

1-2018

Development of Scientific Thinking Facilitated by Reflective Self-Assessment in a Communication-Intensive Food Science and Human Nutrition Course

Suzanne Hendrich

Iowa State University, shendric@iastate.edu

Barbara Licklider

Iowa State University, blicklid@iastate.edu

Katherine Thompson

Iowa State University

Janette Thompson

Iowa State University, jrtr@iastate.edu

Cindy Haynes

Iowa State University, chaynes@iastate.edu

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://lib.dr.iastate.edu/nrem_pubs



Part of the [Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons](#), [Educational Methods Commons](#), [Food Science Commons](#), and the [Science and Mathematics Education Commons](#)

The complete bibliographic information for this item can be found at https://lib.dr.iastate.edu/nrem_pubs/381. For information on how to cite this item, please visit <http://lib.dr.iastate.edu/howtocite.html>.

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Natural Resource Ecology and Management at Iowa State University Digital Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Natural Resource Ecology and Management Publications by an authorized administrator of Iowa State University Digital Repository. For more information, please contact digirep@iastate.edu.

Development of Scientific Thinking Facilitated by Reflective Self-Assessment in a Communication-Intensive Food Science and Human Nutrition Course

Abstract

A one-credit seminar on controversies in food science and human nutrition was a platform to introduce students to learning frameworks for thinking-like-a-scientist. We hypothesized that explicitly engaging students in thinking about their thinking abilities within these frameworks would enhance their self-perception of scientific thinking, an important general ability for food scientists. Our objectives were to assess thinking-like-a-scientist using a student self-assessment survey, and analyze their self-reflections for evidence of such thinking. For students enrolled in one of the offerings of this course among five semesters from 2012-2014, differences in scores on a survey instrument for thinking-like-a-scientist from the beginning to the end of the course showed gains in self-assessed abilities (N = 21-22 students/semester). In each of the first 2 semesters in which we introduced thinking-like-a-scientist frameworks, students thought they were better at defining problems scientifically by 13-14%. In the third course offering, students' self-assessment of their abilities to seek evidence improved by 10%. In the fourth and fifth semester course offerings, students' self-assessed abilities to develop plans based on evidence improved by 7-14%. At the end of each semester, students' self-reflections on scientific thinking (N = 20-24/semester) included specific reference to asking questions (45-65% of reflections) and making plans based on evidence (26-50% of reflections). These data support the usefulness of self-reflection tools as well as specific learning frameworks to help students to think about and practice thinking-like-a-scientist.

Keywords

scientific thinking, assessment, reflection, survey, pedagogy

Disciplines

Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research | Educational Methods | Food Science | Science and Mathematics Education

Comments

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Hendrich, Suzanne, Barbara Licklider, Katherine Thompson, Janette Thompson, Cynthia Haynes, and Jan Wiersema. "Development of Scientific Thinking Facilitated by Reflective Self-Assessment in a Communication-Intensive Food Science and Human Nutrition Course." *Journal of Food Science Education* 17, no. 1 (2018): 8-13, which has been published in final form at doi:[10.1111/1541-4329.12127](https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4329.12127). This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions.

Authors

Suzanne Hendrich, Barbara Licklider, Katherine Thompson, Janette Thompson, Cindy Haynes, and Jan Wiersema

1 Development of scientific thinking facilitated by reflective self-assessment in a communication-
2 intensive food science and human nutrition course.

3
4 Suzanne Hendrich^{1*}, Barbara Licklider², Katherine Thompson², Janette Thompson³, Cynthia Haynes⁴,
5 Jan Wiersema²

6 Iowa State University

7 Ames, IA 50011

8 ¹Food Science and Human Nutrition

9 ²School of Education

10 ³Natural Resource Ecology and Management

11 ⁴Horticulture

12 *Corresponding author: 220 MacKay, 2302 Osborn Dr., Iowa State University, Ames IA 50011-1078

13 515-294-4272, shendric@iastate.edu. None of the authors has a conflict of interest related to this
14 publication.

15
16 Scientific thinking and self reflection (Research)

17
18 Abstract

19 A one-credit seminar on controversies in food science and human nutrition was a platform to
20 introduce students to learning frameworks for thinking-like-a-scientist. We hypothesized that
21 explicitly engaging students in thinking about their thinking abilities within these frameworks would
22 enhance their self-perception of scientific thinking, an important general ability for food scientists.
23 Our objectives were to assess thinking-like-a-scientist using a student self-assessment survey, and
24 analyze their self-reflections for evidence of such thinking. For students enrolled in one of the

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as [doi: 10.1111/1541-4329.12127](https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4329.12127).

