CHAPTER 16

STOICHIOMETRY'S PCK OF UNIVERSITY CHEMISTRY PROFESSORS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this chapter is to document the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) of a set of four university chemistry professors teaching stoichiometry, the study of the mass and amount of substance ratios between two or more substances undergoing a chemical change or, in brief, the science of chemical calculations. This topic can be taught with a simple algorithmic purpose going for immediate procedures without much understanding about what to do and/or why one is doing it, or it can be used to reinforce crucial concepts on the chemical reaction or even the particulate constitution of matter. A discussion is presented on the approach given by these four professors in their general chemistry classes, classified as conceptual, representational, contextual, and procedural. Results are conclusive on the various pedagogical foci of three of the approaches (representational, contextual, and procedural), and the equivalence of the four professors' conceptual approach. Results also reveal a link between conceptual and procedural knowledge.

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The term *pedagogical content knowledge* (PCK) was introduced by Shulman (1986, 1987) in order to draw attention to the value of the special amalgam of content and pedagogical knowledge that a teacher needs to be an outstanding one. Stoichiometry is a specific topic of the college general chemistry course which PCK deserves to be documented and commented, as has been pointed out by De Jong, Veal, and Van Driel (2002). A survey on the literature on stoichiometry is given and the contrast between algorithmic problem solving and conceptual understanding is included.

With the intention of documenting stoichiometry's PCK, Loughran, Mulhall and Berry's (2004) Content Representation (CoRe) method has been employed. We have used this methodology in previous research and found it an interesting and appropriate method of documenting, portraying, and analyzing PCK (Garritz, Porro, Rembado, & Trinidad, 2007; Padilla, Ponce de León, Rembado, & Garritz, 2008). We have chosen the proposal of Magnusson, Krajcik, and Borko (1999) as a PCK model. This one has five elements that every professor should know: (1) orientation to teaching science, (2) knowledge of science curricula, (3) knowledge of students' understanding of science, (4) knowledge of instructional strategies, and (5) knowledge of assessment of scientific literacy. So the questions in the CoRe frame were adapted to this model.

Once the four general chemistry teachers' CoRe was completed in order to characterize them, we used four categories of the sentences given therein: conceptual (if understanding concepts is the central goal), contextual (if he/she uses context as a motivational intention), procedural (if he/she simply utilizes problem solving as an algorithmic objective), or representational (if her/his aim is to make use of historical, analogical, metaphorical, demonstrational, experimental, digital, visual and other kinds of representations). In the next section this classification is explained in detail.

STOICHIOMETRY TEACHING CATEGORIES

Stoichiometry has played a key role in the evolution of chemistry as a science, marking the difference between qualitative and quantitative chemistry. As it was pointed out by Kolb (1978), the term "stoichiometry" comes from the Greek *stoicheion* (element) and *metron* (measure). It was devised by the German chemist Jeremias Benjamin Richter (1762–1807), as a concept designed to quantify the mass proportions of several combined substances. Richter found that the proportions of reagent masses were constant, so the equivalent quantities of an acid and a base in a neutralization reaction were always constant. Richter was a mathematician interested in chemistry, and he believed that chemistry should be considered a branch of mathematics. As Partington (1961) wrote: "he busied himself in finding

regularities among the combining proportions." Richter was graduated as a Philosophiae Doctor in 1789, writing his thesis on the use of mathematics in chemistry. At that point in history, chemists were interested in making chemistry more mathematical, in the way that physicists had done starting with Galileo and Kepler.

As it was pointed out by Padilla and Furió-Mas (2008), Ernst Fischer (1754–1831) in 1802 called attention to Richter's results saying that they could be presented in a table to show the equivalent weights of an acid and a base when they are compared with one thousand parts of sulphuric acid as the standard substance. Just after the equivalentist paradigm was settled, it came the atomic hypothesis by Dalton, who established an interpretation for the equivalent masses in terms of atoms and its amounts in compounds. The equivalentist paradigm belonged to a tradition of matter theory (continuity) that did not believe in the fundamental existence of the smallest particles (atoms). The atomistic paradigm belonged to a tradition of matter theory (discontinuity) that asserted the existence of discrete atoms and molecules.

The first special booklet, designed to specifically teach stoichiometry to beginning students of chemistry, was written in 1865 by Frickhinger and Cooke (Jensen, 2003), who used the equivalent weights instead of the atomic weights, despite Cannizzaro's work presented in Karlsruhe in 1860. Today, the literature related to stoichiometry can be classified in two categories focusing on:

1. problem solving, where we can find contextual problems (Pinto, 2005a, 2005b); analogies (Arce de Sanabia, 1993; Fortman, 1993; Haim, Cortón, Kocmur, & Galagovsky, 2003; Merlo & Turner, 1993); conceptual approaches (Chandrasegaran, Treagust, Waldrip, & Chandrasegaran, 2009; Krieger, 1997; Taasoobshirazi & Glynn, 2009); and visual representations (Arasasingham, Taagepera, Potter, & Lonjers, 2004; Arasasingham, Taagepera, Potter, Martorell, & Lonjers, 2005; Ault, 2001; Evans, Yaron, & Leinhardt, 2008; Sanger, 2005)
2. students' conceptual understanding of fundamental ideas about the structure of matter before doing calculations (Lekhavat & Jones, 2009; Nakhleh, 1993; Nurrenbem & Pickering, 1987)

The research related to teachers' conceptions about stoichiometry is usually investigating preservice or secondary school teachers, and there is almost nothing related to university professors. This lack of research is why our main subject is college chemistry professors' stoichiometry PCK. Based on the literature, we have chosen four different ways to classify stoichiometry teaching: conceptual, contextual, procedural, and representational.

