

# Scientific Methods

Scientists use an orderly approach called the scientific method to solve problems. This includes organizing and recording data so others can understand them. Scientists use many variations in this method when they solve problems.

## Identify a Question

The first step in a scientific investigation or experiment is to identify a question to be answered or a problem to be solved. For example, you might ask which gasoline is the most efficient.

## Gather and Organize Information

After you have identified your question, begin gathering and organizing information. There are many ways to gather information, such as researching in a library, interviewing those knowledgeable about the subject, testing, and working in the laboratory and field. Fieldwork is investigations and observations done outside of a laboratory.

**Researching Information** Before moving in a new direction, it is important to gather the information that already is known about the subject. Start by asking yourself questions to determine exactly what you need to know. Then you will look for the information in various reference sources, like the student is doing in **Figure 1**. Some sources may include textbooks, encyclopedias, government documents, professional journals, science magazines, and the Internet. Always list the sources of your information.

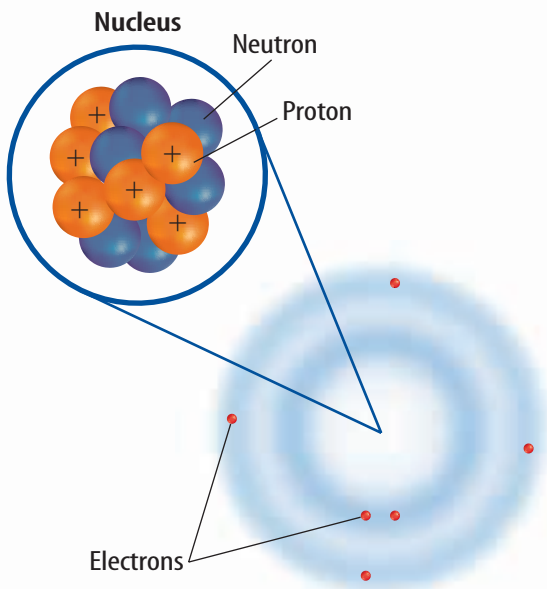


**Figure 1** The Internet can be a valuable research tool.

**Evaluate Sources of Information** Not all sources of information are reliable. You should evaluate all your sources of information, and use only those you know to be dependable. For example, if you are researching ways to make homes more energy efficient, a site written by the U.S. Department of Energy would be more reliable than a site written by a company that is trying to sell a new type of weatherproofing material. Also, remember that research always is changing. Consult the most current resources available to you. For example, a 1985 resource about saving energy would not reflect the most recent findings.

Sometimes scientists use data that they did not collect themselves, or conclusions drawn by other researchers. These data must be evaluated carefully. Ask questions about how the data were obtained, if the investigation was carried out properly, and if it has been duplicated exactly with the same results. Would you reach the same conclusion from the data? Only when you have confidence in the data can you believe it is true and feel comfortable using it.

**Interpret Scientific Illustrations** As you research a topic in science, you will see drawings, diagrams, and photographs to help you understand what you read. Some illustrations are included to help you understand an idea that you can't see easily by yourself, like the tiny particles in an atom in **Figure 2**. A drawing helps many people to remember details more easily and provides examples that clarify difficult concepts or give additional information about the topic you are studying. Most illustrations have labels or a caption to identify or to provide more information.

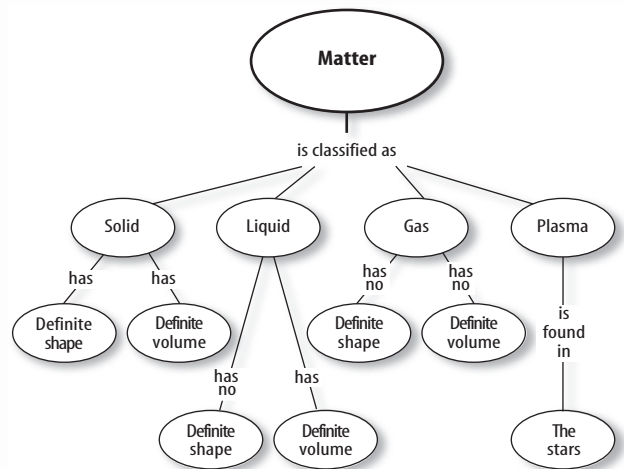


**Figure 2** This drawing shows an atom of carbon with its six protons, six neutrons, and six electrons.

**Concept Maps** One way to organize data is to draw a diagram that shows relationships among ideas (or concepts). A concept map can help make the meanings of ideas and terms more clear, and help you understand and remember what you are studying. Concept maps are useful for breaking large concepts down into smaller parts, making learning easier.