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

25 offerings of this course among five semesters from 2012-2014, differences in scores on a survey
26 instrument for thinking-like-a-scientist from the beginning to the end of the course showed gains in
27 self-assessed abilities (N = 21-22 students/semester). In each of the first 2 semesters in which we
28 introduced thinking-like-a-scientist frameworks, students thought they were better at defining
29 problems scientifically by 13-14%. In the third course offering, students' self-assessment of their
30 abilities to seek evidence improved by 10%. In the fourth and fifth semester course offerings,
31 students' self-assessed abilities to develop plans based on evidence improved by 7-14%. At the end
32 of each semester, students' self-reflections on scientific thinking (N = 20-24/semester) included
33 specific reference to asking questions (45-65% of reflections) and making plans based on evidence
34 (26-50% of reflections). These data support the usefulness of self-reflection tools as well as specific
35 learning frameworks to help students to think about and practice thinking-like-a-scientist.

36
37 Key words: scientific thinking, assessment, reflection, survey, pedagogy

38 Introduction

39
40 A core ability for food science professionals is the ability to communicate scientific information to
41 clients, including other scientists, managers, and the public. Underlying the ability to communicate
42 scientific information is the ability to think like a scientist. Thinking-like-a-scientist is a process in
43 which we: 1) ask questions, 2) define a problem scientifically, 3) seek evidence, 4) make decisions
44 based on evidence, 5) consider implications and applications of decisions, and 6) revise and reflect
45 (Williams and others 2004). Food science professionals need to ask questions, seek evidence, plan
46 thoughtfully, and interpret, reflect and revise constantly.

47
48 This approach to thinking is a key standard of professionalism that food science educators must help
49 students achieve and value as an enduring habit for food scientists. Food science students

50 participate in laboratories in which they record observations, apply trial and error, apply critical
51 thinking and use credible sources of information. In food science professions, performing and
52 analyzing experiments, collecting and evaluating quality assurance data and determining evidence-
53 based approaches to food manufacturing problems are a few examples of the abilities to think-like-
54 a-scientist.

55
56 Defining scientific thinking and best practices for scientists, while crucial, is not easy. Babbie
57 articulated a key issue as he observed that objectivity and reality are only approximated by human
58 agreement, i.e., intersubjectivity. Human agreement about reality can be supported by careful
59 measurements using reliable and valid devices insofar as possible, and by processes of rigorous peer
60 review (Babbie 2005). Scientism, a belief that discovering and using facts is a preferred approach to
61 resolving controversy, continues to be central to decision-making, even though facts are often in
62 dispute and political sides may ignore inconvenient aspects of existing data (Kleinman 2009). A belief
63 in technological progress, the superior ability of new approaches to gathering information and
64 interpreting the world in decision-making is also taken for granted (Kleinman 2009). We contend
65 that it is crucial for scientists to practice science rather than express a belief in the value of science
66 and technological progress. Social constructionism (Burr 2015) is a necessary perspective that
67 scientists need to include in their practices while seeking reliable information.

68
69 The process of educating students is inherently social. We need to be vigilant not to take “truth” or
70 observed reality for granted. We need to help students appreciate that. Social constructionism
71 reminds us always to remain skeptical and critical. Food scientists need to take differing perspectives
72 on science into account as they navigate careers in which they will always encounter controversial
73 issues. New scientific data are always emerging and new technologies developing. Society must

74 weigh carefully social costs and benefits. Thinking-like-a-scientist offers a framework that may help
75 us confront and manage an always-changing world.

76

77 The co-authors of this paper were informed by a thinking-like-a-scientist construct (Williams and
78 others 2004). Scholars of critical thinking also informed this work. Brookfield (1987) describes a
79 process of questioning assumptions, researching and seeking multiple perspectives on those
80 assumptions, and making decisions based on the assembled evidence and perspectives (Brookfield
81 1987). The process of reflective judgment was also considered, in which reflective thinkers use
82 evidence and reason to support their judgment (King and Kitchener 2004). We tried to apply
83 thinking-like-a-scientist authentically to a range of everyday problems. We wanted to make thinking-
84 like-a-scientist even more accessible to students who do not necessarily see themselves as scientists.
85 Often students seem to think of scientific thinking as what occurs in their laboratory courses or in
86 the research laboratories of their professors, rather than as something that has value in everyday life
87 when transferred into any decision making/problem solving context. Through a series of discussions
88 of our thought processes in approaching everyday problems, we created a thinking-like-a-scientist
89 construct modified from Williams and others (2004) that includes a 4-step process in which we:

- 90 1) ask questions about what is going on around us,
- 91 2) gather evidence to try to explain situations/problems,
- 92 3) develop plans based on evidence and reasoning to address situations/problems,
- 93 4) interpret how our plans worked.