Conceptual Stoichiometry Teaching

We will refer in conceptual stoichiometry teaching to the construction of a holistic view of the content by inductive and deductive critical thinking. This term has been coined by Arons (1997), who mentions as the objective of Chapter 13 of his book to "unpack the term critical thinking to list a few simpler underlying processes of abstract logical reasoning that are common to many disciplines and that can be cultivated and exercised separately in limited context accessible to the students" (p. 375). Conceptual knowledge is assembled by using different kinds of representation forms of the concept (especially verbal, graphic, and symbolic), while procedural knowledge has rather a mathematical expression and meaning in applied actions. The aim is to get a full authentic comprehension of the underlying concepts and theories, to reorganize that knowledge using evidence, and to maintain a critical and more objective view of the subject. There are two main complementary trends guiding the purpose of teaching in this new century. One guide is a focus on is the critical thinking ability to reason, which involves the dominion of specific contents, conceptual understanding of frameworks and of the processes of science. The other guide is a focus on developing the problem-solving/decision-making capacity to become an effective citizen. We want to point out that our definition of conceptual understanding emphasizes breadth and depth of knowledge (Alao & Guthrie, 1999). Breadth is related to "the extent of knowledge that is distributed and represents the major sectors of a specific domain" and depth to "the knowledge of scientific principles that describes the relationship among concepts" (Alao & Guthrie, 1999, p. 244).

Different authors have pointed out the importance of helping students to get a better comprehension of what stoichiometry means, further than just memorizing the steps required to make a calculation (Agung & Schwartz, 2007; Akkus, Gunel, & Hand, 2007; BouJaoude & Barakat, 2003; Chandrasegaran et al., 2009; Niaz & Lawson, 1985; Taasoobshirazi & Glynn, 2009; Yarroch, 1985). This conceptual process, however, is not far away from problem solving; the point is what kind of problems should be proposed to students to let them have a better comprehension of stoichiometry, like chemical equations, balancing, limiting reagent, chemical formulas, and so on. In this sense, BouJaoude and Barakat mention that the problem solving process goes from "algorithmic, when conceptual knowledge is missing, to conceptual, when conceptual knowledge is available and when algorithms are stored meaningfully in memory" (2003, p. 2). An investigation was conducted by Yarroch (1985) to identify how students understand balancing of chemical equations. Yarroch reported that many students could balance an equation but, when asked to represent it in molecular terms, many of them cannot do it. In this sense,

Yarroch says, students could balance chemical equations in an algorithmic way without showing any evidence of understanding. Niaz and Lawson (1985) did a similar investigation, noting that "it is not recommended that students be given algorithmic solution strategies because this would allow them to correctly balance equations without the need for formal reasoning, thus depriving them of an opportunity for its development." According to Ramsdem (1983) and Woods et al. (2001) (cited by BouJaoude & Barakat, 2003), meaningful learners have a deep approach to learning when they "build a holistic description of content, reorganize new content by relating it to prior knowledge and/or to personal experiences, are inclined to use evidence, and maintain a critical and a more objective view" (p. 3). In the same way, Akkus et al. (2007) say that "conceptual scientific knowledge is an understanding of the ideas and theories that form the backbone of the scientific community's knowledge and includes the application of knowledge in novel problem-situations" (p. 1748).

Contextual Stoichiometry Teaching

Many other proposals to teach stoichiometry suggest the importance of contextualizing exercises and lab work to make it interesting and motivational to students.

Contextualizing may include several strategies (Crawford, 2001), such as learning:

1. In the context of one's life experiences or preexisting knowledge (relating)
2. By doing: through exploration, discovery, and invention (experiencing)
3. By putting the concepts to use (applying)
4. In the context of sharing, responding, and communicating with other learners (cooperating)
5. By using knowledge in a new context or novel situation: one that has not been covered in class (transferring)

We go beyond Alao and Guthrie's description, as mastery of concepts in a specific area of science is not of main importance, but include their relationships and interactions discussed within everyday life phenomena (e.g., burning of a candle, tarnish of silver cutlery) and topics in the area of science, technology, society, and environment (STSE) (e.g., greenhouse effect, waste management, and recycling).

In the context of this study, contextual learning is interpreted as students' ability to apply the learned scientific concepts to scientific phenomena in

everyday life situations. This application includes, for example, the ability to recognize new information as something different from one's current understanding and beliefs, to identify inconsistencies, and to construct explanations to reconcile knowledge conflicts, or to seek connections among diverse pieces of information.

