

This is a repository copy of *Students' Knowledge Acquisition and Ability to Apply Knowledge into Different Science Contexts in Two Different Independent Learning Settings*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/117782/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Cukurova, Mutlu, Bennett, Judith Merryn orcid.org/0000-0002-5033-0804 and Abrahams, Ian Zoller (2018) Students' Knowledge Acquisition and Ability to Apply Knowledge into Different Science Contexts in Two Different Independent Learning Settings. *Research in Science and Technological Education*. pp. 17-34. ISSN 1470-1138

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02635143.2017.1336709>

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

Students' Knowledge Acquisition and Ability to Apply Knowledge into Different Contexts in Two Different Independent Learning Settings

This paper reports on a study that explored the effectiveness of two different learning settings: (i) guided independent learning and (ii) un-guided independent learning with independent research, in enabling students in an undergraduate Macromolecules course to acquire knowledge in one chemistry context and apply it successfully in another. The study involved a sample of 144 chemistry students commencing their first term of undergraduate study at a northern university in England. Students were asked to complete pre- and post-intervention tests containing ten diagnostic questions of which four measured students' knowledge acquisition in one context and six measured their ability to apply it successfully in another. Diagnostic questions had been designed using a Delphi approach. Paired t-tests and chi-square tests were used to analyse the significance of any change in students' responses to the diagnostic questions and the number of responses evidencing misconceptions respectively. Whilst it was found that guided independent learning settings improved students' knowledge and ability to apply knowledge in novel situations, un-guided independent learning had no statistically significant effect. It was also found that un-guided independent learning led to a statistically significant increase in the number of student misconceptions in one of the diagnostic questions. The results of this study suggest that guidance in independent learning activities is a key necessity.

Keywords: Independent Learning; Knowledge Acquisition; Ability to Apply Knowledge; Misconceptions

Introduction and Aim

Independent learning is defined as that learning in which the learner, in conjunction with relevant others, can make the decisions necessary to meet the learner's own learning needs (Kesten, 1987). Although, this definition comes from an almost thirty-year-old source, it has been accepted and used by many recent scholars who study independent learning (Bates & Wilson, 2002; Black, 2007; Bullock & Muschamp, 2006; Laurillard, 2013; Seery, 2012). For almost three decades now, there has been an extensive movement internationally to change teaching in higher education (HE) through a range of innovations, which promote independent learning. Independent learning has increased in importance as its role in the continuing development of an education system that promotes high quality, and lifelong learning gains recognition. Its significance may be considered as even bigger in HE as university education is the last step of formal education for the majority of the university graduates. Hence, it may be regarded as the last opportunity to develop independent learning abilities, which will possibly be the key method of learning for the rest of graduates' lives.

There is a broad acceptance (Bates & Wilson, 2002; Gorman, 1998; Kesten, 1987) that learners develop values, attitudes, knowledge and skills needed to make responsible decisions and take appropriate actions in regard to their own learning during independent learning activities. The principles of independent learning are reflected in the design of several instructional approaches, such as problem-based learning (Barrows, 1985) project-based learning (Blumenfeld et al., 1991), inquiry learning (Minner, Levy, & Century, 2010), learning through information and communication technologies (Mok & Chen, 2001), online learning (Heckman & Annabi, 2005), and flipped classrooms (Alvarez, 2011). Hence, literature reviews of independent learning (see, for instance, Meyer, Haywood, Sachdey, & Faraday, 2008) usually rely on findings generated from variety of teaching strategies including those cited above. Previous studies investigated those teaching approaches, showed that independent learning, when it is applied in the settings of aforementioned teaching approaches, can generate increased academic achievement (Albanese & Mitcell, 1993; Davies, Dean, & Ball, 2013; Vernon & Blake, 1993), improved motivation and confidence (Alvarez, 2011), and, has been reported, by learners, to be a more satisfying learning experience, compared to more traditional types of teaching strategies (Belland, Ertmer, & Simons, 2006; Fulton, 2012).

However, there is little agreement on how independent learning activities should be applied, and they are often considered to be hard to manage by teachers (Abrahams, Reiss, & Sharpe, 2014). In order to shed light on the application of independent learning approaches in their specific contexts, we investigated an independent learning approach which has features from teaching approaches mentioned earlier and involves two different independent learning activities (i) guided independent learning and (ii) un-guided independent learning with independent research. It was applied in a first year undergraduate module, in the Chemistry department of a university situated in north England. We aimed to answer two main research questions:

- 1) What are the impacts of guided and un-guided independent learning activities, on first year tertiary level students' knowledge acquisition and their ability to transfer this knowledge into new contexts?
- 2) What are the impacts of guided and un-guided independent learning activities, on first year tertiary level students' misconceptions about the content of the Macromolecules course?

Independent Learning Activities in Instructional Strategies

Instructional support provided during learning has been referred to variously as: ‘instruction methods’ (Cronbach & Snow, 1977; Tobias, 1982), ‘instructional strategies’ or ‘teaching strategies’ (Merill, 2002; Weston & Cranton, 1986), ‘direct instruction’ (Klahr & Nigam, 2004) and ‘scaffolding’ (Pea, 2004). We have opted to use the term ‘instructional strategy’ as the word strategy refers to a plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim which we feel best reflects the aims of the lecturer. Indeed, it has been argued (Salomon, 2004) that instruction strategies either activate or impede the cognitive processes necessary for learning.

Promoting independent learning with variety of instruction strategies is important (Evans, 1991). This requires educators building up a repertoire of strategies, which promote independent learning and gradually engaging students in becoming more independent in their learning. Although, the usual approach to teaching at university has been traditional, didactic and lecture-based (Berrett, 2012) which promotes the dependence of students to their teachers in their learning; for almost the last thirty years there has been an extensive movement internationally to change tertiary level teaching through innovative teaching strategies which involve independent learning activities. Even though, the importance of these activities has been widely accepted, the way that they have been practiced is still a topic under discussion. One often broadly varied feature of such application of teaching approaches that involve independent learning activities is the amount of guidance required to be provided to the learners.