94 This four-step process alludes to the scientific method (McPherson 2001). Asking questions and
95 gathering evidence imply a process of formulating and testing hypotheses (proposing possible
96 explanations for an observation, designing, conducting and analyzing hypothesis-testing
97 experiments). We might well assess students' learning of scientific method in a communication
98 course based on assessing their selection and summarization of papers on hypothesis-testing

99 experiments, which was not explicitly required in the communication course that this study focused
100 on. Beyond scientific method, developing abilities not only to conduct experiments but also to act
101 based on evidence and ongoing reflection more completely encompasses what our students need to
102 be able to do as professionals and citizens.

103

104 We hypothesized that explicitly engaging students in thinking about their thinking abilities within
105 these frameworks would enhance their self-perception of scientific thinking, an important general
106 ability for food scientists. The objectives of this study to improve scientific thinking skills were to
107 assess student progress in such thinking skills through evaluating 1) periodic, structured self-
108 reflection assignments and 2) student self-assessment surveys. This paper reports results of self-
109 assessment data for five semesters (spring of 2012 through spring of 2014) during which we
110 employed these approaches with different groups of students. These results confirm our hypothesis
111 and qualitatively validate the use of a four-element construct of scientific thinking. This paper gives
112 insight as to how other food science educators might incorporate educational activities that
113 intentionally focus on scientific thinking into their own curricula.

114

115 Methods

116

117 Course and experimental design

118

119 Food Science and Human Nutrition (FSHN) 203 - Contemporary Issues in Food Science and Human
120 Nutrition - is a one-credit sophomore seminar offered face-to-face one hour per week each
121 semester. In this course, students learn to think scientifically and communicate about current issues
122 in food science, culinary science, nutritional sciences and dietetics. They must consider the quality of
123 claims made in the popular press about current issues, and evaluate the reliability of sources and

124 ethical aspects of these issues. Course learning outcomes include: 1) Show awareness of the breadth
125 of current research in food science, culinary science, nutrition, and dietetics; 2) Identify and discuss
126 with faculty and with peers the significance of current issues in food science, nutrition, and dietetics;
127 3) Find and identify reputable and relevant sources of information about current issues in food
128 science, nutrition, and dietetics; 4) Summarize technical information for peers in oral and written
129 reports; 5) Relate professional codes of ethics to current issues in food science, nutrition, and
130 dietetics; 6) Define, assess and plan self-development of professional abilities, focused on scientific
131 thinking. The course culminates in students choosing a primary scientific journal paper (research
132 article) and a review paper on one topic, presenting an oral summary of their chosen papers and
133 preparing a written summary of the chosen papers as well. In each of the five semesters from spring
134 2012 through spring 2014, students in FSHN 203 were all FSHN majors (food science, culinary food
135 science, nutritional sciences, dietetics); enrollments each semester were 27 (spring 2012, 2013, fall
136 2013), 24 (fall 2012), and 28 (spring 2014). Students completed quantitative and qualitative self-
137 assessments of their scientific thinking at the beginning and end of the course. They also wrote a
138 series of three scientific thinking reflections at weeks 1, 8 and 15 of the 16 week-long semester. In
139 their end-of-semester reflection, students responded to this assignment: "Summarize your efforts
140 this semester in working on your scientific thinking. Reflect about what and how you learned about
141 scientific thinking in doing your final project for FSHN 203. Revisit the scientific thinking self-
142 assessments provided in the Scientific Thinking Reflections folder in Blackboard; use these to guide
143 your thinking. Give specific examples of situations in which you have practiced scientific thinking,
144 and situations in which you might further improve your scientific thinking. How will you use scientific
145 thinking in your profession? How will you continue to work on scientific thinking? How did your
146 plans to work on scientific thinking progress; what will you emphasize for a next step and why?"
147

148 During spring semester 2013, we added assignments to engage students directly in assessing the
149 quality of statements they made when asked to summarize one other student's presentation of a
150 scientific paper (see Supplemental Materials, "Making Meaning" and "Summarizing Others' Final
151 Presentations" worksheets). In fall 2013 and spring 2014, we introduced students to a "question the
152 author" framework, loosely based on the work of (Beck and McKeown 1996) to focus more on
153 developing their abilities to ask questions. We conceived this as a general framework to apply to
154 their academic work and to the preparation of their scientific paper presentations. We had them use
155 this framework to summarize one other student's oral presentation in spring 2014 (see
156 Supplemental Materials, "Question the Author").

157

158 The Iowa State University Institutional Review Board determined that this research was exempt from
159 review. We collected all student self-assessment results anonymously and we deleted potentially
160 identifying comments from example reflections (Table 4).

161

162 Scientific thinking self-assessment instruments

163

164 A primary goal of the course was to help students accurately summarize reliable scientific
165 literature, but prior experience indicated that students struggled with this. We developed
166 self-assessment instruments to deepen student engagement in the thinking needed for their
167 scientific paper summaries. We collected their pre- and post-course self-assessment responses to
168 two versions of a thinking-like-a-scientist construct instrument. We measured their responses using
169 1) Likert scales (Tables 1, 2) and 2) word counts.