Contextualization can help students not just with stoichiometry problems but, besides, to think critically and to realize the relevance of chemistry in their daily lives (Pinto, 2005a, 2005b). In this sense, some topics are: boron in fertilizers, mineral waters, calcium and physiology (Pinto, 2005a, 2005b), gas chamber as the production of HCN from polyacrylonitrile (Hunter, Wilkins, & Pearson, 1992), green chemistry (Cacciatore & Sevian, 2006), amino acid complementary (Vitz, 2005), kinetics in chemical reactions (Toby, 2000; Toby & Tobias, 2003), and so on. We think the contextualization of concepts that are very abstract is an important tool for teaching. We should, however, think about the purpose of context. We agree with Pinto in what implies contextualization, but we also think that, in many cases, despite the use of contextual exercises, many proposals are focusing also on the algorithmic process without considering a meaningful concepts' understanding.

Representational Stoichiometry Teaching

One of the most interesting strategies reported in literature is relating different kinds of representations to improve learning of stoichiometry (Arce de Sanabia, 1993; Chebolu & Storandt, 2003; DeMeo, 2002; Fortman, 1993; Haim et al., 2003; Kashmar, 1997; Krieger, 1997; Rohring, 2000; Roser & McCluskey, 1999; Witzel, 2002). We have found the following kind of representations: historical, analogical, visual, analogue maps, lab experiments or demonstrations, molecular models, and material models. In almost all of the above papers, the authors pay more attention to the relations among substance and its molecular representations and how these relationships can help students understand some stoichiometry ideas, like limiting reagent, mass conservation, amount of substance, and so on. One example of analogy uses hamburger sandwiches (Haim et al., 2003), where students reflect about formulas, chemical equations, mass conservation, and limiting reagent. The general idea is to let the students identify those simple mathematical procedures needed to solve stoichiometric problems, and lead them to acknowledge the need for new vocabulary. Another analogy is the connection of particles with seeds or clips (Arce de Sanabia, 1993), where the key concept is the relative mass (Fortman, 1993) of the seeds to arrive to samples with the same number of them. Some authors also include in this category the use of historical cases as a framework for

students' understanding (Giunta, 1998; Holton, 2003; Masson & Vázquez-Abad, 2006; Niaz & Rodríguez, 2001).

Procedural Stoichiometry Teaching

Hereafter, we will call "procedural knowledge" as the knowledge that requires the use of a memorized set of procedures for the solution of a problem, which denotes dynamic and successful utilization of particular rules or algorithms within relevant representation forms. Most of the literature reports many different strategies to teach stoichiometry, however, almost all of them are focused on the procedure or algorithmic process (Arasasingham et al., 2005; Ault, 2001; DeMeo, 2005; DeToma, 1994; Figueira, Coch, & Zepica, 1988; Kolb, 1978; Murov & Stedjee, 2001) without considering if students achieve a meaningful learning. In all of these reports, authors emphasize in the steps students should follow solving stoichiometry exercises in a correct way. Some of them focus on the use of graph strategies, dimensional analysis, formulas, or maps that let students memorize some constant values like Avogadro's number or molar volume. Ault (2001) presents several units used to measure an amount (mass, amount of substance, volume, and number of elementary entities) and how to convert one into another; after that, he gives the way to create a visual representation for the solution of several typical stoichiometric problems (amount of substance to amount of substance, mass to mass, mass to volume, etc.) and the different transformation factors that can be employed in each case.

The law of conservation of matter is a cornerstone in the development and advancement of modern chemistry, as expressed by Paixão and Cachapuz (2000). These researchers propose a teaching strategy based in history and philosophy that departs from the combustion reactions and their contemporary economic, environmental, social, and political contexts, exploring STSE perspectives in the teaching of science. Exploration is centered upon the context of oxygen theory discovery. On the other hand, Özmen and Ayas (2003) analyze some misconceptions of the conservation of matter of 150 high school students concerning this topic during a chemical reaction in open and closed systems. Agung and Schwartz (2007) examined Indonesian high school students' understanding of conservation of matter, balancing of equations and stoichiometry, in 22 schools with 19 teachers that validated the 25-question survey (which was a concept questionnaire constructed at the Harvard Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics to identify misconceptions) used with 877 students. In general, students' understanding of the fundamental principles in chemistry was low.

CONCEPTUAL LEARNING VERSUS
ALGORITHMIC PROBLEMS

In this section, we center on the supposed dichotomy between conceptual vs. procedural knowledge (in mathematics learning it has been summarized by Haapasalo & Kadijevich, 2000). There have been a large number of terms referring to those two kinds of knowledge, as described by Haapasalo and Kadijevich in the following set of pairs of knowledge:

- Conceptual vs. practical
- Knowing that vs. knowing how
- Declarative vs. procedural
- Facts vs. skills
- Understanding vs. algorithmic
- Theological vs. schematic
- Deductive vs. empirical
- Meaningful vs. mechanical
- Logical/relational vs. instrumental
- Structural vs. operational

One has to recognize that this listing represents certain polarities of the two knowledge types and can, therefore, lead to oversimplifications. In the conclusions, we will describe our views of this alleged dichotomy.