Guidance in Instruction Strategies

Derek Hodson claims that independent learning activities in the sciences should only be used among students that are already familiar and happy with relevant scientific concepts (1991), otherwise they simply become too confusing and unproductive, with no clear linkages between activities and learning (1993). Taber (2011) argues that if students are left on their own to find solutions to problems they come across, it is very unlikely that those solutions are different then those scientifically accepted ones. In a similar vein, Sweller, Kirschner and Clark (2007) suggest that students should be carefully guided towards accurate constructions, understandings and solutions during independent learning activities. However, strict guidance during independent learning activities undermines perhaps the most significant goal of

independent learning activities, which is to build abilities allowing learners to be independent learners such as their ability to reason and think independently.

Possibly both, researchers who argue that students should discover their own solutions independently and those who argues that students should be strictly guided towards the solutions, would accept the usefulness of the concept of scaffolding (Pea, 2004) in instruction strategies. Pea describes scaffolding situations as “those in which the learner gets assistance or support to perform a task beyond his or her own reach if pursued independently when *unassisted*” (pp. 430; emphasis in the original text). However, the problem in such arguments is that these types of descriptions are too general and open to discussions. As Clark (2009) states they do not provide enough information about “exactly when, how, and how much support should be given and should be ‘faded’ without cognitively overloading unassisted learners” (pp. 160). Pea (2004) suggests in his scaffolding theory that guidance should be provided when there is “independent evidence that the learner cannot do the task or goal unaided” (p. 443). On the other hand, Kirschner et al. (2006, 2007) who support the strict guidance during instruction strategies argue that learners must be provided with a complete demonstration of how to perform all aspects of a task that they have not learned and automated previously, even if a learner could solve a problem with adequate mental effort, they argue that to provide a complete description of when and how is more effective way of learning.

Previous Research on Guidance in Instruction Strategies

The effects of variations in guidance on learning have been reviewed in a combination of laboratory and field-based studies by Mayer (2004), by Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark (2006), and by Sweller et al. (2007). All those researchers concluded that providing guidance during instruction strategies is a more effective approach than allowing students time to find the solutions themselves at improving students both, knowledge acquisition and their understanding of key concepts.

More specifically, Fender and Crowley (2007) investigated children between ages 3- and 8-years-old who explored a novel task solo or with parents and found that children whose parents had explained were most likely to have a conceptual understanding of concepts as opposed to procedural understanding of the task. Similarly, Klahr and Nigam (2004) found that many more students learned from instruction with strict guidance compared to leaving students to discover their solutions independently. Also, when asked to make

broader, richer scientific judgments many students who learned about experimental design from guided instruction strategy performed well while only a few of those children who discovered the method independently managed to do so. Rappolt-Schlichtmann, Tenenbaum, Koepke, and Fischer (2007) showed that students provided guidance through modeling more complex reasoning about why objects sink or float presented more complex judgments compared to no guidance group, although their predictions about whether objects would sink or float were mostly correct from the start for both groups of students. Strand-Cary and Klahr (2008) found that at each of the three grade levels they investigated, many more students learned Control of Variables Strategy (CVS), which is often seen as a central strategy in science, in the guided condition than in the unguided condition in which students were received neither instruction about good and bad experiments nor any probe questions. On the other hand, in long term, strict guidance in instruction, as Dean and Kuhn (2007) found, is neither a necessary nor sufficient condition for robust acquisition of knowledge or for maintenance of it over time. It was also found that while the guided students performed better on the definitional knowledge test. On the explanation test there was no difference between the two groups of students who were taught in guided and unguided teaching strategies (Swaak, de Jong, & van Joolingen, 2004). The authors show that unguided strategies, when sufficient learning time and freedom for students in the assignments to engage in activities provided, can also result in substantial learning gains.

Further investigations of instruction strategies which involve both, guided and unguided independent learning activities is required for better comprehension and application of such approaches and their impact on student learning in specific contexts.

Student Misconceptions

Nowadays, it is established in the literature that students often develop ideas that are different from those accepted by the scientific community and intended by their facilitators (BouJaoude, 1992; Ebenezer & Fraser, 2001; Taber, 1999; Treagust, 1988; Zoller, 1990). These ideas have been given various names, such as alternative frameworks, misconceptions, misunderstandings or alternative conceptions (Gabel & Bunce, 1994; Griffiths, 1994; Nakleh, 1992). Even though each description has a slight difference, such as that usually misunderstandings are claimed to be less firmly rooted and so are more amenable to change

compared with alternative conceptions (Griffiths, Thomey, Cooke & Normore, 1988), in essence they all refer to students' ideas which differ from the scientifically accepted ones. As the second research question of this study is aimed at measuring the impact of the independent learning activities investigated on students' misconceptions, we reviewed the literature on students common misconceptions related to the content of the Macromolecules module and used this piece of literature while coding student answers to diagnostic questions.

The Structure of the Macromolecules course

The Macromolecules course was unique amongst students' first-year courses in being taught in independent learning. The course did not involve any lectures and students were asked to work alone to find out solutions for the given problems and tasks. In this course, students were expected to take responsibility for their own learning and to discover their own solutions.

The course had two components; the first involved guided and the second involved unguided independent learning activities. In the guided component students were provided with a workbook based on the lecturer's previous lecture notes which had been adapted to fit in with the principles of independent learning. Students started by working through the workbook, reading the sections, finding further information via weblinks etc., and then they attempted to answer questions provided by the lecturer which were designed to enable students' to acquire knowledge of, and understanding about, the chemical ideas in the topic. In guided component, students were able to interact with and ask questions to their lecturers on a discussion board on the virtual learning environment (VLE). Once they had worked through the material on the guided component of the course, they were asked to answer the assessed tutorial questions on the VLE. They were allowed to use whatever resources they chose to help them to answer.