170

171 The first instrument we developed used a thinking-like-a-scientist construct of six elements/items
172 directly derived from Williams and others (2004), using a six-point Likert scale from 1 = "strongly

173 disagree” to 6 = “strongly agree” (see Supplemental Materials). We provided space for students to
174 write reasons for their self-ratings. We used this instrument in spring 2012, fall 2012 and spring
175 2013. In addition to quantitative comparison of pre- and post- course scores, we also compared
176 word counts of the narratives students provided for their self-ratings on pre- and post-course items
177 for spring 2013. After our team developed a four-element thinking-like-a-scientist construct, in fall
178 2013 and spring 2014, a four-element self-assessment was used that included a five-point Likert
179 scale (1= never to 5=always) and space to give reasons for self-ratings (see Supplemental Materials).
180 We also analyzed word counts for students’ reasons for self-ratings for those two semesters.

181

182 A cross-disciplinary team of four faculty members from the fields of educational leadership, forestry,
183 horticulture and nutrition, and a graduate research assistant in educational leadership developed
184 the four-element construct of thinking-like-a-scientist. The team had a goal of creating a simple self-
185 assessment instrument readily understood by any student. This self-assessment also allowed us to
186 assess student progress in developing their abilities to think like scientists before and after they
187 were engaged in learning activities related to this construct. The team reviewed literature about
188 scientific thinking and related concepts, which included thinking-like-a-scientist (Williams and others
189 2004), scientific thinking (Gauch 2003), critical thinking (Brookfield 1987), and problem solving (Reed
190 2000). The team then compared these constructs to identify common elements, expressed as a
191 simple acronym: REDI (Recognize, Explain, Do, Interpret). The team wrote, edited and reviewed this
192 four-element self-assessment (see Supplemental Materials).

193

194 Other scientific thinking assessments analyzed

195

196 In fall 2013, we evaluated student responses to a scientific thinking scenario as an additional
197 assessment instrument. This was presented to them at the beginning and end of the semester: “You

198 are a Peace Corps worker in Kamuli District, Uganda, given the goal of helping a community improve
199 the school lunch, currently a white corn porridge providing ~20% of the children's daily energy and
200 protein requirements. Each family provides their children's share of the corn meal for the porridge
201 but not all families can afford to. Outline how you would approach solving this problem." We chose
202 an unfamiliar scenario on a topic not directly addressed during the course. The scenario also related
203 to their fields of study because a food scientist may be involved in creating the food, a dietitian may
204 evaluate a diet and a nutrition scientist may determine impact on the community.

205
206 Increased ability to think like a scientist seemingly requires increased cognitive complexity, so word
207 count may also reflect gains in this ability. Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count software (LIWC 2015;
208 Pennebaker Conglomerates Inc., Austin, TX) , a well-known tool for textual analysis, was used here
209 to assess word count and relative numbers of words expressed that were associated with specific
210 cognitive processes (insight, causation, discrepancy, tentativeness, certainty and differentiation). We
211 compared these items for students' responses at the beginning and end of the semester. We think
212 that the use of words in these categories correspond with aspects of scientific thinking. For example,
213 a student expressing insight is indicating an ability to observe. Someone expressing causation-
214 related words may be attempting to explain an observation. Words describing discernment of
215 differences or tentativeness suggest that self-reflective and interpretive thinking is occurring. We
216 also noted examples in their scenario responses that corresponded with one or more elements of
217 the thinking-like-a-scientist construct that they had worked with.

218
219 As another assessment of student learning of scientific thinking, in each of five semesters of FSHN
220 203 (spring 2012, fall 2012, spring 2013, fall 2013, spring 2014), we analyzed students' end-of-
221 semester scientific thinking reflections for the presence of elements of the thinking-like-a-scientist
222 construct. One observer (Hendrich) recorded how many reflections contained these phrases or their

223 synonyms in appropriate context: asked questions, defined problems scientifically, looked for or
224 explained evidence, decided or made plans based on evidence, considered implications of decisions
225 or plans, and revised/reflected/interpreted.

226

227 Statistical analysis

228

229 We compared Likert-scale scores on the thinking-like-a-scientist self-assessments completed at the
230 beginning and at the end of each of the five semesters, as well as word counts of students' evidence
231 for their ratings within these self-assessments by Student's t-tests (Denenberg 1976). We used
232 paired Student's t-tests (Denenberg 1976) to compare LIWC data for students' written responses to
233 a scientific thinking scenario at the beginning and end of fall 2013. We considered differences
234 significant at $p < 0.05$.