In a study by Yarroch (1985), only half of the 14 high school students he interviewed were able to represent the correct linkages of atoms in molecules. That linkage represents the difficulties of changing from one chemical level of representation—macro, submicro, or symbolic—to the others (Gilbert & Treagust, 2009a). Davidowitz and Chittleborough (2009) consider that stoichiometric problems can be used to tackle misunderstandings in relation to the constitution of molecules and their formulas. But building such relationships implies going further than the algorithmic nature implicit in them. They say that students "find more difficult [solving stoichiometric problems] using sub-micro representations despite the opportunities to practice using the sub-micro representations in tutorials" (Davidowitz & Chittleborough, 2009, pp. 182–184).

It has been pointed out that students' views of the particulate nature of matter are cause for concern (Gabel, Samuel, & Hunn, 1987). Instructors of introductory courses know that many students do not understand how to solve problems and frequently resort to algorithmic solutions. In order to solve a problem correctly, the concepts involved in the problem must be understood and must be recalled without prompting. After a preliminary description of the problem is given, it needs to be re-described according to

the problem solver's frame of reference. In chemistry, depicting the physical phenomena in terms of the particulate nature of matter is helpful. We conclude that the ability to represent matter at the particulate level is very important in explaining phenomena such as chemical reactions, changes in state, the gas laws, stoichiometric relationships, and solution chemistry. It is fundamental to the nature of chemistry itself.

A series of papers started by Nurrenberm and Pickering (1987) have been appearing in the *Journal of Chemical Education* related to the handicap that good stoichiometric problem solvers face with conceptual problems in basic chemistry. Nurrenbern and Pickering applied some problems of algorithmic nature and some that require conceptual understanding to be solved. They found students answering problems about gases without knowing anything much about the nature of a gas, or solving limiting-reagent problems without understanding the nature of chemical change. This result is consistent with the work of Yarroch (1985) and Gabel et al. (1987). Pickering (1990) goes further, asking what happens to the students when they go to other courses in chemistry—for example, organic chemistry. Are there two kinds of students, some who possess an ability to do conceptual problems and some who can solve mathematical-algorithmic problems without molecular understanding? Is the distinction between the groups a difference of ability or just a gap in knowledge? He stresses that, presumably, the instructor's and the textbook's emphases have caused students to direct their efforts toward problem solving. The ability to solve a problem, while desirable in itself, does not seem to imply much real understanding of microscopic reality, and it is this understanding that is at the heart of chemical science. Sawrey (1990) repeated the Nurrenbem and Pickering (1987) experiment with a larger and more uniform sample of university students. She found that students viewed the traditional type of questions as mere exercises, but the pictorial concept questions as true problems.

The literature contains evidence that novice problem solvers in chemistry usually have greater success with solving problems in an algorithmic mode than problems with a more conceptual base (Bunce, 1993; Nakhleh, 1993). Niaz and Robinson (1992) concluded that student training in algorithmic-mode problems did not guarantee successful understanding of conceptual problems: "Algorithmic and conceptual problems may require different cognitive abilities" (p. 54). Mason, Shell, and Crawley (1997) worked on the following research question:

> How do the general problem-solving procedures used by high-ability algorithmic/high-ability conceptual, low ability algorithmic/high-ability conceptual, high-ability algorithmic/low-ability conceptual, and low-ability algorithmic/low-ability conceptual students compare to each other and to

the general problem-solving procedures used by the faculty expert in solving paired algorithmic and conceptual problems?

They conclude that regardless of the students' problem-solving ability, algorithmic-mode problems always required more time and a greater number of transitions for completion than did the paired conceptual-mode problems. Regardless of the topic, however, all students correctly solved the algorithmic-mode problems more frequently than the corresponding paired conceptual-mode problems.

The influence of prior knowledge, use of learning strategies, interest, and learning goals on conceptual understanding and the contribution of each one of the factors was analysed by Alao and Guthrie (1999). These authors developed and used an 18-item knowledge test to measure conceptual understanding and the *Learning Goals, Interest and Strategy Use Questionnaire* to assess students' intentions to try to understand ecological science concepts; this last was also developed by them from previous instruments. They conclude that all factors are important to knowledge acquisition, but prior knowledge accounted for a significant portion of the variance in conceptual understanding after the contribution of interest, learning goals, and strategy use were controlled.

The prevailing practice at the university level when teaching chemistry consists of lectures by the professor, follow-the-recipe laboratory activities, exercise-solving recitation sessions, and examinations oriented toward algorithmic or lower-order cognitive skills. The lecture format for instruction is incompatible with most higher-order cognitive skills and conceptual learning; so success in solving algorithmic problems does not indicate mastery of the relevant chemical concepts (Zoller, Lubezky, Nakhleh, Tessier, & Dori, 1995). Science education researchers indicate that many novice learners in chemistry (Nakhleh, 1993; Nakhleh & Mitchel, 1993) are able to apply algorithms without significant conceptual understanding. We want to elucidate whether this is due to those who teach introductory chemistry placing more value on algorithmic learning than on conceptual understanding, giving the learners the impression that science is "math in disguise" (Pushkin, 1998).