For the second, unguided, component of the course, they were asked to carry out an independent investigation into an aspect of polymer chemistry and then present their findings either, in the format of a written article or short video. The polymer chemistry topics were suggested by the lecturer in the introductory lecture and students chose the topic which piqued their curiosity among the options suggested. They did not receive any guidance during their independent investigations from the lecturer. Students

studied the course for ten weeks (one semester) and spent five weeks on guided and five weeks on unguided settings.

Methodology

This study set out to evaluate the effectiveness of two styles of independent learning on students' knowledge and their ability to apply knowledge into different contexts, hence, pre- and post-test design (Bryman, 2008) is seen appropriate for data collection. To avoid sample bias it was agreed with the course leader that they would

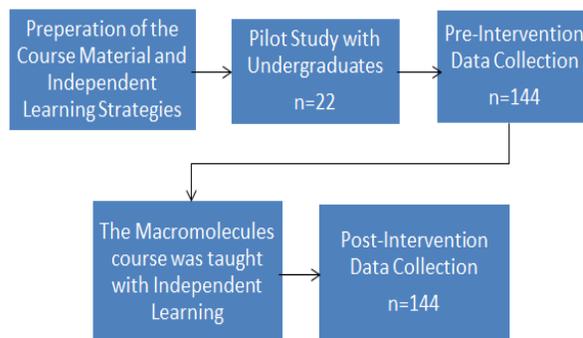


Fig. 1: A general description of the empirical study

strongly encourage the students to complete the pre- and post-tests although, for ethical reasons, tests were not compulsory. Students took the same questionnaire with ten diagnostic questions at the beginning of their first week and ten weeks later during the last week of the term. Figure 1 summarizes the research design. Diagnostic questions were prepared by the researchers and validated using a Delphi approach (Clayton, 1997) involving three chemistry education researchers and three university lecturers, from two different UK universities. First, the module leader was asked to generate questions related to investigated chemical ideas and the learning objectives of the course. 10 questions each for guided and unguided parts of the module were prepared. Other lecturers and chemistry education researchers reviewed these questions. In main study, three questions from guided and seven questions from the unguided part of the study were agreed by all lecturers and chemistry education researchers, hence they were used in the main study.

Since all of the first year undergraduate students were taking part in this study, the questionnaires were piloted with twenty-two students from four other similar chemistry departments in the UK. Ten students in the pilot study studied the content of the Macromolecules module in similar unguided settings whereas the rest studied in guided settings in their departments. In pilot study, students' feedback on the questions regarding their clarity, difficulty or typographic features were also taken into account and questions were revised before they were used in the main study.

Main study

The main study was designed specifically to probe students' knowledge acquisition and ability to apply knowledge into different contexts. It aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the two different independent learning activities at teaching the content of Macromolecules module. The diagnostic questions that aimed to measure students' ability to apply knowledge were explorative, whilst those questions that sought to measure knowledge acquisition were descriptive in nature. Every diagnostic question was related to a learning objective of the Macromolecules course. The questions can be categorized into four groups according to whether they related to guided or unguided independent learning and knowledge acquisition or ability to apply knowledge to novel contexts:

Group 1: The Isomerisation and Combustion questions were devised to measure any impact of the guided independent learning on the student ability to apply knowledge of geometric isomerisation and hydrogen bonding to novel contexts.

Group 2: The Kevlar's Strength question was designed to measure any impact of guided independent learning on students' knowledge acquisition on intermolecular bonds.

Group 3: The Branching, Biodegradability-Biocompatibility, Chelate (coordinate bonding) and Fashion (structure-property relationship) questions were designed to measure any impact of the unguided independent learning on student ability to apply knowledge of these chemical ideas to novel contexts.

Group 4: The Recycling, PIC and Functional Group questions were designed to measure any impact of the unguided independent learning on student knowledge acquisition on recycling and functional groups.

As can be seen the different number of questions exist in different groups. Three questions are about the chemical ideas studied with the guided independent learning and seven about the chemical ideas studied with unguided independent learning activities. Among them, four measured students' knowledge acquisition in one context and six measured their ability to apply it successfully in another. These numbers are the result of the Delphi study since among twenty diagnostic questions suggested by the module leader, those considered as appropriate by all experts, were used in the main study.

In total, 144 first-year undergraduate chemistry students completed both the pre- and post-tests.

Qualitative analysis

Data was first coded into four categories A, B, C, and D in addition to which each category was allocated a further code, either 1 or 2, representing a response with no evidence of misconception and one with evidence of misconception respectively. Table 1 shows the final coding scheme. A chemistry education researcher and a postgraduate chemistry education student did the coding independently. Ten per cent of all answers are double coded and where there was disagreement, the researchers discussed the data and revised their codes accordingly.

Reporting changed responses

First, in order to monitor general differences in students' responses, a paired-sample t-test was used. Student responses were first coded according to the coding chart prepared and then enumerated in order to be transferred to the SPSS programme. In this transfer of data, A1-coded answers were accepted as the most valuable responses and C2-coded answers were accepted as the least-valuable responses. The value of an

Code	Explanation
A1	All correct with no evidence of misconception
A2	Correct with some evidence of misconception
B1	Incomplete answer with no evidence of misconception
B2	Incomplete answer with some evidence of misconception
C1	Wrong answer no evidence of misconception
C2	Wrong answer with some evidence of misconception
D1	No Response
D2	Student writes: 'Do not Know'
D3	Other Comments

Table 1 Final Coding Scheme

answer is judged by its proximity to the expected correct answer. As every numerical representation of the 'value' of an answer, this enumeration is a hypothesis. Using SPSS differences between students' pre- and post-intervention responses were compared using a paired-sample t-test and a chi-square test both at the 0.05 level of significance.