235

236 Results and Discussion

237

238 Pre and post survey 1. Comparing post- with pre- surveys using a six-element scientific thinking self-
239 assessment (Table 1), in spring 2012, students noted significantly stronger agreement with the
240 statement "I continually revise and reflect." In fall 2012, students reported that they more strongly
241 agreed with the statement "I define problems scientifically" but their level of agreement with the
242 statement "I ask questions" declined significantly. In the 3rd semester of this effort to bring scientific
243 thinking explicitly into this course (spring 2013), students reported significantly more agreement
244 with the statement "I seek evidence". Additional assignments ("Making Meaning" and "Summarizing
245 Others' Final Presentations", see Methods and Supplemental Materials) might have influenced their
246 emphasis on this aspect of the thinking-like-a-scientist construct. Students generally at least
247 somewhat agreed or agreed with all of the statements regarding their ability to think like scientists,

248 corresponding with a score of four or five on the six-point Likert scale. In the semester in which
249 students' self-assessment of their questioning ability declined from beginning to end of semester,
250 they began with a mean score indicating that they agreed with the statement "I ask questions." It
251 may be that they became more thoughtful and realistic about their questioning as the semester
252 concluded.

253
254 Pre and post survey 2. From the four-element REDI scientific thinking self-assessment done in fall
255 2013 and spring 2014, in both semesters students significantly increased their assessment of how
256 frequently they developed "plans based on evidence and reasoning to address situations or
257 problems", when pre- and post-assessments were compared (Table 2). In fall 2013, they also more
258 frequently noted that they interpreted how their plans worked on their post- assessment compared
259 with the pre- assessment. In spring 2014, students tended to rate themselves on the post-
260 assessment as more frequently asking questions than on the pre- assessment ($p < 0.10$). In spring
261 2014, the use of a "Question the author" framework (see Methods and Supplemental Materials)
262 seemed to raise their awareness of questioning to some extent.

263
264 Across the two surveys, the second format may be somewhat more robust, with a greater
265 proportion of survey questions showing significant pre- to post-semester changes indicating greater
266 sense of self-efficacy in thinking-like-a-scientist, consistently in the area of developing plans based
267 on evidence (Table 2). In the first version of the survey, making decisions based on evidence did not
268 emerge as an element of thinking that students thought they had developed (Table 1). This
269 difference in the students' response to the surveys illustrates the challenge of assessing student
270 thinking. Gains in self-reflection may result in diminished positive self-rating or in nuances of
271 development not readily reflected in a five- or six-point scale. We employed additional methods to
272 capture our picture of student learning more fully.

273

274 Word counts. Word-count analysis of students' evidence for their self-assessment ratings of thinking
275 like a scientist in spring 2013 showed significant increases ($p < 0.05$) in the areas of defining
276 problems scientifically (pre 20 ± 11 , post 25 ± 11 ; means \pm standard deviations), and making
277 decisions based on evidence (pre 20 ± 11 , post 26 ± 12). Word count showed a trend to increase (p
278 < 0.08) for seeking evidence (pre 20 ± 9 , post 25 ± 11). In Fall 2013, using a four-element self-
279 assessment, word counts in the area of gathering information and trying to explain
280 situations/problems increased from pre- to post-course assessment (22 ± 11 vs. 30 ± 15 , $p < 0.05$). In
281 spring 2014, word count trended toward increase ($p < 0.08$) for the aspect of asking questions (pre,
282 25 ± 12 , post, 31 ± 12). From pre- to post- assessment, word counts increased (but not significantly)
283 for student explanations of their self-ratings for all elements, suggesting an increased familiarity with
284 the constructs of scientific thinking used in this course. We may infer from the increased word
285 counts that students were better at providing evidence for their claimed self-ratings in these areas,
286 also indicating that the course enhanced their abilities to think scientifically. We explicitly
287 emphasized the elements of "seeking evidence" and "gathering information..." (six-element and
288 four-element assessment instruments, respectively) in the course. We required students to find
289 scientific papers on a topic of their choice. This emphasis influenced self-assessment word count
290 consistently. The word-count metric was an additional source of supporting evidence that students
291 were effectively engaged in scientific thinking.

