elicit students' repertoires of practice and leverage them in classroom 631
 science instruction. Our findings showed that self-documentation shows promise in 632
 both eliciting and complicating culturally based practices in classroom instruction. 633

In this study, we designed a 7-week curricular intervention for fifth grade that 634
 was studied across four enactments called *Micros and Me* (Tzou & Bell, 2010). 635

636 This curriculum attempted to (a) make science more personally consequential to
637 students' lives, and (b) connect authentic scientific practices deeply with students'
638 areas of everyday expertise. In this unit, we attempted to elicit and leverage
639 students' repertoires of practice around health in order to motivate their study of
640 microbiology and the connection between microbiology and health. Through this
641 series of design experiments, we explored a set of interlocking design principles for
642 culturally responsive instruction.

643 **Overlapping Science Curriculum with the Lives of Youth**

644 Youth should be engaged in classroom science investigations heavily focused on the
645 social practices they participate in as part of family and community life outside of
646 school. We extend a classic Deweyan ideal (Dewey, 1902) by leveraging instructional
647 approaches (e.g., youth documentation of everyday life) to systematically overlap
648 the curriculum with the social practices of the youth and their communities
649 (McDermott & Webber, 1998). In this way, we attempt to bridge youths' social
650 practices from their informal environments into the reflective context of formal
651 instruction with the hopes of better understanding and, perhaps, informing family
652 and community practices.

653 **Building Upon Prior Interests and Identity**

654 Agency in learning should be supported as a coordination of the interests of youth
655 (and their communities) and the goals of science education as they relate to provid-
656 ing equitable access to capital in society. We pursue agency as a relational
657 construct that is developed and regulated between the learner and other actors
658 in the learning context (Holland et al., 1998). Instructional strategies need to inten-
659 tionally position youth as having interests and identities relevant to the societal
660 roles of science (Tzou & Bell, 2010). We do this, in part, by supporting youth in
661 developing a capacity to interpret and conduct research focused on the interests
662 of their community.

663 **Supporting Extended Learning Pathways by Building on Developing** 664 **Expertise**

665 The social and material capacities being developed by youth should be sanctioned
666 and leveraged in instruction. Extending the research base on culturally responsive
667 instruction to issues of science learning (e.g., Bell et al., 2009; Nasir, Rosebery,
668 Warren, & Lee, 2006), our current work focuses on surfacing and leveraging
669 the social and material capacities of youth in relation to the goals of the unit. This
670 involves leveraging the sense-making routines (e.g., around argumentation) associ-
671 ated with specific cultural group membership.

Conclusions

672

People routinely learn—or fail to successfully learn—across the breadth of their life experiences in ways that we barely understand (Bell et al., 2009). As Lemke (2000) has noted, it is important to engage in a documentation of how people learn across multiple settings over extended time periods. Many research efforts have served as direct influences and provided theoretical inspiration to the effort reported on in this chapter. We have oriented to the theoretical perspectives associated with this prior work and have worked to develop a culturally and cognitively oriented theoretical framework that is specifically tailored to our scientific purposes and commitments. We are seeking to parcel out the social and cultural influences that shape the development of locally meaningful and personally consequential expertise. The research summarized in this chapter highlights the variegated pathways of human development that exist in diverse communities and the range of bridges and barriers associated with extended learning pathways. Current analytical work continues to document the barriers and bridges associated with the extended learning pathways of everyday expertise development. Current design research is attempting to architect successful pathways as students position themselves and are positioned to participate in activity across the breadth of their life experiences and settings. We hope that such forms of culturally responsive instruction will help engage all youth in meaningful learning experiences and promote more equitable access to desirable futures.

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