The results of a project to reform the way undergraduate chemistry is taught is presented by Nakhleh, Lowrey, and Mitchel (1996). This project set out to narrow the gap between conceptual and algorithmic understanding in freshman chemistry, using the Generative Learning Model of Wittrock (1986). The nature of the assessment in the course moved from a heavy emphasis on mathematical problem solving to a mix of conceptual questions and more traditional problem-solving questions involving the use of algorithms. The results indicate that special sessions and conceptual exam questions can improve students' abilities to work successfully with

both concepts and algorithms. The special sessions provided diagnostic assessment of strengths and weaknesses for both students and professor. In another study, Lin, Kirsch, and Turner (1996) applied Nakhleh's (1993) paired type questions (one with conceptual emphasis and the other with an algorithmic objective) related to several topics of the general chemistry course: gas laws, equations, limiting reagents, empirical formulas, and density. The researchers' focus was on the selection of conceptual versus algorithmic strategies by students belonging to minorities, arriving at the conclusion that these kinds of students are more interested in concepts than in algorithmic aspects of chemistry problem solving.

It has been stressed by Nieswandt (2007) that conceptual understanding of science is a complex phenomenon. It incorporates an understanding of single concepts such as "mass" or of more complex concepts such as "stoichiometry"—declarative or factual knowledge—which, following certain rules and models, combines multiple individual concepts (e.g., particle model, mass conservation, amount of substance, equivalent, etc.), results in a new concept. Thus, conceptual understanding comprises declarative knowledge; procedural knowledge, including concepts, rules, and algorithms; and conditional knowledge, including the understanding of when to employ procedural knowledge and why it is important to do so (Paris, Cross, & Lipson, 1984).

Recently, Salta and Tzougraki (2011) investigated more than one thousand students' (grades 9 and 11) performance with problems of conservation of matter during chemical reactions. The researchers classified the problems in three types: "algorithmic-type," "particulate-type," and "conceptual-type." All students had a far better performance in particulate-type problems than in the other two. Although students' ability in solving algorithmic-type problem increases as their school experience in chemistry progresses, their ability in solving conceptual-type problems decreases. Four different ways of teaching stoichiometry have been discussed here, including a general survey of papers reported in the literature. These are more than just simple strategies, but teaching options that could be used in different moments in the classroom. In our work we tried to identify these four ways of teaching among in college chemistry professors.

METHOD

The participants in this study were two female and two male professors. All were working full time in either a Mexican or an Argentinean university. We arbitrarily selected as their names Alex, Ana, Anthony, and Alice. The first one has 15 years of teaching experience and a PhD in inorganic chemistry with a postdoctoral work at a renowned European university. The second

and third earned BS.c. degrees in chemical engineering and each had more than 30 years of teaching experience. Finally, the fourth has a PhD degree in biochemistry and almost 30 years of teaching experience. All are considered excellent professors by their peers and their pupils.

The documenting of pedagogical stoichiometry knowledge of four university professors was developed using Loughran, Mulhall, and Berry's (2004) proposal of Content Representation (CoRe). The CoRe tries to find out teaching objectives; knowledge of alternative student conceptions; problems that commonly appear when learning; effective sequencing of topic elements; important approaches to the framing of the ideas; use of appropriate analogies, demonstrations, and examples; and insightful ways of testing for understanding, among others.

The questions of the CoRe frame that we have selected and adapted are presented in Table 16.1. We, the professors and researchers, first discussed which could be the central concepts or ideas related to teaching stoichiometry, a crucial component of the CoRe). We understand the central ideas as those at the core of understanding and teaching the theme; there are topics that belong to the disciplinary knowledge and that are used by professors as end point of one theme and, at the same time, as initial point to the following theme. The clue is that those ideas sharply reflect the most important aspects of the topic and may include some of its precedents.

Table 16.1. Core Questions Used to Document Chemistry Professors' Stoichiometry Pedagogical Content Knowledge

1. Why is it important for students to learn this idea and what do you intend teaching it?
2. From STS and historical context, why is it important for students to learn this?
3. Difficulties/limitations connected with learning this idea
4. Difficulties/limitations connected with teaching this idea
5. Knowledge about students' thinking which influences your teaching of this idea
6. What representations do you use to engage students with this idea (analogies, metaphors, examples, demonstrations, reformulations, etc.?)
7. Specific ways of ascertaining students' understanding or confusion around this idea

After a long set of conversations, professors and the researchers arrived at consensual agreement that the six central ideas involved in teaching stoichiometry are:

1. Ratios and proportions
2. Purity of substances
3. Composition

4. Empirical and molecular formulas
5. Balancing chemical equations
6. Expressions of concentration

Then, the professors received the frame of Table 16.1 and were asked to answer the questions for each one of these central ideas, and to do it at home, without any pressure.