292

293 Total word counts may indicate gains in cognitive complexity, according to a review of applications
294 of LIWC, a common approach to computerized textual analysis (Tausczik and Pennebaker 2010). In
295 another example, analysis of medical student reflections showed that increased total word count
296 was associated with higher reflection scores that indicated greater depth of reflection (Ottenberg
297 and others 2016). Our LIWC analysis of student responses to a scientific thinking scenario in fall 2013

298 showed significantly increased total word count from beginning to end of semester, 40 ± 14 vs. $63 \pm$
299 21 words (means \pm standard deviations; $p = 0.00003$). Students showed no beginning to end-of-
300 semester differences in overall use of cognitive processing words, in words related to causation,
301 discrepancies, tentativeness or certainty, but used relatively more words indicating greater insight at
302 the end of the semester than at the beginning (2 ± 3 vs 0.8 ± 1.4 , $p < 0.038$). They used relatively
303 fewer differentiation words at the end of the semester than at the beginning in their scenario
304 responses (4.4 ± 2.1 vs. 6.3 ± 3.6 ; $p < 0.026$). Overall word count increases in student scenario
305 responses suggests a gain in thinking abilities. The greater use of words associated with insight also
306 suggests such gains, but one might also expect greater rather than less use of differentiation words
307 to accompany gains in scientific thinking. In a critical thinking course, LIWC analysis of students'
308 thinking about a topic unrelated to course content showed a significant increase in students' use of
309 words connoting certainty and decrease in words connoting tentativeness, suggesting to the author
310 gains in students' clarity of thinking (Carroll 2007). While analogous thought processes may be
311 occurring in students thinking like scientists and in students thinking critically, we did not see
312 concordance between our study and Carroll's in longitudinal changes in student thinking according
313 to LIWC cognitive word categories. Nevertheless, LIWC analysis indicated changes in students' word
314 use in both course contexts, suggesting that this software might be useful in assessing gains in
315 students' thinking abilities.

316

317 Both the six- and four-element scientific thinking self-assessment instruments may be useful tools
318 for engaging students in thinking about scientific thinking. But it is of interest that student
319 reflections, whether students had performed self-assessment with either instrument (see
320 Supplemental Materials), more frequently included reference to the components mapping onto the
321 four-element scientific thinking self-assessment. This supports the intuitive validity of the four-
322 element REDI scientific thinking construct. Perhaps assignments directed at helping the students to

323 develop a specific aspect of this construct, especially reiterative assignments, might facilitate the
324 students' self-perception of gains in these abilities. The course has consistently offered students
325 multiple opportunities to ask questions, with time for their questions after each student's oral
326 presentation of a scientific paper (> 20 such presentations each semester), but question time is
327 limited. Each semester, students were also guided in the course syllabus and in limited practice
328 during class time in framing questions using Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom 1956): questions of
329 clarification, translation, application, analysis, synthesis or evaluation. In the context of a one-credit
330 course, opportunities to further enhance accountability for learning are somewhat limited. More
331 formal accountability for asking questions, such as being required to write down a question on each
332 presentation evaluation form and naming the taxonomic level of the question (with quality of
333 assignment being assessed according to their successful completion of this task) might further
334 improve student achievement of this aspect of scientific thinking.

335

336 Scenario results. The use of a scientific thinking scenario (See Methods) as an additional assessment
337 of student progress in the quality of their thinking showed an increase from 54 ± 19 to 72 ± 24 words
338 (mean \pm standard deviation; $p < 0.05$). This suggests that students were able to think somewhat
339 more specifically about the scenario problem at the end of the course than at the beginning. The
340 nature of the scenario chosen as a more direct assessment of scientific thinking may be important to
341 investigate further. It may be that a problem scenario that is more likely to be part of their everyday
342 life might further facilitate students' use of scientific thinking, but it is also possible that everyday
343 situations that they had not thought of as being amenable to scientific thinking might yield even
344 more disparity in their ability to respond with scientific thinking. We intend to work more on helping
345 students see the need for and gain effective practice in transferability of thinking like a scientist.

346

347 Analysis of scientific thinking reflections. Qualitative analysis of students' scientific thinking
348 reflections revealed that nearly all students were able to name, describe, and provide evidence for
349 their practice of at least one element of the scientific thinking construct that they used in the course
350 (Table 3). Although mean word counts for these reflections did not differ significantly among
351 semesters, (Table 3) there was a trend in later semesters toward a greater percentage of students
352 noting in their reflections that they asked questions. In those semesters, we incorporated additional
353 in-class activities based on asking questions (see Supplemental Materials for activities on Making
354 Meaning, summarizing and questioning). In their reflections, most students provided examples of
355 more than one element within the scientific thinking construct that they worked with. In many
356 cases, students applied their scientific thinking to other courses and to their life experiences. We
357 provided pertinent examples (Table 4). Providing guided self-reflective experiences is a powerful tool
358 for students' intellectual development. In addition to guiding questions, students were given
359 suggestions for the length of writing (250 words), which they exceeded on average (Table 3). Student
360 saw the opportunity to self-reflect positively as they elaborated specific examples as evidence of
361 their self-perceptions (Table 4). They often provided substantiation for their strengths as well as
362 their areas of challenge in scientific thinking.