**Network Tree** A type of concept map that not only shows a relationship, but how the concepts are related is a network tree, shown in **Figure 3**. In a network tree, the words are written in the ovals, while the description of the type of relationship is written across the connecting lines.

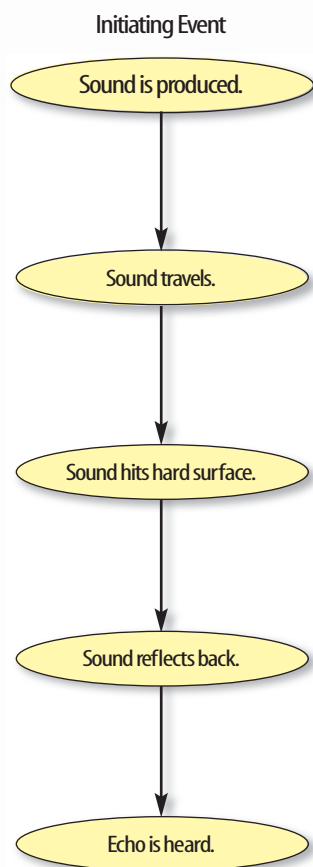
When constructing a network tree, write down the topic and all major topics on separate pieces of paper or notecards. Then arrange them in order from general to specific. Branch the related concepts from the major concept and describe the relationship on the connecting line. Continue to more specific concepts until finished.



**Figure 3** A network tree shows how concepts or objects are related.

**Events Chain** Another type of concept map is an events chain. Sometimes called a flow chart, it models the order or sequence of items. An events chain can be used to describe a sequence of events, the steps in a procedure, or the stages of a process.

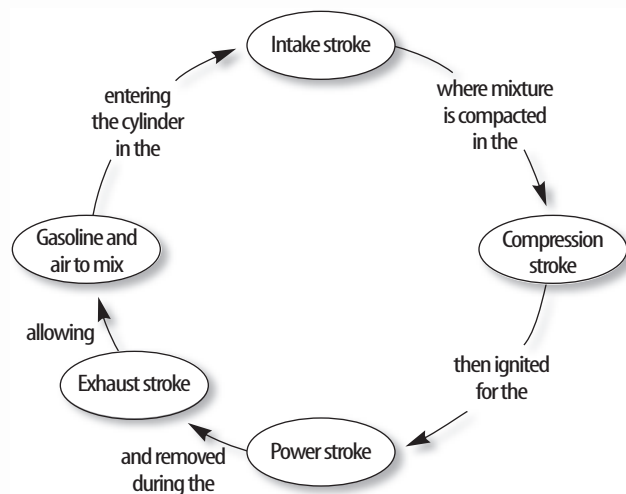
When making an events chain, first find the one event that starts the chain. This event is called the initiating event. Then, find the next event and continue until the outcome is reached, as shown in **Figure 4**.



**Figure 4** Events-chain concept maps show the order of steps in a process or event. This concept map shows how a sound makes an echo.

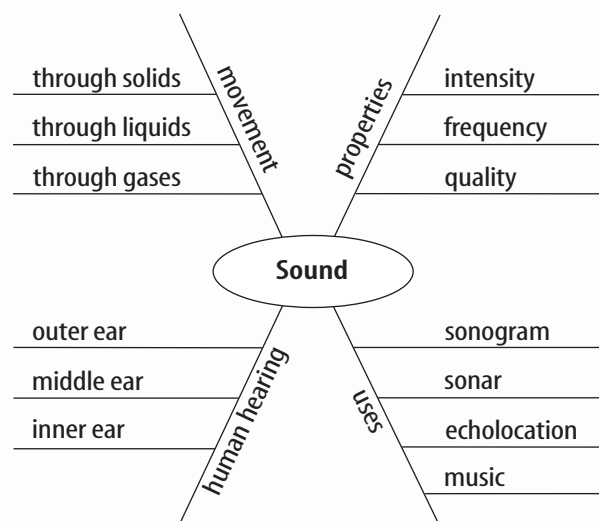
**Cycle Map** A specific type of events chain is a cycle map. It is used when the series of events do not produce a final outcome, but instead relate back to the beginning event, such as in **Figure 5**. Therefore, the cycle repeats itself.