Based on research reported in the literature (Mortimer, 1995; Padilla et al., 2008), we decided to use the classification of four conceptual profile zones that were the same as those mentioned in the section "Stoichiometry Teaching Categories" of this chapter to start our analysis of what professors mentioned in their CoRes:

- **Conceptual**: Phrases related to the importance given by teachers to try to help students understand the fundamental concepts before students start doing problems, to employing inductive and deductive reasoning, and to the recognition that some ideas generate confusion among students because they are difficult to understand.
- **Contextual**: Sentences using everyday problems or references that help students contextualize the subject and make it closer to them. It also includes learning by doing or by applying and cooperating.
- **Procedural.** This zone is characterized by remarks on the use of algorithms and mathematical formulae as analytical tools applied without a complete understanding of the conceptual relationships involved.
- **Representational.** Comments on the use of ways to represent the topic, such as historical narratives, analogies, demonstrations and laboratory work, metaphors, stories, web-based teaching, controversies, and so on.

Each one of us classified phrases in the CoRe answers to the questions in Table 16.1 for the main ideas fundamental to teaching stoichiometry, by marking them in four different colors, each corresponding to a conceptual profile zone, and discussing and solving the differences existent between their viewpoints. Then, we counted the number of times that each one of these profile zones appeared for each one of the professors, characterized them, and expressed it as percentages.

RESULTS

The results of counting each of the responses belonging to each of the conceptual profile zones are presented in Figure 16.1 for our four professors.
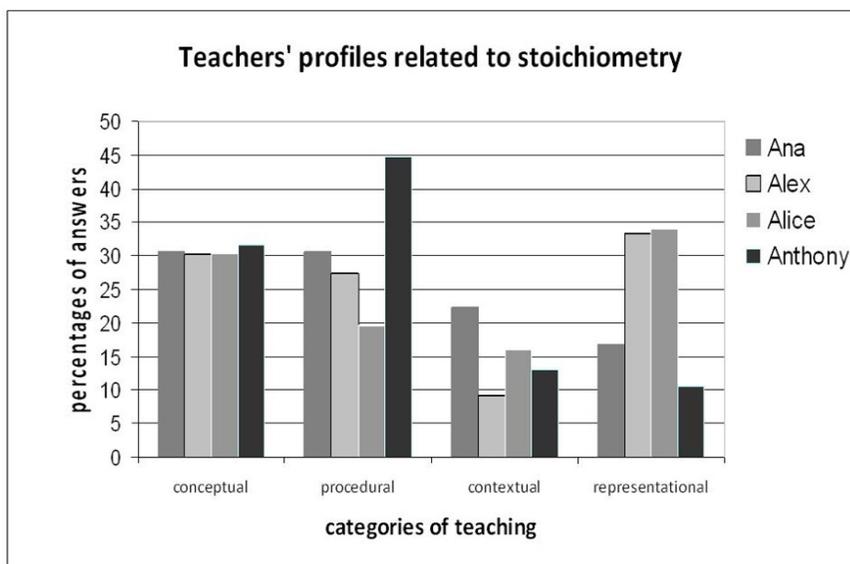
Figure 16.1.   Professors' profiles related to stoichiometry teaching.

All of the professors show a similar percentage of use of conceptual strategies, despite not having a similar complete profile (except perhaps Alex and Alice). It is interesting, because we have said how important it is that students learn in a meaningful way, which means students should understand those ideas in a qualitative way. The general profile of the four professors is quite different if we analyse each profile zone; for example, it seems that Anthony points out the importance of procedural knowledge in teaching stoichiometry ideas, in spite of his use of a conceptual way of teaching. At the same time, Anthony is representational and contextual. Alice and Alex have a very similar profile because both of them are cognitive and representational. They make use of procedural knowledge almost in the same proportion (Alex a little more than Alice, but as we will discuss below, in a different way). Ana uses the same proportion of cognitive and procedural knowledge, and at the same time, she uses contextual and representational ways of teaching, giving more importance to the first. What it is important to notice is that, despite some seeming to have almost the same profile, the main differences are in the kind of phrases they show in their CoRe, and that will be discussed below. An analysis of each one of the four professors' answers is now developed.

Ana

To start our discussion of the analysis, we have selected four sentences from Ana, each belonging to one of the profile zones, just to give examples of how they were selected. We highlight these with quotation marks and italicize some portions of the professor's CoRes that led to our decision of categorizing the whole phrase in a given profile zone.

Ana's procedural sentence is: "*It is fundamental* that students *know how to calculate* substances elemental composition from the chemical formula and *vice versa*. What I want is that *students learn how to do the process*, understanding each mathematical step involved." She also mentions the following conceptual phrase, which alludes to the students' "difficulties to *understand the meaning of formula subscripts*, because they change them while making the chemical balancing, without being conscious that those changes affect the *nature of the substances involved*." We selected the following sentence by Ana as included in the representational profile zone: "The *difficulties are based on the superposition of representational levels*: macroscopic, microscopic and symbolic." One of her sentences in the contextual profile zone was: "In the STS (Science, Technology, and Society) context, *those concepts can be applied to food, medicines and cleaning products*."