363 Conclusions

364

365 Introducing students to simple constructs of scientific thinking and providing practice in the
366 elements of such constructs may enhance student self-perception and depth of self-reflection about
367 such thinking. Seeing scientific thinking as useful and seeing oneself as capable of this kind of
368 thinking will provide a stronger foundation for student achievement in food science and human
369 nutrition. As one student expressed, "Being a Food Science Major, scientific thinking will be a big
370 part in my major. Dealing directly with experiments or even addressing problems that arise in the

371 manufacturing companies. This step by step and open thinking will allow me to succeed in my career
 372 field.”

373 Table 1. Thinking-Like-a-Scientist self-assessment version 1 pre- and post-course survey scores

374 increased after a one-semester course that engaged students in a scientific thinking process.

Survey item	Spring 2012-pre (N = 21)	Spring 2012-post (N = 21)	Fall 2012-pre (N = 22)	Fall 2012-post (N = 22)	Spring 2013-pre (N = 21)	Spring 2013-post (N = 21)
I ask questions.	4.2 ± 1.2	4.4 ± 1.3	5.0 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 0.9^b	4.6 ± 0.8	4.8 ± 0.9
I define problems scientifically.	4.0 ± 1.0	4.3 ± 0.7	4.2 ± 0.9	4.8 ± 0.8^a	4.0 ± 1.1	4.3 ± 0.7
I seek evidence.	4.9 ± 0.7	4.9 ± 0.9	5.0 ± 0.7	5.0 ± 0.8	4.7 ± 0.6	5.2 ± 0.7^a
I make decisions based on evidence.	5.0 ± 0.7	4.9 ± 0.7	4.7 ± 0.9	5.0 ± 0.8	4.9 ± 0.6	5.0 ± 0.8
I consider implications and applications of decisions.	4.5 ± 1.1	4.6 ± 0.8	4.9 ± 1.0	5.0 ± 1.0	4.5 ± 0.9	4.7 ± 0.7
I continually revise and reflect.	4.1 ± 1.0	4.8 ± 0.6^a	4.5 ± 1.1	4.7 ± 1.2	4.7 ± 1.0	4.5 ± 1.2

375 ^aDenotes statistically significant increase from pre- to **post**-semester self-assessment, p < 0.05.

376 ^bIndicates statistically significant decrease from pre- to **post** assessment within semester. Each item
 377 was assessed on a six-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree. Data are
 378 means ± standard deviations, N = total self-assessments submitted each semester.

379 Table 2. Changes in pre- post-course self-ratings using a thinking-like-a-scientist self-assessment
 380 (version 2).

Survey item	Fall 2013-pre (N = 22)	Fall 2013-post (N = 22)	Spring 2014-pre (N = 22)	Spring 2014-post (N = 22)
I ask questions about what is going on around me.	3.5 ± 0.8	3.7 ± 0.7	3.6 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 0.5
I gather information and try to explain situations or problems around me.	3.5 ± 0.9	3.8 ± 0.8	3.7 ± 0.9	3.9 ± 0.7
I develop plans based on evidence and reasoning to address situations or problems.	4.0 ± 0.6	4.3 ± 0.5^a	3.5 ± 1.1	4.0 ± 0.7^a
I interpret how my plan worked.	3.4 ± 1.0	4.1 ± 0.8^a	3.5 ± 1.1	4.0 ± 0.8

381 ^aDenotes statistically significant increase from pre- to **post**-semester self-assessment, p < 0.05.

382 Each item was assessed on a five point Likert scale from 1= never to 5 = always. Data are means ±
 383 standard deviations N = total self-assessments submitted each semester.

384 Table 3. Numbers and percentages of end-of-semester student reflections^a specifically referring to
 385 elements of scientific thinking in a course on current issues in food science and human nutrition.

	Spring 2012	Fall 2012	Spring 2013	Fall 2013	Spring 2014

Number of student reflections:	20	20	23	24	23
Mean number of words/reflection ± standard deviation:	383 ± 157	337 ± 148	410 ± 231	460 ± 170	411 ± 122
Element of scientific thinking:					
Asking questions	9 (45%)	9 (45%)	13 (57%)	15 (63%)	14 (65%)
Defining problems scientifically	1 (5%)	0 (0%)	2 (9%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)
Seeking evidence/explaining	10 (50%)	8 (40%)	6 (26%)	9 (38%)	11 (48%)
Deciding/planning based on evidence	7 (35%)	2 (10%)	10 (43%)	13 (54%)	7 (30%)
Considering implications of plans/decisions	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	2 (9%)
Revising/reflecting/interpreting	6 (30%)	7 (35%)	9 (39%)	7 (29%)	9 (43%)

386 ^aSee Methods for assignment instructions. Numbers of reflections analyzed were the totals
387 submitted each semester.

388
389 Table 4. Examples of end-of-semester student reflections specifically referring to at least one
390 element of scientific thinking in a course on current issues in food science and human nutrition.