In order to provide some insights regarding how the data was treated, we provide an example of student answer below. The quote was given to the branching question by student 72, and is coded as C2 (wrong answer with some evidence of misconception).

HDPE is more flexible, it has branches which can bond and connect in different ways more than LDPE, so it is more elastic.

LDPE is more flexible than HDPE hence the answer is not correct. Also, the answer reveals that the student thinks that more side chains mean more intermolecular bonding which is a misconception related to the content of the Macromolecules module.

Results

The Name of the Question	Result of the Paired Sample t-Test ($p < 0.05$)	Result of the Chi-Square Test ($\chi^2 > 3.84$)
Recycling Question	NSD $p=0.132$	NSD $\chi^2 = 1.49$
Branching Question	NSD $p=0.283$	NSD $\chi^2 = 0.08$
PIC Question	NSD $p=0.241$	DGD
Fashion Question	NSD $p=0.209$	SMM $\chi^2 = 5.76$
Isomerisation Question	SPD $p=0.008$	NSD $\chi^2 = 0.36$
Kevlar's Strength Question	SPD $p=0.012$	NSD $\chi^2 = 1.06$
Functional Groups Question	NSD $p=0.553$	DGD
Biodegradability Question	NSD $p=0.520$	NSD $\chi^2 = 0.86$
Chelate Question	NSD $p=0.302$	DGD
Combustion Reaction	SPD $p=0.016$	NSD $\chi^2 = 0.06$

Table 2 Overall Results of the Diagnostic Questions

* NSD: No significant difference, SPD: Significant positive difference, DGD: Did not generate data, SMM: Significant more misconceptions

Recycling process

The question about the recycling process was designed to probe the gain in students' knowledge regarding the recycling process. Results of the paired t-test show that the students' knowledge acquisition about the recycling process was not significant $p=0.132$ ($p < 0.05$).

The number of responses which showed evidence of a misconception had decreased from 21 to 16 after the Macromolecules course. This decrease was not statistically significant, $\chi^2 = 1.49$ ($\chi^2 > 3.84$)

Some students gave responses with the same misconception after they had completed the Macromolecules course. The most common misconceptions, which were presented by 37 students, seemed to be “*every plastic is made of crude oil*” and “*we can recycle every plastic*”. Furthermore, the difference between re-use and recycling still appeared to be problematic for some students (22/144) after the Macromolecules course, as it was one of the most frequent misconceptions for students before the course.

In a comprehensive study on students' understanding of the recycling process (Kortland, 1992), it was found that the depletion of raw materials was seldom, if ever, mentioned by students. In this current

research study, however, this point was frequently mentioned by students. One possible reason for this difference could be the age difference between the two samples as Kortland used younger students aged 13-14 in his study.

Branching

This question probed students' ability to apply knowledge of branching to the context of HDPE and LDPE polymers' physical properties. The improvement in students' responses was not statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level, $p = 0.283$. The change in the number of student answers containing misconceptions was not statistically significant either, $\chi^2 = 0.08$ ($\chi^2 > 3.84$)

The result suggests that the Macromolecules course had no impact on students' ability to apply their knowledge of branching to a novel context. The most common misconception was that students thought that more branching meant more intermolecular bonding. In the post-intervention analysis, some students still continued to believe this. This finding can be related to a general intuitive rule (Tirosh & Stavy, 1999) that 'the more of A (the salient quantity), the more of B (the quality in question)'. This finding suggests, as has been previously reported (Barke, Hazari, & Yitbarek, 2009), that students transfer and confuse terms from the macroscopic area of matter with the sub-microscopic area of the smallest particles. In their responses to this question, the students thought that more-branched molecules can interact better with each other, just as at the macro level it would be very possible to expect that the branched parts of materials stick together more easily than the smooth parts of materials. However, this explanation does not correspond to the behaviour of polymers at the molecular level.

Plastic identification codes (PIC)

This question was designed to measure students' knowledge acquisition about the everyday life applications of polymers. Comparison of the pre- and post-intervention surveys showed a p value greater than 0.05 ($p = 0.241$), which shows that the increase in the students' knowledge acquisition about applications of PIC was not statistically significant after the Macromolecules course.

Fabrics

The Fashion and Fabrics question explored students' ability to apply knowledge of hydrogen bonding in the context of PTFE and Nylon structures. There was not, at the 0.05 level ($p=0.209$), a statistically significant change suggesting that students' ability to apply knowledge of hydrogen bonding to different contexts was not improved during the Macromolecules course.

In terms of students' misconceptions the post-intervention data showed that there were statistically significantly more responses with some evidence of a misconception, $\chi^2 = 5.76$, ($\chi^2 > 3.84$).

The most common problem encountered by the students in this question was that could not transfer their thinking from the micro to the macro level or vice versa. However, the question asked the students to transfer their thinking from the atomic (micro) level (the water-repellent chemistry of those polymers) to the macro and tangible level (the waterproof and breathable features of the materials). Previous studies (Gabel, 1994, 1998) have found that students struggle to comprehend and use the transfer between those levels. The reasons for this may vary, such as lack of experience with the macro type (Hodson, 1990; Nelson, 2002), or the existence of misconceptions about the particulate nature of matters that can impede understanding the nature of the sub-microscopic level (Harrison & Treagust, 2000).

Isomerisation

This question was designed to measure students' ability to apply their knowledge of the cis- and trans-stereochemistry of polymers in the context of how polymers behave in chemical reactions. There was a significant positive change, $p=0.08$ ($p<0.05$) between pre- and post-intervention student responses, which indicates that some students' ability to apply knowledge of geometric isomerisation to a novel context has improved.

