

The Impact of a Self-Evaluation Chatbot on High School Students' Learning of Cell Communication

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ABSTRACT

As AI-driven chatbots become increasingly integrated into educational settings, identifying specific design features that lead to measurable learning gains is critical. This study investigates whether incorporating a self-evaluation system into a chatbot improves student learning compared to an otherwise identical chatbot lacking this feature. Fifty-six high school students studied the biology topic of cell communication using instructional notes and one of two chatbot conditions: a control chatbot that provided general explanations and an experimental chatbot that required students to self-evaluate their understanding prior to receiving guidance. Learning outcomes were measured using a post-instruction quiz completed without access to notes or external resources. Results showed that students using the self-evaluation chatbot achieved a substantially higher mean score 79.3% than those using the control chatbot 61.1%. When compared with earlier chatbot-based learning experiments that lacked structured metacognitive components, these findings demonstrate that iterative design improvements—specifically the addition of self-evaluation—lead to progressively stronger learning outcomes. The results suggest that self-evaluation is a key mechanism for enhancing the educational effectiveness of AI-assisted instruction.

Introduction

Across more than forty years of studies, researchers have shown that individualized instruction can improve learning outcomes far more effectively than whole-class teaching. Bloom's well known "2-sigma" finding showed that one-to-one tutoring can raise student performance by as much as two standard deviations (Bloom, 1984). Based on this foundation, research on intelligent tutoring systems (ITS) shows that well-designed computer tutors can closely approximate the effectiveness of human tutoring. Van Lehn (2011) showed that such systems work by modeling learners' cognitive states and adjusting both feedback and problem selection.

For example, cognitive tutor frameworks use domain modeling and step-level feedback.

According to Koedinger and Corbett (2006), such designs contribute to gains in both procedural fluency and conceptual understanding. More recently, the advent of large language models (LLMs) has renewed interest in natural language-based tutoring tools. These tools are valued for their conversational flexibility. Reviews, however, emphasize that their educational impact depends on alignment with learner needs, along with transparency and accuracy (Kasneci et al., 2023). Building on this concern, our study tests whether a self-assessment-informed conversational agent can outperform a general-purpose LLM in supporting undergraduate mathematics learning.

Adaptive learning systems—particularly intelligent tutoring systems (ITS)—have demonstrated consistent effectiveness in improving learner outcomes by tailoring instruction to individual cognitive states (Létourneau, 2025). Létourneau's (2025) systematic review of AI-driven ITS across K–12 schools found mostly positive results. Students using ITS showed stronger learning gains than those in non-intelligent environments, though the extent of improvement depended on design and duration. Central to these systems are mechanisms such as model tracing and knowledge tracing. These techniques allow real-time monitoring of students' problem-solving steps and estimation of skill mastery, which in turn support dynamic task selection and just-in-time feedback (Koedinger and Corbett, 2006). Moreover, modern AI-based ITS structures often incorporate natural language processing modules and real-time assessment pipelines. Through these components, the system can adjust how it delivers content in response to students' ongoing performance (Villegas-Ch et al., 2025).

Researchers are now exploring how LLMs, including GPT-5, might be applied in adaptive learning. Early findings suggest that such models could act as tutoring systems that are both flexible and sensitive to context. Although LLMs have demonstrated strong capabilities in generating explanations and scaffolding problem-solving (Kasneci et al., 2023), concerns remain about their tendency to produce overly general responses when not anchored in student-specific data. Emerging work in personalized educational agents suggests that coupling LLMs with diagnostic or self-assessment modules may provide a pathway toward more learner-sensitive feedback (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). Nevertheless, rigorous controlled experiments validating the effectiveness of such hybrid systems in real classroom settings remain scarce. This gap emphasizes the need for empirical studies to test the effectiveness of personalization mechanisms built on LLM infrastructure. The present experiment addresses this need. It tests whether such mechanisms improve learning outcomes more effectively than conventional chatbot interactions.

One way to achieve personalization is to adjust instruction to what the learner already knows. Indeed, the traditional ITS model contains a student model for that very purpose (Greer, 1995; Brna, Ohlsson and Pain, 1993). The lack of a student model represents a fundamental weakness in mainstream LLMs, which are geared towards answering questions without regard to who is asking them. This makes sense since LLMs are, by their very nature, language models not teaching models. Therefore, they are not constructed to strategically assess what knowledge learners have and what they are missing, so that these gaps can be used in the process of generating answers.