To make a cycle map, first decide what event is the beginning event. This is also called the initiating event. Then list the next events in the order that they occur, with the last event relating back to the initiating event. Words can be written between the events that describe what happens from one event to the next. The number of events in a cycle map can vary, but usually contain three or more events.

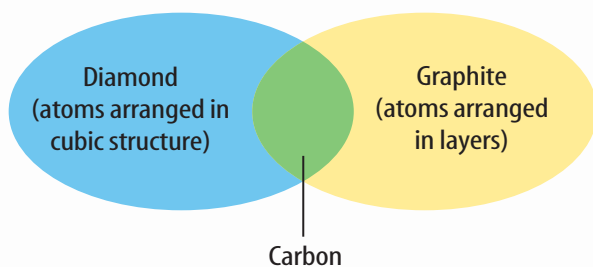


**Figure 5** A cycle map shows events that occur in a cycle.

**Spider Map** A type of concept map that you can use for brainstorming is the spider map. When you have a central idea, you might find that you have a jumble of ideas that relate to it but are not necessarily clearly related to each other. The spider map on sound in **Figure 6** shows that if you write these ideas outside the main concept, then you can begin to separate and group unrelated terms so they become more useful.



**Figure 6** A spider map allows you to list ideas that relate to a central topic but not necessarily to one another.



**Figure 7** This Venn diagram compares and contrasts two substances made from carbon.

**Venn Diagram** To illustrate how two subjects compare and contrast you can use a Venn diagram. You can see the characteristics that the subjects have in common and those that they do not, shown in **Figure 7**.

To create a Venn diagram, draw two overlapping ovals that are big enough to write in. List the characteristics unique to one subject in one oval, and the characteristics of the other subject in the other oval. The characteristics in common are listed in the overlapping section.

**Make and Use Tables** One way to organize information so it is easier to understand is to use a table. Tables can contain numbers, words, or both.

To make a table, list the items to be compared in the first column and the characteristics to be compared in the first row. The title should clearly indicate the content of the table, and the column or row heads should be clear. Notice that in **Table 1** the units are included.

<b>Table 1 Recyclables Collected During Week</b>			
<b>Day of Week</b>	<b>Paper (kg)</b>	<b>Aluminum (kg)</b>	<b>Glass (kg)</b>
Monday	5.0	4.0	12.0
Wednesday	4.0	1.0	10.0
Friday	2.5	2.0	10.0

**Make a Model** One way to help you better understand the parts of a structure, the way a process works, or to show things too large or small for viewing is to make a model. For example, an atomic model made of a plastic-ball nucleus and pipe-cleaner electron shells can help you visualize how the parts of an atom relate to each other. Other types of models can be devised on a computer or represented by equations.

## Form a Hypothesis

A possible explanation based on previous knowledge and observations is called a hypothesis. After researching gasoline types and recalling previous experiences in your family's car you form a hypothesis—our car runs more efficiently because we use premium gasoline. To be valid, a hypothesis has to be something you can test by using an investigation.

**Predict** When you apply a hypothesis to a specific situation, you predict something about that situation. A prediction makes a statement in advance, based on prior observation, experience, or scientific reasoning. People use predictions to make everyday decisions. Scientists test predictions by performing investigations. Based on previous observations and experiences, you might form a prediction that cars are more efficient with premium gasoline. The prediction can be tested in an investigation.

**Design an Experiment** A scientist needs to make many decisions before beginning an investigation. Some of these include: how to carry out the investigation, what steps to follow, how to record the data, and how the investigation will answer the question. It also is important to address any safety concerns.

## Test the Hypothesis

Now that you have formed your hypothesis, you need to test it. Using an investigation, you will make observations and collect data, or information. This data might either support or not support your hypothesis. Scientists collect and organize data as numbers and descriptions.

**Follow a Procedure** In order to know what materials to use, as well as how and in what order to use them, you must follow a procedure. **Figure 8** shows a procedure you might follow to test your hypothesis.

### Procedure

1. Use regular gasoline for two weeks.
2. Record the number of kilometers between fill-ups and the amount of gasoline used.
3. Switch to premium gasoline for two weeks.
4. Record the number of kilometers between fill-ups and the amount of gasoline used.