In terms of student misconceptions, whilst 14/144 of the responses contained misconceptions the most common of which related to trans-isomers have more steric hindrance with a further six students stating that cis- and trans- isomers could have different numbers of monomers or different numbers of double bonds, overall the change in the number of responses containing a misconception was not statistically significant, $\chi^2 = 0.36$ ($\chi^2 > 3.84$).

Kevlar

This question focused on students' knowledge acquisition of the intermolecular bonds in polymers. Comparison of the pre- and post-intervention surveys shows that the p value is smaller than 0.05 ($p=0.01$), which suggests that student knowledge about intermolecular bonding in Kevlar has increased by a statistically significant amount.

There was no statistically significant, $\chi^2 = 1.06$ ($\chi^2 > 3.84$) change in the number of student misconceptions. The most frequent misconception being that students associated the physical strength of Kevlar with its atom-atom interaction in the molecules (intramolecular bonds) instead of atom-atom interactions among different molecules (intermolecular bonds). In other words, some students thought that if in the molecule there is a strong bond between atoms, the molecule should be physically strong. These students associated Kevlar's physical strength with its chemical inertness. This finding is similar to previous studies (Peterson & Treagust, 1989; Peterson, Treagust, & Garnett, 1989; Taber, 1994, 1995) that have found that students struggle to understand the relationship between intermolecular bonding and physical properties.

Functional groups

This question was designed to measure students' knowledge acquisition about functional groups. Comparison of the pre- and post-intervention surveys shows that the p value is bigger than 0.05 ($p=0.553$), which suggests that the students' knowledge about the functional groups had not changed statistically significantly.

Biodegradability and biocompatibility question

This question investigated students' ability to apply their knowledge of biodegradability and biocompatibility to human body context. The change in the responses before and after the Macromolecules course was not statistically significant, $p=0.52$ ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that the students' ability to apply their knowledge of biodegradability and biocompatibility to novel contexts had not changed.

In terms of students' misconceptions, there was no significant change in the post-test results, $\chi^2 = 0.86$ ($\chi^2 > 3.84$).

In the pre-test investigation, two themes of misconceptions were identified. First, biocompatibility was thought by two students as polymers' ability to bond to the human body. Second, biodegradability was confused with the dissolution of polar polymers in polar solvents. There was no change in the number of these misconceptions were mentioned in the post-intervention results.

Chelate forming question

This question measured students' ability to apply knowledge of coordinate bonds to novel contexts. Comparison of the pre- and post-intervention surveys shows that the p value is greater than 0.05, ($p=0.302$), which shows that improvement in students' ability to apply knowledge of coordinate bonding was not statistically significant.

Combustion reaction question

This question probes students' ability to apply their knowledge of combustion reactions to the context of burning plastics. Comparison of the pre- and post-intervention surveys showed that the p value is smaller than 0.05 ($p=0.016$). These results suggest that the student ability to apply their knowledge to a novel situation has increased significantly.

Referring to the literature on students' ideas about combustion reactions, it can be seen that the number of students who are 'chemical reaction thinkers' (Watson, Prieto, & Dillon, 1995, 1997) increased whilst the numbers of 'transmutation thinkers' and 'modification thinkers' (Watson et al., 1995, 1997) decreased during the Macromolecules course. The most common misconception was that four students thought that in combustion reactions products' mass is always smaller than reactants.

Discussion

In this current study we have examined the effectiveness of a teaching approach, which involves two different independent learning activities relative to the lecturer's stated learning objectives and within the natural learning environment. To do this a three stage model of learning was used in which there are two processes (see figure 2). Our learning model was inspired from Darmofal, Soderholm, and Brodeur (2002)'s definition of understanding as the ability to apply knowledge to a range of novel examples and

circumstances. We have examined the impact of the strategy on process 1) the knowledge acquisition and on process 2) the ability to apply knowledge to novel context.

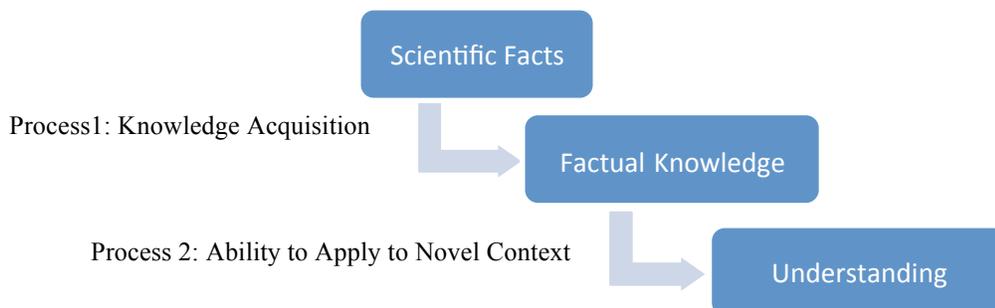


Fig. 2: Learning model used in the study

The effectiveness of guided and unguided independent learning

Following guided independent learning it was found that students' knowledge acquisition (process 1), as well as their ability to apply knowledge (process 2), had increased and that this increase was statistically significant. In contrast it was found that following the unguided independent learning there had been no statistically significant change in terms of either students' knowledge acquisition (process 1) or their ability to apply knowledge (process 2).

There are two main results of this research study: first, independent learning activities applied in the Macromolecules course's guided component was effective at improving students' knowledge acquisition and their ability to apply knowledge in different contexts. Second, when students are left alone to do independent investigations, without enough support provided, their knowledge acquisition related to specific learning outcomes of the course and their ability to apply this knowledge did not change statistically significantly.