Ana recognizes the importance of mathematical calculations, but she emphasizes that it is quite important that *students understand each mathematical step* taken, which does not mean that students already have meaningful learning. In many cases students just learn algorithmic procedures for some style of problem and, if they have to solve a slightly different one, they do not know how to proceed. In her conceptual sentence Ana points out the importance of students understanding the chemical formula and the meaning of the subscripts, which implies that they must comprehend the concept of amount of substance. In the representational category, Ana was the only one who emphasized in the three representational levels proposed by Johnstone (1993). It has been demonstrated that the relationships among them are the most difficult ideas to be understood by students in all educational levels (Gilbert & Treagust, 2009b). Finally, she pointed out to her students that stoichiometry is a subject used in many other matters related to chemistry, and mostly in the chemical industry.

Alex

Alex was quite consistent in his teaching strategies. He makes use of almost the same percentage of conceptual and procedural strategies. It seems, however, that he emphasizes representational strategies but pays

little attention to contextual ones. Examples of Alex's answers for each category are the following:

(Procedural) "In general, the process of *calculation and unit conversions in concentration problems could be mechanical*. Students could be efficient to do calculations in some way; however, *the logic behind the process is still dark to them*."

(Representational) "At this point, to illustrate the idea of percentage mass/mass and mole fractions I always *use the traditional analogy of cakes* (with different masses) cut in slices sometimes of the same size and other times different."

(Contextual) "The concentration idea is something quite intuitive for students, because they have made lemonade at least once; that is why *I tried to represent those many ways to quantify the amount* of lemon juice, water and sugar using different ways to express chemical concentrations."

(Conceptual) For balancing chemical reactions, Alex said, "This is important not just from a conceptual view (like those factors that could affect the chemical reaction yield), but also when students have to study complicate subjects like chemical equilibrium."

In these phrases, Alex is recognizing that students could be very efficient in stoichiometry calculations, but at the same time, sometimes this problem-solving process could be unfathomable to them because they do not understand the logic behind it. When we analyzed his CoRe it seems that Alex does not emphasize students' reflections related to the qualitative comprehension of these ideas. In the representational sentence, Alex makes use of analogies or material models to teach stoichiometry concepts. This does not mean that Alex's strategies were unimportant, but we think the levels of representation presented by Johnstone (1991, 1993) should be taught to students in a comprehensive way at the same time rather than by the use of other models. One strategy used by Alex to teach relative masses has been implemented as a practical experience in the general chemistry lab work at our School of Chemistry (during the first semester). This representational strategy makes use of nails, nuts, screws, and the like to try to help students develop a better comprehension of relative masses and why they are used in chemistry. With respect to the conceptual category, Alex considers the importance of students constructing a meaningful understanding of balancing chemical reactions. Such an understanding conceptualizes what amount of substance is and why it is used in chemistry. Such an understanding is one of the most complicated and important in chemistry, because teachers have different conceptions of the amount of substance, as Padilla et al. (2008) have shown.

Alice

Alice is the professor with more phrases in the representational profile zone, because she uses a lot of historical comments on her CoRe:

> I know the transformations that these concepts have had, from *two visions: equivalentist and atomist*. I understand that mole concept first appeared in the equivalentist conceptual framework, with Ostwald, a denier of the atomic hypothesis.

> A great problem to understand these concepts is the frequent changes they have had, so a *deep knowledge of history is necessary to understand them* until what we know now. It is a strange case this in which *the unit (mole) is first defined and explained and afterwards appears the magnitude (amount of substance)*.

> I know that amount of substance is accepted as a fundamental unit of the International System of Units, first by IUPAF and later on, in 1965, by IUPAQ. This moment was a breakthrough that started in Richter's times at the end of the 18th century who thought *in stoichiometry as a way to "mathematize" chemistry to quantify chemical reactions*.

To us, the historical evolution of chemical ideas is quite important for teaching, and in some cases, it is fundamental that students recognize them because it will lead them to understand qualitative ideas and comprehend them much better. In our CoRe, the second question is about STS and historical ideas; however, only Alice uses the historical ideas to represent how this subject has evolved from its origins using the equivalentist paradigm to now, where atomism is the predominant paradigm. It is interesting to analyze the last sentence given by Alice in this category where we could reflect about how stoichiometry was conceived as a way to mathematize chemistry, which is taken so literally by some teachers.

Alice also makes use of analogies, where everyday objects are always present:

> Usually we go to the market to buy grapes by their weight not by their number. Of course that is the same with rice or beans, which are not bought by the number of grains. Only the great fruits can be bought by their number.

> I use an analogy between the mass magnitude, its unit the kilogram, and the magnitude amount of substance and its unit mole

She also uses demonstrations: "Classroom demonstration that allow students to understand the difference between to measure amounts or masses of diverse objects or substances, for example to have a dozen of flowers or 10g of copper."