One solution is to create an independent assessment system and link it to an LLM. This is labor intensive. Another solution is to allow a learner to enter his or her own existing subject matter knowledge into LLM and have the LLM use that information when answering a learner's questions. Given that learners may not be skilled in assessing their own knowledge, a self assessment LLM-based chatbot needs a reliable and easy to use self-assessment method.

Our previous work has been devoted to developing such a method. Given that the goal of the proposed self-assessment chatbot is to fill in knowledge gaps, traditional assessment methods that focus on whether users can correctly answer questions are inadequate since these methods do not diagnose knowledge but performance. The assessment method used in the present project is called Cognitive Structure Analysis (Leddo et al., 1990).

Cognitive Structure Analysis or CSA is based on decades of cognitive psychology research that have illustrated that people possess various knowledge types, each of which is organized and used differently in problem-solving. Since people possess different types of knowledge, our framework integrates several prominent and well-researched formalisms. These include semantic nets, which organize factual information (Quillian, 1966); production rules, which organize concrete procedures (Newell and Simon, 1972); scripts, which are general goal-based problem-solving strategies (Schank and Abelson, 1977; Schank, 1982); and mental models, which explain the causal principle behind concepts (de Kleer and Brown, 1981). Because our framework integrates these four knowledge types, it is called INKS for the INtegrated Knowledge Structure. The INKS framework is based on research by John Leddo (Leddo et al., 1990) which shows that true mastery of a topic or subject requires all four knowledge types. The framework also brings helpful implications for instruction. For example, in John Anderson's ACT-R framework, people initially learn factual/semantic knowledge that is later operationalized into procedures (Anderson, 1982). Research by Leddo takes this one step further showing that expert knowledge is organized around goals and plans (referred to in the literature as "scripts" – Schank and Abelson, 1977; Schank, 1982) and abstracted into causal principles (referred to in the literature as "mental models" – cf., de Kleer and Brown, 1981) that allow people to construct explanations and make predictions/innovations in novel situations.

To identify the root cause of the mistake, the query-based assessment framework CSA incorporates principles from the INKS knowledge representation framework. CSA is chosen because previous research describes a strong correlation between user knowledge — as assessed by CSA — and performance practical problem-solving. In one previous research project, we found that using an automated multiple-choice CSA system to assess student learning produced measures of knowledge that correlated .88 with student problem-solving performance and measures of change of knowledge as a result of the instruction that correlated .78 with change in performance from pretest to post test. Moreover, at risk students who had their learning needs diagnosed using CSA performed at a mainstream level three grades higher than their own after a 25-hour tutoring program in science (Leddo and Sak, 1994). Leddo et al. (2022) extended these findings. Students were given open ended questions to assess their factual (semantic), strategic (script-based), procedural, and rational (mental model) concept, knowledge of Algebra 1. The total INKS knowledge and individual component knowledge scores were correlated with the total number of correctly solved problems. Results showed correlations of .966 between problem-solving and total knowledge, .819 between problem-solving and strategic knowledge, .866 between problem-solving and factual knowledge, .937 between problem-solving and procedural knowledge and .788 problem-solving and rational knowledge. These findings were extended to pre-calculus (Zhou and Leddo, 2023), biology (Ahmad and Leddo, 2023), and elementary school math (Bekkari and Leddo, 2023). In two other projects, assessments of students' knowledge produced using the CSA methodology agreed with teachers' assessments approximately 95% - 97% of the time which was statistically equal to teachers' assessments with each other (Leddo et al., 1998, Liang and Leddo, 2020).

Our previous work shows that CSA can be a powerful tool in helping educators assess what students do and do not know. CSA has been presented as an alternative to the classical test theory approach of measuring learning as a function of the number of correct answers students give. However, it could be reasonably argued that the purpose of education is to improve student performance, and, therefore, replacing an assessment system with one that directly measures underlying knowledge but does not raise student performance would be less appropriate. Leddo and Ahmad (2024) addressed that issue directly. In that study, high school students were initially assessed in their knowledge of logarithms. Half were assessed using CSA and half were assessed by asking them to solve problems and show all work. After each problem, students received remediation on either their knowledge concepts (in the CSA condition) or in their problem-solving steps (the “show all work” condition). Results showed that remediating problem-solving steps raised student performance from an average of 68% on the pretest to 75% on the posttest, a statistically significant increase. However, those who had their knowledge assessed and remediated scored 85% on the posttest, a statistically significant, full- letter grade higher performance than those in the “show all work” condition. The Leddo and Ahmad (2024)

was replicated in a follow-up study with middle schoolers that also showed that students who were assessed using CSA and had their knowledge remediated performed, on average, a full letter grade higher than those whose step-by-step procedures were assessed and remediated (Challagulla and Leddo, 2025).