Although similar benefits of guided independent learning have been discussed in other innovative teaching approaches investigated in the literature review (Bell, 2010; Bergmann, Overmyer, & Wilie, 2012; Finkelstein, Hanson, Huang, Hirschman, & Huang, 2010; Geier et al., 2008; Kelly & Finlayson, 2007; Seery, 2012; Tan, 2004), the vast majority of the literature that show these mentioned benefits of

independent learning activities are from complex teaching approaches which makes it hard to attribute these benefits to independent learning activities themselves.

Regarding the second result, that students are not likely to become effective independent learners on their own and independent learning should be promoted (and/or taught) by the lecturers for students to be independent learners is argued by some scholars in the literature (Bates & Wilson, 2002; Black, 2007). Although there are a variety of reasons discussed in the literature for the failure of unguided teaching strategies (see, for instance, Tobias and Duffy (2009) such as unguided independent learning, the main reason to emerge from the current study was that the majority of the undergraduate students who undertook this course appeared to fail to make the required interaction with the key ideas of the investigated topic and focused instead on the extraneous context. Moreover, students often gather information from secondary and tertiary sources which also include information differs from scientifically accepted ones during unguided independent activities (Cukurova & Bennett, 2014).

Student misconceptions

In order for understanding to be meaningful in a scientific context the knowledge applied in novel situations should be the correct knowledge. If the knowledge applied in novel situations is a misconception, the answer generated would be incorrect in a scientific context. We have found that there was no statistically significant change in student responses with a sign of misconception during guided independent learning. However, during unguided independent learning, whilst there was no statistically significant change in five out of six questions, in one case there was statistically significant increase in the number student responses with a sign of misconception. These ideas containing a misconception are most likely to have developed because the students used a variety of secondary and tertiary scientific information sources – particularly from the internet – during their personal investigations, and they did not have enough comprehension to separate the ideas with a sign of misconception from those with no sign of misconception.

The findings of this research study provided some evidence that student misconceptions may increase through unguided independent research. Ribeiro (1992) argues that teachers should be checking that students have understood in the way they intended them to, in order to eliminate possible misconceptions of students. It may be the case that the lack of interaction between teacher and students during unguided

independent learning makes it hard for teachers to check whether their students acquired the knowledge they intended them to. This in turn can cause an increase in the number of misconceptions. Furthermore, Ribeiro, Periera, and Maskill (1990) argued that the best way of becoming aware of the shortcomings of one's own knowledge is to rub it up against that of others. However, unguided independent learning approach applied in the Macromolecules course appears not to stimulate enough discussions among students, which can provide a better chance of knowing their shortcomings, creating cognitive conflicts, and remedy their misconceptions.

Conclusions

The finding of this study, like that of others (Bell, 2010; Bergmann et al., 2012; Finkelstein et al., 2010; Geier et al., 2008; Kelly & Finlayson, 2007; Seery, 2012; Tan, 2004) supports the view that independent learning activities can be beneficial in increasing students' knowledge of chemical ideas and their ability to apply knowledge in different contexts. Although the findings of the many studies from the literature can be criticized that their mentioned benefits come from complex teaching approaches, hence hard to be attributed to independent learning activities only, findings of this research study come from a teaching approach which only involved independent learning strategies and can, to a greater extent, be attributed to independent learning.

The independent learning approach applied in the second part of the Macromolecules course does not seem to contribute to students' knowledge of and understanding about of chemical ideas. For the second part of the course, students were asked to carry out an independent investigation into an aspect of polymer chemistry and then present their findings in the format of a written article or short video (*see* Structure of the Macromolecules course). It has been argued by many scholars (Bates & Wilson, 2002; Black, 2007; Bullock & Muschamp, 2006; Laurillard, 2013; Williams, 2003) that students do not become effective independent learners on their own and independent learning should be promoted. However, this research study shows that unguided independent student investigations, under the settings applied in the Macromolecules course's second part, may perhaps lead to an increase in the number of students' misconceptions. As Mayer has pointed out, it has been the accepted practice by some teachers to consider hands-on activities as equivalent to active learning, but active instructional methods do not always lead to

active learning, and passive methods do not always lead to passive learning (Mayer, 2008). Chi (2009) explained that although activities requiring hands-on active participation (such as the unguided independent learning approach applied in the Macromolecules course) from learners guarantee a level of engagement greater than passive reception of information, these activities do not guarantee that learners will be engaged to the extent necessary to make sense of the materials for themselves. The assumption of if we allow students to interact with a specific environment this interaction may lead to learning of desired knowledge, is very unlikely to be the case. As the new knowledge is channeled by the current knowledge and understanding, repetition of the learning process without required guidance will very possibly lead to an increasingly idiosyncratic way of understanding the world (Taber, 2011) and this idiosyncratic way of understanding is conceivably different than those scientifically accepted ways.

We would caution that simply because people are able to construct their own understandings with little or no guidance in the context of everyday activities, such unguided independent learning activities were not found to be effective in the context of formal undergraduate Macromolecules course. The reasons might be that the content and context of formal education are extraordinary (Geary, 2008), and require more assistance to reach at scientifically accurate constructions, understandings, and solutions (Sweller et al., 2007). It is important here to stress that the investigated learning outcomes in this research were related to students' knowledge and understanding. The effectiveness of the teaching approaches similar to the one investigated here, at achieving other learning outcomes including an improvement at skills and intellectual attributes should be probed separately.

We would also like to make it clear that posing ten questions to students in a pre-test post-test experimental design, covering eight chemical ideas is a significant limitation of this study. However, given our findings we suggest that the independent learning activities can provide students benefits such as scientifically correct knowledge acquisition of, and understanding about chemical ideas, if they are provided with required guidance like in the settings of the first part of Macromolecules course. However, further research studies which investigate independent learning strategies on their own is needed to be able to draw better conclusions related to independent learning theory and practices.