**Figure 8** A procedure tells you what to do step by step.

**Identify and Manipulate Variables and Controls** In any experiment, it is important to keep everything the same except for the item you are testing. The one factor you change is called the independent variable. The change that results is the dependent variable. Make sure you have only one independent variable, to assure yourself of the cause of the changes you observe in the dependent variable. For example, in your gasoline experiment the type of fuel is the independent variable. The dependent variable is the efficiency.

Many experiments also have a control—an individual instance or experimental subject for which the independent variable is not changed. You can then compare the test results to the control results. To design a control you can have two cars of the same type. The control car uses regular gasoline for four weeks. After you are done with the test, you can compare the experimental results to the control results.

## Collect Data

Whether you are carrying out an investigation or a short observational experiment, you will collect data, as shown in **Figure 9**. Scientists collect data as numbers and descriptions and organize it in specific ways.

**Observe** Scientists observe items and events, then record what they see. When they use only words to describe an observation, it is called qualitative data. Scientists' observations also can describe how much there is of something. These observations use numbers, as well as words, in the description and are called quantitative data. For example, if a sample of the element gold is described as being "shiny and very dense" the data are qualitative. Quantitative data on this sample of gold might include "a mass of 30 g and a density of  $19.3 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ."



**Figure 9** Collecting data is one way to gather information directly.



**Figure 10** Record data neatly and clearly so it is easy to understand.

When you make observations you should examine the entire object or situation first, and then look carefully for details. It is important to record observations accurately and completely. Always record your observations immediately as you make them, so you do not miss details or make a mistake when recording results from memory. Never put unidentified observations on scraps of paper. Instead they should be recorded in a notebook, like the one in **Figure 10**. Write your data neatly so you can easily read it later. At each point in the experiment, record your observations and label them. That way, you will not have to determine what the figures mean when you look at your notes later. Set up any tables that you will need to use ahead of time, so you can record any observations right away. Remember to avoid bias when collecting data by not including personal thoughts when you record observations. Record only what you observe.

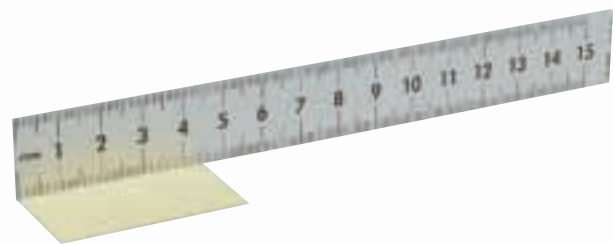
**Estimate** Scientific work also involves estimating. To estimate is to make a judgment about the size or the number of something without measuring or counting. This is important when the number or size of an object or population is too large or too difficult to accurately count or measure.

**Sample** Scientists may use a sample or a portion of the total number as a type of estimation. To sample is to take a small, representative portion of the objects or organisms of a population for research. By making careful observations or manipulating variables within that portion of the group, information is discovered and conclusions are drawn that might apply to the whole population. A poorly chosen sample can be unrepresentative of the whole. If you were trying to determine the rainfall in an area, it would not be best to take a rainfall sample from under a tree.

**Measure** You use measurements every day. Scientists also take measurements when collecting data. When taking measurements, it is important to know how to use measuring tools properly. Accuracy also is important.

**Length** To measure length, the distance between two points, scientists use meters. Smaller measurements might be measured in centimeters or millimeters.

Length is measured using a metric ruler or meterstick. When using a metric ruler, line up the 0-cm mark with the end of the object being measured and read the number of the unit where the object ends. Look at the metric ruler shown in **Figure 11**. The centimeter lines are the long, numbered lines, and the shorter lines are millimeter lines. In this instance, the length would be 4.50 cm.