Showing that assessing and remediating INKS-based knowledge improves performance addresses only half the issue. The previously-cited research involved learners being assessed using external means. For a self-assessment chatbot to work, the question remains whether learners can be taught to reliably assess their own knowledge and, equally importantly, whether learning to self-assess can be done quickly and easily so as to be practical to implement. It turns out the answer to each of these questions is yes (Cynkin and Leddo, 2023; Dandemraju, Dandemraju and Leddo, 2024). In these two studies, we showed that learners can be trained to accurately assess what they do and do not know, and that this process takes about 10 minutes. To train a person to self-assess, s/he is shown a sample of what a self-assessment for a topic area looks like. The learner is then asked to use the sample as a model for generating a self-assessment for a new topic. A template is provided for filling in the factual (semantic), strategic (scripted-based), procedural (production rule) and rational (mental model) knowledge.

To ensure that remediation of self-assessed knowledge also leads to improvement in performance, we have also taken the next logical step in that area to see if students can not only assess their knowledge gaps but also then remediate these gaps. It turns out that students can do so very successfully. To address this issue, Ravi and Leddo (2024) conducted a study in which high school students learned an advanced topic in chemistry by watching a video. Half the students were told to rewatch the video to fill in any knowledge gaps, while the other half were taught to self-assess their knowledge using CSA and then told to rewatch the video to fill in any assessed knowledge gaps. The group that was taught to self-assess scored 15 points or 1.5 letter grades higher on a posttest than students who simply rewatched the video without self-assessment. Nehra and Leddo (2024) replicated the Ravi and Leddo study to the learning of Spanish. They found that high school students performing self-assessment plus remediation scored, on average, 25 percentage points or 2.5 letter grades higher than those re-reading the material without performing a self-assessment. Prakash and Leddo (2025a) extended the Ravi and Leddo (2024) and Nehra and Leddo (2024) findings to another subject area: high school reading comprehension. The results revealed a mean posttest score of 8.3 out of 12 (69.17%) for the control group and 11.2 out of 12 (93.33%) for the experimental group. This difference in averages is statistically significant ($t = 3.75$, $df = 11.07$, $p < .01$). Notably, individual scores further illustrate the disparity: the lowest score in the control group was 41.67%, whereas the lowest in the experimental group was 83.33%. This is the difference between an F letter grade and B letter grade. Following this, another study conducted by Prakash and Leddo (2025b)

examined CSA's effectiveness in teaching math, specifically, the topic of Bayes' Theorem, and found a 27-point improvement. Individual scores also highlighted the disparity. The control group's lowest score was 6/20 (30%), whereas the experimental group's lowest score was 15/20 (75%). Following this, a history assessment revealed that students who utilized CSA for self-assessment and remediation significantly outperformed their peers in the control group (Prakash and Leddo, 2025c). Posttest results demonstrated that the experimental group achieved an average score of 87.5%, whereas the control group scored 65.8%, indicating a substantial difference in comprehension and retention of historical concepts.

These results on high school students were further extended by Leddo, Clark and Clark (2025) in their investigation of middle school math. Leddo, Clark and Clark found that middle school students who self-assessed using CSA and then remediated their knowledge gaps scored 18 percentage points higher on a posttest than those who relearned material without first performing a self-assessment. Following this, Prakash and Leddo (2025d) conducted a study on middle school students' reading comprehension, specifically through an analysis of *To Kill a Mockingbird*, a novel that explores complex themes of ethics and social structure. Students in the experimental group were trained to evaluate their own knowledge gaps and use targeted remediation strategies, while those in the control group engaged with the text without structured self-assessment. Results showed that students in the self-assessment group scored 16 points higher on a posttest than those who re-read the material without self-assessment. This was followed up with a study on middle school science (Prakash and Leddo, 2025e), in which students learned about topics in ecology. Results showed that students who used the self-assessment technique plus remediation scored on average 98% on a posttest, while those who simply reread the material without self-assessment scored on average 77.5%.