In these analogies and demonstrations Alice is trying to help her students understand the differences between measuring big objects and tiny objects. In this way, she wants to exemplify differences among mass and amount of substance, helping students comprehend these differences. One problem occurs in her last phrase, "to have a dozen of flowers or 10g of copper" because the chemistry dozen is a return to considering the amount of substance's unit mole, as a number, which is mistakenly used by teachers as well as in textbooks.

Anthony

Anthony has a dominant procedural profile zone. Here, we have some examples of sentences classified in as procedural in his CoRe (we emphasize the procedural portion of the phrases with italics):

I first let the students use the *procedure they feel experts on* and then I make them use *conversion factors* to solve the same examples.

It is the mathematical model, besides the conservation of mass law and the mole concept *what makes possible balancing equations to coincide with what happens in a real chemical process*.

I propose them to solve *a lot of exercises* of all kinds. This is enough to achieve good results.

The main difficulty in teaching stoichiometry is to make students understand the relation between concentration and density,—in physics or chemistry units [here Anthony is doing a distinction between mass and volume, as physical units, and amount of substance, which he consider a chemical unit, as is the case with some other teachers that make a distinction between physics and chemistry magnitudes and units of measure]. The second is to *convince* [students] that these *concentration expressions* are intensive magnitudes, calculated from quotients of extensive ones. Once these two obstacles are surpassed understanding goes better. In reactions where there is not change in oxidation state of the substances involved *it is enough for balancing the trial or algebraic methods*.

All these phrases emphasize how Anthony teaches stoichiometry. His students do a lot of exercises. If they get a correct result, they are considered to have learned stoichiometry. He focuses on *convincing students* instead of *helping them* to meaningfully understand these ideas. There are many teachers like Anthony. These consider leaving students to do exercises implies that they are doing "problem solving," when what they are

really doing is solving algorithmic problems. In this sense, it could be interesting to reflect on what problem solving means. Solving problems goes much further than just following a sequence of steps. It really implies that students can take decisions, use the information in a correct way, as well as have the capacity to interpreting the results. We perceive this process as quite related to a conceptual way of teaching. While teaching stoichiometry, teachers often pay more attention to the procedural process without considering the importance of students conceptualizing basic ideas like amount of substance, concentration, limiting reagent, chemical balancing, and chemical formulas.

Anthony has lower percentages (see Figure 16.1) in the representational profile zone; nevertheless he, like Alice, makes use of historical representations; one of his phrases of this type is the following: "The processes to purify substances come from alchemists' time, which in their eagerness of transforming metals into gold developed almost all purification processes that are used until now". In his profile, Anthony almost doesn't show sentences related to the contextual profile zone, however, in the next sentence we could distinguish contextual and conceptual ideas: "I asked questions to know if they could distinguish among substances and mixtures, I used daily life products like food, drinks, medicines, etc. [contextual]. To bring misconceptions from everyday world is almost always the reason of their confusion [conceptual]." In this last phrase, Anthony said that some ideas, brought by students from their everyday context, make them confused. This could be explained in terms of chemistry as a subject, which is present in all everyday activities; however, it is not so easy to explain chemical facts, so students may build some explanations using the knowledge learned in previous courses.

CONCLUSIONS AND POSSIBLE IMPACT ON TEACHING

After a deep review of the literature, we could categorize the kinds of stoichiometry teaching. We take advantage of this to make our analysis so that we could build conceptual teaching profiles. We think that the profiles constructed in this investigation are very particular, because all teachers have almost the same level of conceptual profile zone, yet they have different percentages (see Figure 16.1) in the other categories. Alex and Alice use the same percentage (33%) of representational phrase; however, the kinds of "representations" used by them are quite different. Alex is more analogical, and Alice is more historical. What we notice through the literature and in this study that stoichiometry teaching tends to be more procedural because of the ontological meaning and origin of this subject. As Alice said,

this subject came from a "mathematization" of chemistry, and this idea has permeated chemistry education.

We considered that it is centrally important to understand how procedural knowledge and conceptual knowledge relate to each other. It seems appropriate to underline that these two types of knowledge must be somehow related when the learning process is our focus. The variables in the assessment of this process, however, promote or obstruct possible qualitative and quantitative links between the two knowledge types. One must take into account the complementary presence of both kinds of knowledge while learning—that is, the necessity of having both, procedural and conceptual components, in teaching science—a perspective similar to the "complementary" considered in the middle-American and Eastern worldviews.

The pedagogical approaches that derive from the enhancement of procedural vs. conceptual knowledge (or vice versa) cannot construct a modern view of teaching and learning, because both extremes mean a conventional teacher-based, behaviorist instruction of concepts and/or procedures. Which factors in our education—or perhaps in the whole of society— are important for the development of our thinking abilities and multimodality in human brains? This issue basically calls upon and considers the representations taught to address the questions: do I know that (conceptual), do I know why (contextual and representational), do I know how (procedural), and do I know how I know (metacognitive).

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