**Figure 11** This metric ruler has centimeter and millimeter divisions.

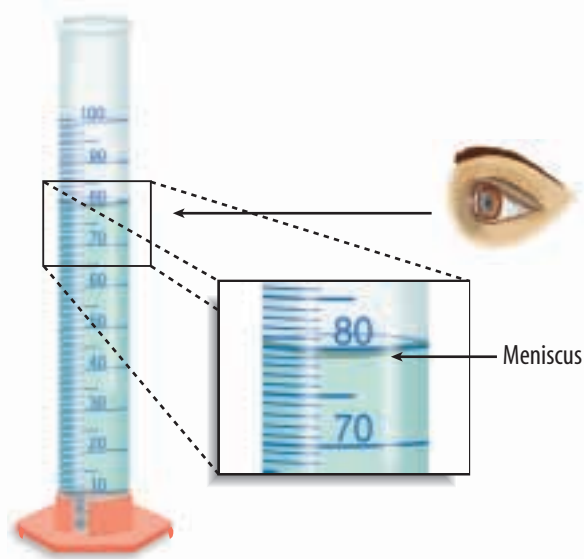
**Mass** The SI unit for mass is the kilogram (kg). Scientists can measure mass using units formed by adding metric prefixes to the unit gram (g), such as milligram (mg). To measure mass, you might use a triple-beam balance similar to the one shown in **Figure 12**. The balance has a pan on one side and a set of beams on the other side. Each beam has a rider that slides on the beam.

When using a triple-beam balance, place an object on the pan. Slide the largest rider along its beam until the pointer drops below zero. Then move it back one notch. Repeat the process for each rider proceeding from the larger to smaller until the pointer swings an equal distance above and below the zero point. Sum the masses on each beam to find the mass of the object. Move all riders back to zero when finished.

Instead of putting materials directly on the balance, scientists often take a tare of a container. A tare is the mass of a container into which objects or substances are placed for measuring their masses. To mass objects or substances, find the mass of a clean container. Remove the container from the pan, and place the object or substances in the container. Find the mass of the container with the materials in it. Subtract the mass of the empty container from the mass of the filled container to find the mass of the materials you are using.



**Figure 12** A triple-beam balance is used to determine the mass of an object.



**Figure 13** Graduated cylinders measure liquid volume.

**Liquid Volume** To measure liquids, the unit used is the liter (L). When a smaller unit is needed, scientists might use a milliliter (mL). Because a milliliter takes up the volume of a cube measuring 1 cm on each side it also can be called a cubic centimeter ( $\text{cm}^3 = \text{cm} \times \text{cm} \times \text{cm}$ ).

You can use beakers and graduated cylinders to measure liquid volume. A graduated cylinder, shown in **Figure 13**, is marked from bottom to top in milliliters. In the lab, you might use a 10-mL graduated cylinder or a 100-mL graduated cylinder. When measuring liquids, notice that the liquid has a curved surface. Look at the surface at eye level, and measure the bottom of the curve. This is called the meniscus. The graduated cylinder in **Figure 13** contains 79.0 mL, or  $79.0 \text{ cm}^3$ , of a liquid.

**Temperature** Scientists often measure temperature using the Celsius scale. Pure water has a freezing point of  $0^\circ\text{C}$  and boiling point of  $100^\circ\text{C}$ . The unit of measurement is degrees Celsius. Two other scales often used are the Fahrenheit and Kelvin scales.



**Figure 14** A thermometer measures the temperature of an object.

Scientists use a thermometer to measure temperature. Most thermometers in a laboratory are glass tubes with a bulb at the bottom end containing a liquid such as colored alcohol. The liquid rises or falls with a change in temperature. To read a glass thermometer like the thermometer in **Figure 14**, rotate it slowly until a red line appears. Read the temperature where the red line ends.

**Form Operational Definitions** An operational definition defines an object by how it functions, works, or behaves. For example, when you are playing hide and seek and a tree is home base, you have created an operational definition for a tree.

Objects can have more than one operational definition. For example, a ruler can be defined as a tool that measures the length of an object (how it is used). It can also be a tool with a series of marks used as a standard when measuring (how it works).

## Analyze the Data

To determine the meaning of your observations and investigation results, you will need to look for patterns in the data. Then you must think critically to determine what the data mean. Scientists use several approaches when they analyze the data they have collected and recorded. Each approach is useful for identifying specific patterns.

**Interpret Data** The word *interpret* means “to explain the meaning of something.” When analyzing data from an experiment, try to find out what the data show. Identify the control group and the test group to see whether or not changes in the independent variable have had an effect. Look for differences in the dependent variable between the control and test groups.

**Classify** Sorting objects or events into groups based on common features is called classifying. When classifying, first observe the objects or events to be classified. Then select one feature that is shared by some members in the group, but not by all. Place those members that share that feature in a subgroup. You can classify members into smaller and smaller subgroups based on characteristics. Remember that when you classify, you are grouping objects or events for a purpose. Keep your purpose in mind as you select the features to form groups and subgroups.