References

- Abrahams, I., Reiss, M., & Sharpe, R. (2014). The impact of the 'Getting Practical: Improving Practical Work in Science continuing professional development programme on teachers' ideas and practice in science practical work. *Research in Science & Technological Education*, 32(3), 263-280.
- Albanese, M. A., & Mitchell, S. (1993). Problem-based learning: A review of literature on its outcomes and implementation issues. *Academic Medicine*, 68, 52-81.
- Alvarez, B. (2011). Flipping the classroom: Homework in class, lessons at home. Retrieved from <http://www.learningfirst.org/flipping-classroom-homework-class-lessons-home>
- Barke, H. D., Hazari, A., & Yitbarek, S. (2009). *Misconceptions in chemistry: Addressing perceptions in chemical education*. London: Springer.
- Barrows, H. S. (1985). How to design a problem-based curriculum for the preclinical years. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Bates, I., & Wilson, P. (2002). Family and education: Supporting independent learning. *Learning and Skills Research*, 6(1), 3-12.
- Bell, S. (2010). Project-based learning for the 21st century: Skills for the future. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies Issues and Ideas*, 83(2), 39-43.
- Belland, B. R., Ertmer, P. A., & Simons, K. D. (2006). Perceptions of the value of problem-based learning among students with special needs and their teachers. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-based Learning*, 1(2), 1-18.
- Bergmann, J., Overmyer, J., & Wilie, B. (2012). The flipped class: Myths versus reality. Retrieved from <http://www.thedailyriff.com/articles/the-flipped-class-conversation-689.php>
- Berrett, D. (2012). How 'flipping' the classroom can improve the traditional lecture. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 12, 1-14.
- Black, R. (2007). *Crossing the bridge - overcoming entrenched disadvantage through student-centred learning*. Melbourne: Education Foundation.
- Blumenfeld, P. C., Soloway, E., Marx, R. W., Krajcik, J. S., Guzdial, M., & Palincsar, A. (1991). Motivating project-based learning: Sustaining the doing, supporting the learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 26(3), 369-398.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bullock, K., & Muschamp, Y. (2006). Learning about learning in the primary school. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 36(1), 49-62.
- Chi, M. T. (2009). Active-constructive-interactive: A conceptual framework for differentiating learning activities. *Topics in Cognitive Science*, 1(1), 73-105.
- Clark, R. E. (2009). How much and what type of guidance is optimal for learning from instruction? In S. Tobias & T. M. Duffy (Eds.), *Constructivist theory applied to instruction: Success of failure?* (pp. 158-183). New York: Routledge, Taylor and Francis.
- Clayton, M. J. (1997). Delphi: a technique to harness expert opinion for critical decision-making tasks in education. *Educational Psychology*, 17(4), 373-386.
- Cronbach, L. J., & Snow, R. E. (1977). *Aptitudes and instructional methods: A handbook for research on interactions*. New York: Irvington.
- Cukurova, M., & Bennett, J. (2014). *An investigation of the effects of a novel teaching approach on students' learning of chemical ideas*. Paper presented at the ESERA 2013 Conference: Science Education Research For Evidence-based Teaching and Coherence in Learning, Nicosia, Cyprus.

- Darmofal, D. L., Soderholm, D. H., & Brodeur, D. R. (2002). *Using concept maps and concept questions to enhance conceptual understanding*. Paper presented at the American Society for Engineering Education Annual Conference & Exposition, Montreal.
- Davies, R. S., Dean, D., & Ball, N. (2013). Flipping the classroom and instructional technology integration in a college-level information systems spreadsheet course. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 61*(4), 563-580.
- Dean, D., & Kuhn, D. (2007). Direct instruction vs. discovery: The long view. *Science Education, 91*(3), 384-397.
- Evans, G. (1991). *Learning and teaching cognitive skills*. Sydney: Australian Council for Education.
- Fender, J. G., & Crowley, K. (2007). How parent explanation changes what children learn from everyday scientific thinking. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 28*, 189-210.
- Finkelstein, N., Hanson, T., Huang, C., Hirschman, B., & Huang, M. (2010). *Effects of problem-based economics on high school economics instruction*. Retrieved from Washington, DC:
- Fulton, K. P. (2012). 10 reasons to flip. *Phi Delta Kappan, 94*(2), 20-24.
- Gabel, D. L. (1994). *Handbook of research on science teaching and learning*. New York: MacMillan.
- Gabel, D. L. (1998). The complexity of chemistry and its implications for teaching. In B. J. Fraser & K. G. Tobin (Eds.), *International handbook of science education* (pp. 223-248). London: Kluwer.
- Geary, D. C. (2008). Whither evolutionary educational psychology? *Educational Psychologist, 43*(4), 217-226.
- Geier, R., Blumenfeld, P. C., Marx, R. W., Krajcik, J. S., Soloway, E., & Clay-Chambers, J. (2008). Standardized test outcomes for students engaged in inquiry-based curricula in the context of urban reform. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 45*(8), 922-939.
- Gorman, M. (1998). The 'structured enquiry' is not a contradiction in terms: Focused teaching for independent learning. *Teaching History, 92*, 20-25.
- Harrison, A. G., & Treagust, D. F. (2000). A typology of school science models. *International Journal of Science Education, 22*(9), 1011-1026.
- Heckman, R., & Annabi, H. (2005). A content analytic comparison of learning processes in online and face-to-face case study discussions. *Journal of Computer-mediated Communication, 10*(2), 71-87.
- Hodson, D. (1990). A critical look at practical work in school science. *School Science Review, 71*(256), 12-21.
- Hodson, D. (1991). Practical work in science: Time for a reappraisal. *Studies in Science Education, 19*, 175-184.
- Hodson, D. (1993). Re-thinking old ways: Towards a more critical approach to practical work in school science. *Studies in Science Education, 22*, 85-142.
- Kelly, O. C., & Finlayson, O. E. (2007). Providing solutions through problem-based learning for the undergraduate 1st year chemistry laboratory. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice, 8*(3), 347-361.
- Kesten, C. (1987). *Independent Learning: A common essential learning*. Retrieved from Regina:
- Kirschner, P. A., Sweller, J., & Clark, R. E. (2006). Why minimal guidance during instruction does not work: An analysis of the failure of constructivist, discovery, problem-based, experiential, and inquiry-based teaching. *Educational Psychologist, 41*(2), 75-86.
- Klahr, D., & Nigam, M. (2004). The equivalence of learning paths in early science instruction: Effects of direct instruction and discovery learning. *Psychological Science, 15*(10), 861-887.
- Kortland, J. (1992). Environmental education: Sustainable development and decision making. In R. E. Yager (Ed.), *The status of STS reform efforts around the world* (pp. 32-39). Knapp Hill: International Council of Associations for Science Education Press.