Element of scientific thinking	Example
Asking questions	“The final project in FSHN 203 helped me to start asking questions. While listening to presentations, I made it my goal to think of a question to write down... Some of the questions I asked were better than others, but I was able to think of something for almost everyone. I was just trying to get in the habit of listening in such a way that I could come up with any sort of question. I think as I continue to work on this, my questions will be better and reflect deeper thinking.”
Defining problems scientifically	“I realized that my step by step process I used to solve everyday issues or problems was in fact a form of scientific thinking. As the semester progressed I began to become more aware and used the thinking more often. For example I am taking...Organic Chemistry...and I was having a hard time grasping all the different...circumstances that were involved in the process of different molecules. Then I realized I could set up a step by step process showing everything that occurred for the various molecules...This allowed me to ...have a better grasp on the material.”
Seeking evidence/ Explaining	“Sometimes, I would believe it without looking any further in to it. There are so many different claims out there that it is hard for someone who is not educated in the nutrition field to differentiate between what is reliable and what isn't...on my final project, I learned that more than one extensive study is needed to prove that eating any type of food will change your risks for certain diseases...much more research from other studies was needed to support the claim.”
Deciding/ planning based on evidence	“For the final presentation...I used the rubric from class to judge the validity of the research articles I presented. I also use that rubric and other tools for other classes...I am writing a paper about a controversial issue in nutrition. I used the rubric to determine the strongest sources of information for the paper. I also used the “making

	meaning” rubric to help interpret research articles and explain them in my own words for the assignment.”
Considering implications of plans/decisions	“When I enter the career world, I think this strategy will be so important when it comes to assessing diets and how health plans are working for others. It will be important to ask what they need help with, make a plan, and then assess how it is affecting them. It will be beneficial to have these...steps in the back of my mind, so I can meet the needs of my clients.”
Revising/reflecting/interpreting	“The efforts that were most successful in developing my scientific thinking were when I reflected on questions that I couldn’t figure out, so I had to resort to other methods using scientific thinking to be able to come up with a solution. I will practice scientific thinking in my profession, by coming up with new and creative ways to help my clients eat right and exercise when they have struggled with many other techniques at trying to do so.”

391

392 References

393 Babbie E. 2005. Truth, objectivity and agreement. In: O'Brien J, editor. The production of reality:
394 essays and readings on social interaction. Newbury Park, CA: Pine Forge Press. p. 36-9.
395 Beck IL, McKeown MG. 1996. Questioning the author: A yearlong classroom implementation.
396 Elementary School Journal 96(4):385.
397 Bloom BS. 1956. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: The Cognitive Domain*. New York,
398 NY: David McKay Co. Inc.
399 Brookfield S. 1987. *Developing Critical Thinking: Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of*
400 *Thinking and Acting*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
401 Burr V. 2015. What is social constructionism? In: Burr V, editor. *Social constructionism*. London, UK:
402 Routledge. p. 1-27.
403 Carroll DW. 2007. Patterns of student writing in a critical thinking course: A quantitative analysis.
404 Assessing Writing 12(3):213-27.
405 Denenberg V. 1976. *Statistics and experimental design for behavioral and biological researchers*.
406 Washington DC: Hemisphere Publ. Corp.
407 Gauch HG, Jr. 2003. *Scientific Method in Practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
408 King PM, Kitchener KS. 2004. Reflective Judgment: Theory and Research on the Development of
409 Epistemic Assumptions Through Adulthood. *Educational Psychologist* 39(1):5-18.
410 Kleinman D. 2009. Science is political/Technoscience is social. In: Kleinman D, editor. *Science and*
411 *technology in society: from biotechnology to the internet*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and
412 sons. p. 1-14.
413 McPherson GR. 2001. Teaching & learning the scientific method. *American Biology Teacher*
414 63(4):242-5.
415 Ottenberg AL, Pasalic D, Bui GT, Pawlina W. 2016. An analysis of reflective writing early in the
416 medical curriculum: The relationship between reflective capacity and academic
417 achievement. *Med Teach* 38(7):724-9.
418 Reed SK. 2000. Problem solving. In: Kazdin AE, editor. *Encyclopedia of psychology*. Washington, D.C.:
419 American Psychological Association and Oxford University Press. p. 71-5.
420 Tausczik YR, Pennebaker JW. 2010. The Psychological Meaning of Words: LIWC and Computerized
421 Text Analysis Methods. *Journal of Language & Social Psychology* 29(1):24-54.
422 Williams WM, Papierno PB, Makel MC, Ceci SJ. 2004. Thinking like a scientist about real-world
423 problems: The Cornell Institute for Research on Children science education program. *J Appl*
424 *Devel Psych* 25(1):107-26.