**Compare and Contrast** Observations can be analyzed by noting the similarities and differences between two more objects or events that you observe. When you look at objects or events to see how they are similar, you are comparing them. Contrasting is looking for differences in objects or events.



**Recognize Cause and Effect** A cause is a reason for an action or condition. The effect is that action or condition. When two events happen together, it is not necessarily true that one event caused the other. Scientists must design a controlled investigation to recognize the exact cause and effect.

## Draw Conclusions

When scientists have analyzed the data they collected, they proceed to draw conclusions about the data. These conclusions are sometimes stated in words similar to the hypothesis that you formed earlier. They may confirm a hypothesis, or lead you to a new hypothesis.

**Infer** Scientists often make inferences based on their observations. An inference is an attempt to explain observations or to indicate a cause. An inference is not a fact, but a logical conclusion that needs further investigation. For example, you may infer that a fire has caused smoke. Until you investigate, however, you do not know for sure.

**Apply** When you draw a conclusion, you must apply those conclusions to determine whether the data support the hypothesis. If your data do not support your hypothesis, it does not mean that the hypothesis is wrong. It means only that the result of the investigation did not support the hypothesis. Maybe the experiment needs to be redesigned, or some of the initial observations on which the hypothesis was based were incomplete or biased. Perhaps more observation or research is needed to refine your hypothesis. A successful investigation does not always come out the way you originally predicted.

**Avoid Bias** Sometimes a scientific investigation involves making judgments. When you make a judgment, you form an opinion. It is important to be honest and not to allow any expectations of results to bias your judgments. This is important throughout the entire investigation, from researching to collecting data to drawing conclusions.

## Communicate












The communication of ideas is an important part of the work of scientists. A discovery that is not reported will not advance the scientific community's understanding or knowledge. Communication among scientists also is important as a way of improving their investigations.


Scientists communicate in many ways, from writing articles in journals and magazines that explain their investigations and experiments, to announcing important discoveries on television and radio. Scientists also share ideas with colleagues on the Internet or present them as lectures, like the student is doing in **Figure 15**.





**Figure 15** A student communicates to his peers about his investigation.


## SAFETY SYMBOLS

	HAZARD	EXAMPLES	PRECAUTION	REMEDY
<b>DISPOSAL</b> 	Special disposal procedures need to be followed.	certain chemicals, living organisms	Do not dispose of these materials in the sink or trash can.	Dispose of wastes as directed by your teacher.
<b>BIOLOGICAL</b> 	Organisms or other biological materials that might be harmful to humans	bacteria, fungi, blood, unpreserved tissues, plant materials	Avoid skin contact with these materials. Wear mask or gloves.	Notify your teacher if you suspect contact with material. Wash hands thoroughly.
<b>EXTREME TEMPERATURE</b> 	Objects that can burn skin by being too cold or too hot	boiling liquids, hot plates, dry ice, liquid nitrogen	Use proper protection when handling.	Go to your teacher for first aid.
<b>SHARP OBJECT</b> 	Use of tools or glassware that can easily puncture or slice skin	razor blades, pins, scalpels, pointed tools, dissecting probes, broken glass	Practice common-sense behavior and follow guidelines for use of the tool.	Go to your teacher for first aid.
<b>FUME</b> 	Possible danger to respiratory tract from fumes	ammonia, acetone, nail polish remover, heated sulfur, moth balls	Make sure there is good ventilation. Never smell fumes directly. Wear a mask.	Leave foul area and notify your teacher immediately.
<b>ELECTRICAL</b> 	Possible danger from electrical shock or burn	improper grounding, liquid spills, short circuits, exposed wires	Double-check setup with teacher. Check condition of wires and apparatus.	Do not attempt to fix electrical problems. Notify your teacher immediately.
<b>IRRITANT</b> 	Substances that can irritate the skin or mucous membranes of the respiratory tract	pollen, moth balls, steel wool, fiberglass, potassium permanganate	Wear dust mask and gloves. Practice extra care when handling these materials.	Go to your teacher for first aid.
<b>CHEMICAL</b> 	Chemicals can react with and destroy tissue and other materials	bleaches such as hydrogen peroxide; acids such as sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid; bases such as ammonia, sodium hydroxide	Wear goggles, gloves, and an apron.	Immediately flush the affected area with water and notify your teacher.
<b>TOXIC</b> 	Substance may be poisonous if touched, inhaled, or swallowed.	mercury, many metal compounds, iodine, poinsettia plant parts	Follow your teacher's instructions.	Always wash hands thoroughly after use. Go to your teacher for first aid.
<b>FLAMMABLE</b> 	Flammable chemicals may be ignited by open flame, spark, or exposed heat.	alcohol, kerosene, potassium permanganate	Avoid open flames and heat when using flammable chemicals.	Notify your teacher immediately. Use fire safety equipment if applicable.
<b>OPEN FLAME</b> 	Open flame in use, may cause fire.	hair, clothing, paper, synthetic materials	Tie back hair and loose clothing. Follow teacher's instruction on lighting and extinguishing flames.	Notify your teacher immediately. Use fire safety equipment if applicable.