- Laurillard, D. (2013). *Rethinking university teaching: A conversational framework for the effective use of learning technologies* (2 ed.). London: Routledge.
- Mayer, R. E. (2004). Should there be a three-strikes rule against pure discovery learning? The case for guided methods of instruction. *American Psychologist*, 59(4), 14-19.
- Mayer, R. E. (2008). *Learning and instruction*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Merill, M. D. (2002). First principles of instruction. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 50(3), 43-59.
- Meyer, B., Haywood, N., Sachdey, D., & Faraday, S. (2008). *Independent learning: Literature review*. Retrieved from London:
- Minner, D., Levy, A. J., & Century, J. (2010). inquiry-based science instruction-what is it and does it matter? Results from a research synthesis years 1984 to 2002. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 47(4), 474-496.
- Mok, M. M. C., & Chen, Y. C. (2001). A theory of self-learning in a networked human an IT environment: Implications for education reforms. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(4), 172-186.
- Nelson, P. (2002). Teaching chemistry progressively: From substances to atoms and molecules, to electrons and nuclei. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*, 3(2), 215-228.
- Pea, R. (2004). The social and technological dimensions of scaffolding and related theoretical concepts for learning, education and human activity. *Jopurnal of the Learning Sciences*, 13(3), 423-451.
- Peterson, R. F., Treagust, D. F., & Garnett, P. (1989). Development and application of a diagnostic instrument to evaluate grade 11 and 12 students' concepts of covalent bonding and structure following a course of instruction. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 26(4), 301-314.
- Rappolt-Schlichtmann, G., Tenenbaum, H. R., Koepke, M. F., & Fischer, K. W. (2007). Transient and robust knowledge: Contextual support and the dynamics of children's reasoning about density. *Mind, Brain, and Education*, 1(2), 98-108.
- Ribeiro, G. T. (1992). *Entropy and the second principle of thermodynamics - Fourth year undergraduates' ideas*. Retrieved from London:
- Ribeiro, G. T., Periera, D. J., & Maskill, R. (1990). Reaction and spontaneity: The influence of meaning from everyday language on forth year undergraduates' interpretations of some simple chemical phenomena. *International Journal of Science Education*, 12(4), 391-401.
- Salomon, G. (2004). *Interaction of media, cognition and learning*. Hillside, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Seery, M. K. (2012). Moving an in-class module online: A case study for chemistry. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*, 13(1), 39-46.
- Strand-Cary, M., & Klahr, D. (2008). Developing elementary science skills: Instructional effectiveness and path independence. *Cognitive Development*, 23, 488-511.
- Swaak, J., de Jong, T., & van Joolingen, W. (2004). The effects of discovery learning and expository instruction on the acquisition of definitional and intuitive knowledge. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 20, 225-234.
- Sweller, J., Kirschner, P. A., & Clark, R. E. (2007). Why minimally guided teaching techniques do not work: A reply to commentaries. *Educational Psychologist*, 42(2), 115-121.
- Taber, K. (1994). Misunderstanding the ionic bond. *Education in Chemistry*, 31(2), 100-103.
- Taber, K. (1995). Development of student understanding: A case study of stability and lability in cognitive structure. *Research in Science & Technological Education*, 13(1), 87-97.
- Taber, K. (2011). Constructivism in education: Contingency in learning, and optimally guided instruction. In J. Hassaskhah (Ed.), *Educational Theory* (pp. 39-61). Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers Inc.

- Tan, O. S. (2004). Students' experiences in problem-based learning: Three blind mice episode or educational innovation? *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 41, 169-184.
- Tirosh, D., & Stavy, R. (1999). Intuitive rules: A way to explain and predict students' reasoning. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 36(1-3), 51-66.
- Tobias, S. (1982). When do instructional methods make a difference? *Educational Researcher*, 11(4), 4-9.
- Tobias, S., & Duffy, T. M. (2009). *Constructivist instruction: Success or failure?* New York: Routledge.
- Watson, R., Prieto, T., & Dillon, J. S. (1995). The effect of practical work on students' understanding of combustion. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32(487-502).
- Watson, R., Prieto, T., & Dillon, J. S. (1997). Consistency of students' explanations about combustion. *Science Education*, 81(4), 425-443.
- Weston, C., & Cranton, P. A. (1986). Selecting instructional strategies. *Journal of Higher Education*, 57(3), 259-288.
- Williams, J. (2003). *Promoting independent learning in the primary classroom*. Buckingham: OUP.

List of Tables

Table 1 Final Coding Scheme	9
Table 2 Overall Results of the Diagnostic Questions	10

List of Figures

Figure 1 A general description of the empirical study.....	7
Figure 2 Learning model used in the study.....	16