Finally, Sathiyamoorthy and Leddo (2025) showed that college students who used CSA to self assess and then remediate knowledge performed 13 percentage points higher on a college psychology posttest than those who simply reread the material after initially learning it. Taken together, these results suggest that regardless of whether the students self-assess and remediate knowledge or the assessment and remediation is mediated by technology, assessing and remediating knowledge greatly improves student performance compared to traditional methods of assessment. This indicates that student achievement could be increased systemically and cheaply by introducing CSA-based knowledge assessment into educational practices.

Given that self-assessment enables students to remediate their own learning needs, Wang and Leddo (2025) explored the question of whether a chatbot could use the results of a user's self-assessment when answering the user's questions. These researchers constructed a chatbot that first had a user self-assess his/her knowledge of a math topic (Algebra II). The self-assessment was used by the chatbot to identify knowledge strengths and deficiencies that were then

addressed in answers to users' questions. This was tested on college students, and results showed that students who used the self-assessment chatbot scored, on average, a full letter grade higher than those who used Chat GPT.

Since Wang and Leddo (2025) explored the effects of a self-assessment chatbot on students learning relatively easy math topics (Algebra II is a high school level subject), Maviti and Leddo (2025) studied whether these results would hold up with more difficult subject matter. In their study, high schoolers learned calculus by using either Chat GPT or a self-assessment chatbot. In this case, the disparity was even stronger. Students using Chat GPT scored, on average, 48% on a posttest, while those using a self-assessment chatbot scored, on average, 92%. Maviti, Leddo and Prakash (2025) followed up this study and compared the effectiveness of the self-assessment chatbot to Gemini in teaching high school students calculus. Once again, those using the self-assessment chatbot scored, on average, 92%, while those using Gemini scored 68%.

The present study investigates whether the relative superiority of the personalized chatbot to Chat GPT in learning a completely different topic area: biology. A similar paradigm that has been used in other experiments is used here.

Method

Participants

A total of 56 high school students participated. All participants were enrolled in secondary-level science courses and had prior exposure to general cell biology concepts, though cell communication had not yet been formally assessed.

Materials and Chatbot Technology

Both the control and experimental chatbots were built using the same underlying instructional framework and content base. Each chatbot functioned as a rule-guided educational assistant designed to answer student questions and explain concepts related to cell communication. Responses were constrained to align with the instructional notes, ensuring consistency in content coverage and explanation quality across conditions. Both chatbots were designed as web-based applications using HTML, CSS, and JavaScript for the front-end interface and Node.js for the backend server.

The control chatbot represented a baseline system in which students could freely ask questions and receive immediate explanations. However, this version did not assess or adapt to the student's level of understanding, and each interaction was treated independently. The experimental chatbot incorporated a self-evaluation system embedded into the interaction flow.

Before receiving explanations, students were prompted to reflect on their understanding of specific concepts.

The chatbot system used a client–server architecture. The front-end handled all user interaction, including displaying questions, recording self-assessment scores, and presenting chatbot responses. Student self-assessment data were stored locally in the browser using localStorage, allowing the chatbot to dynamically access and update the student’s knowledge profile throughout the session.

The backend server was implemented using Node.js with the Express framework. This server acted as a secure relay between the front-end chatbot and the ChatGPT large language model, accessed through the OpenAI API. Storing the API key as an environment variable on the server ensured that sensitive credentials were not exposed in the browser, maintaining security and replicability. The backend processed incoming student messages, self-assessment data, and instructional constraints before forwarding a structured request to ChatGPT.

ChatGPT was integrated as the core natural language generation engine for both chatbot conditions. Instead of returning pre-written or static responses, ChatGPT generated adaptive, context-aware explanations in real time.

In the experimental chatbot, the self-evaluation profile was explicitly embedded into the system prompt used by ChatGPT. When a student demonstrated lower self-rated understanding in a given category, the chatbot was instructed to provide step-by-step explanations, diagrams in text form, or scaffolded reasoning. Conversely, higher-rated categories received more concise explanations. This adaptive scaffolding mechanism distinguishes the experimental chatbot from the control chatbot, which responds to questions without using self-evaluation data to modify explanations.