 **Eye Safety**  
Proper eye protection should be worn at all times by anyone performing or observing science activities.

 **Clothing Protection**  
This symbol appears when substances could stain or burn clothing.

 **Animal Safety**  
This symbol appears when safety of animals and students must be ensured.

 **Handwashing**  
After the lab, wash hands with soap and water before removing goggles.

# Safety in the Science Laboratory

## Introduction to Science Safety

Confucius, an ancient and well-known Chinese philosopher, is credited with a statement that could serve as a legacy of all types of human wisdom. It seems especially appropriate for the active learning you will experience in this science program.

“I hear and I forget,  
I see and I remember,  
I do and I understand.”

This is the basis for the safety routine that will be used in all the labs in this book. It is assumed that you will use all of your senses as you “experience” the labs. However, with such experience comes the potential for injury. The purpose of this section of the book is to help keep you safe by involving you in the safety process.



## How will your teacher help?

It will be your teacher's responsibility to decide which science labs are safe and appropriate for you. Your teacher will identify the hazards involved in each activity and will ask for your assistance to reduce as much danger as possible. He or she will involve you in safety discussions about your understanding of the actual and potential dangers and the safety measures needed to keep everyone safe. Ideally, this will become a habit with each lab in which you take part.

Your teacher also will explain the safety features of your room as well as the most important safety equipment and routines for addressing safety issues. He or she also will require that you complete a *Student Lab-Safety Worksheet* for each lab to make certain you are prepared to perform the lab safely. **BEFORE** you may begin, your teacher will review your comments, make corrections, and sign or initial this form.

The ultimate purpose of the safety discussions and the *Student Lab-Safety Worksheet* will be to **help you take some responsibility for your own safety** and to help you to develop good habits when you prepare and perform science experiments and labs.

## How can you help?

Since your teacher cannot anticipate every safety hazard that might occur and he or she cannot be everywhere in the room at the same time, you need to take some responsibility for your own safety. The following general information should apply to nearly every science lab.

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You must:

- Review any *Safety Symbols* in the labs and be certain you know what they mean.
- Follow all teacher instructions for safety and make certain you understand all the hazards related to the labs you are about to do.
- Be able to explain the purpose of the lab.
- Be able to explain, or demonstrate, all reasonable emergency procedures, such as:
  - how to evacuate the room during emergencies;
  - how to react to any chemical emergencies;
  - how to deal with fire emergencies;
  - how to perform a scientific investigation safely;
  - how to anticipate some safety concerns and be prepared to address them;
  - how to use equipment properly and safely.

- Be able to locate and use all safety equipment as directed by your teacher, such as:
  - fire extinguishers;
  - fire blankets;
  - eye protective equipment (goggles, safety glasses, face shield);
  - eyewash;
  - drench shower.
- Complete the *Student Lab-Safety Worksheet* before starting any science lab.
- Ask questions about any safety concerns that you might have **BEFORE** starting any lab of science investigation.

Remember! Your teacher will review your comments, make corrections, and sign or initial the *Student Lab-Safety Worksheet* **BEFORE** you will be permitted to begin the lab. A copy of this form appears below.

### Student Lab-Safety Worksheet

Student Name: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Lab Title: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher Approval Initials

Date of Approval

In order to show your teacher that you understand the safety concerns of this lab, the following questions must be answered after the teacher explains the information to you. You must have your teacher initial this form before you can proceed with the lab.

1. How would you describe what you will be doing during this lab?

2. What are the safety concerns in this lab (explained by your teacher)?

- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

3. What additional safety concerns or questions do you have?

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