Procedure

Students studied standardized instructional notes covering cell communication, including signaling types, receptors, signal transduction pathways, second messengers, and cellular responses. These materials were identical across conditions. The instructional content aligned directly with the assessment objectives measured on the post-instruction quiz, ensuring content validity. Students were allowed unlimited time to review these instructional materials and to interact with their assigned chatbot during the study phase. However, once the quiz began, all instructional materials were removed, preventing students from using the materials and chatbot

Following the study phase, students completed a Cell Communication quiz administered through Google Forms. During the quiz, students were allowed to continue using their assigned chatbot,

but they were not allowed to access the Google Slides or any written notes. The chatbot remained restricted to explanation-based assistance only and was unable to directly supply multiple-choice answers or complete free-response items. This condition mirrored real-world tutoring support, where guidance is provided without solving problems for the learner.

Quiz scores were collected automatically through Google Forms and exported to Excel for analysis. Scores from the experimental and control groups were compared to determine whether the inclusion of a self-evaluation system in the chatbot resulted in statistically significant differences in learning outcomes.

Results

Across all participants ($N = 56$), students using the experimental self-evaluation chatbot achieved a higher mean quiz score ($M = 15.82$ out of 20 questions or 79.3%) than those using the control chatbot ($M = 12.21$ out of 20 questions or 61.1%). This difference is statistically significant, $t(54) = 6.72, p < .0001$.

This represents an improvement of approximately 18.2 percentage points, a gain substantially larger than those reported in earlier chatbot-only learning experiments. Previous baseline chatbot studies typically showed modest improvements or mixed results, often within single-digit percentage increases. In contrast, the present results indicate a large and educationally meaningful effect. Notably, the chatbot's explanatory capabilities remained constant across conditions. The improvement therefore reflects the impact of interaction structure, not content quality.

Discussion

The results showed that Participants who used the self-assessment chatbot, scored on average, 18.2 percentage points higher on the posttest than those who used Chat GPT alone. This suggests that providing chatbot with learners' knowledge needs and directing them to use those needs when answering questions (as opposed to giving general answers) can improve learning and this effect is not limited to just math, which was the topic area of our previous studies. Future research can compare self-assessment chatbots to other LLMs and subject areas to bolster the claim that having a chatbot use self-assessment information improves learning. Moreover, implementing the knowledge assessment and transfer to the chatbot through the self-assessment paradigm allows this enhancement to be implemented in a way that involves minimal updating to chatbots (and without changing their fundamental makeup) and minimal intrusion on the user. This provides the best of both worlds.

Given that this one intervention can dramatically improve chatbot effectiveness, the question arises as to whether there are other interventions that can also improve learning. (We use the term learning because it seems that chatbots focus on delivery of information, but information is useless until it is learned.) Variables that could be examined include learner variables (e.g., learning style, age), characteristics of the material (how advanced it is, is it abstract or sensory based), type of question (is it asking for facts, procedures, reasons?) and types of answers (informational, analogical). In a previous study, we found that how one answers a question can double how well the questioner learns the material (Leddo et al., 2021).

A final area of investigation is one that appears to be universally neglected by chatbots and even search engines. Chatbots, LLMs and search engines dutifully respond to queries by providing relevant (in most cases) information. However, information is useless until it is learned. Current chatbots, LLMs and search engines do not check to see if the recipient of the information understood the information/answer that was delivered. This may not be as easy as it seems. While humans frequently ask each other "Did you understand what I just said?", research by Leddo, Clark and Clark (2021) suggests that people are not always accurate in knowing whether they did or did not understand something. In their study, both middle schoolers and adults were given an algebra lesson and then asked if they understood what they were taught. They were then given problems to solve based on the taught topic. Both middle schoolers and adults missed a third of the problems that tested what they said they understood. Interestingly, while adults proved relatively accurate in determining when they did not understand something, correctly answering only 10% of the problems that tested what they said they did not understand, middle schoolers actually correctly answered a third of the problems that tested what they said they did not understand. In cases such as these, (self)CSA might serve as a means to measure how much people understand the answers given by chatbots.

Even then, checking for understanding will not matter unless the chatbot can adjust how it answer questions to improve that understanding. A solution to this may be to create a feedback loop in which answers to questions are given, users are assessed for understanding and then feedback from the assessment is used in a machine learning program to update the effectiveness of types of answers to types of questions for types of users.

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