

# HOW LEARNING WORKS

## 7 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. describe the learning process
2. explain the role of the teacher and the learner
3. identify the factors that influence learning
4. describe the different types of learning
5. explain the importance of assessment
6. describe the different types of assessment
7. explain the importance of feedback

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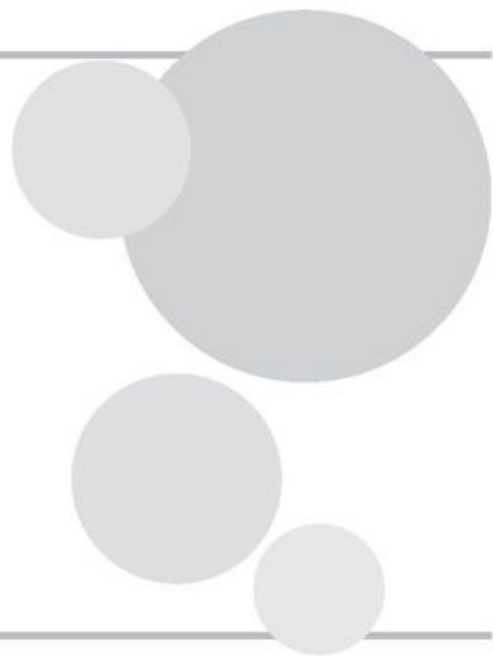
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# How Learning Works

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Seven Research-Based  
Principles for Smart Teaching

Susan A. Ambrose, Michael W. Bridges,  
Michele DiPietro, Marsha C. Lovett,  
Marie K. Norman

*Foreword by Richard E. Mayer*

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*To the faculty and graduate instructors of Carnegie Mellon, whose dedication to student learning  
continues to inspire us.*

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## FOREWORD: APPLYING THE SCIENCE OF LEARNING TO COLLEGE TEACHING

In 1899, the famous American psychologist, William James published a little book called *Talks to Teachers*, in which he sought to explain how to apply psychology to education—that is, he sought to use what he called “the science of the mind’s workings” to generate practical advice for classroom teachers. At the time, the book was not much of a success, largely for two reasons: (a) there was a lack of research evidence on how learning works (that is, the science of learning), and (b) there was a lack of research-based principles concerning how to help people learn (that is, the science of instruction).

Much has happened in the learning sciences in the past 100 years, particularly in the last few decades. We finally have the makings of a research-based theory of how people learn that is educationally relevant (that is, the science of learning) and a set of evidence-based principles for how to help people learn that is grounded in cognitive theory (that is, the science of instruction). Indeed, these are exciting times if you are interested in fulfilling William James’s mission of applying the science of learning to education.

The book you are holding—*How Learning Works: Seven Research-Based Principles for Smart Teaching*—is the latest advancement in the continuing task of applying the science of learning to education—particularly, college teaching. The authors are experts in helping college teachers understand how research in the science of learning can improve their teaching. If you are interested in what research in the science of learning and instruction has to say for you as a college teacher, then this book is for you.

The book is organized around seven learning principles—each a gem that is based on research evidence from the science of learning and the science of instruction. The principles concern the role of the student’s prior knowledge, motivation, and developmental level, as well as opportunities for the student to practice, receive feedback, and learn to become a self-directed learner. Each chapter focuses on one of the principles, such as “Students’ prior knowledge can help or hinder learning.” Each chapter begins with a concrete scenario in college teaching that exemplifies the principle being highlighted in the chapter, provides a clear statement and rationale for the principle, summarizes the underlying research and its implications, and offers specific advice on how to apply the principle.

Consider the following scenario: You are teaching a course in your field. Based on years of study and work, you are an expert in your field—but you are certainly not an expert in how to teach others about your field. In fact, you have almost no training in how to teach. Yet a fundamental part of your job involves college teaching. You have devised a teaching style that works for you, but you wonder whether there is any way to base what you are doing on scientific principles of learning and teaching. This description fits many college teachers.

The book you are holding is based on the idea that you wish to consider taking an evidence-based approach to college teaching—that is, you wish to inform your instructional decisions with research evidence and research-based theory. Why should you take an evidence-based approach? You could base your instructional choices on fads, ideology, opinions, expert advice, or habit—but these approaches may not be ideal if your goal is to be an effective teacher. Admittedly, advice from experts and your own personal experience can be useful aids to you in planning instruction, but they may be incomplete. In taking an evidence-based approach, you seek to add to your knowledge base by discovering what works and how it works. In short, it is helpful to understand what the science of learning has to offer you in your role as a college teacher.

Where should you look for help in improving your college teaching? Consider three common choices:

*Sources that are too hard*—You could try to digest research articles in the field of learning and instruction, but you might find them somewhat tedious and perhaps daunting. This approach is to

hard because it focuses on scientific evidence without much focus on how to apply the evidence teaching.

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*Sources that are too soft*—You could read self-help guides that offer practical advice that is not necessarily based on research evidence or research-based theory. This approach is too soft because it focuses on practical advice without supporting evidence or theory to back up the advice.

*Sources that are just right*—You could read this book, which synthesizes empirical research evidence and research-based learning theory into practical advice for how to improve your college teaching. In short, the strength of this book is that it combines research evidence and practical advice to produce an evidence-based approach to improving your college teaching. If you are interested in what the science of learning has to contribute to your college teaching, then this book is for you.

What should you look for in this book? In reading this book, I suggest that you look to make sure that it meets four basic criteria for applying the science of learning to your college teaching:

*Theory-grounded*: the advice is grounded in a research-based theory of how people learn

*Evidence-based*: the advice is supported by empirical research evidence showing how to help people learn

*Relevant*: the advice has clear and practical implications for how to improve your teaching

*Clear*: the advice is understandable, concrete, and concise

As you read about each of the seven basic learning principles in this book, you will find advice that is grounded in learning theory, based on research evidence, relevant to college teaching, and easy to understand. The authors have extensive knowledge and experience in applying the science of learning to college teaching, and they graciously share it with you in this organized and readable book.

I congratulate you for your interest in improving your teaching and commend you for taking the important step of reading this book. If you want to improve your teaching, it is useful to understand what research says about how learning works and about how to foster learning. In light of these goals, I welcome you to the feast of evidence-based advice you will find in this volume.

*Richard E. Mayer University of California, Santa Barbara*

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Writing this book was a significant undertaking, which we would not have been able to complete without the help of many friends and colleagues. Although many faculty colleagues across disciplines and institutions have found these principles helpful and encouraged us to publish them, it was Rich Mayer who, after seeing a presentation of our learning principles, convinced us to share them with the larger education community. Little did he know that his encouragement would lead to more work for him! We are thrilled and grateful to Rich for writing the Foreword to this book.

We are forever in debt to Judy Brooks, our talented graphic designer, who cheerfully endured our endless wordsmithing, listening carefully, and asking insightful questions, in order to help us put our ideas into images for the figures in this book. Judy, we salute you! We also cannot express enough thanks to Hilary Franklin, a Ph.D. student working with us, who read every chapter with her characteristic precision and intelligence and provided invaluable feedback that forced us to recognize and address our own “expert blind spots.” Aimee Kane joined our group late in the writing process and yet we cannot imagine how we functioned before she became our colleague. Her thoughtful and reflective responses to the chapters added a fresh and indispensable perspective and left an indelible mark on the finished product. We were also extremely lucky to have had the help of our former colleague Anne Fay throughout the early phases of planning and writing the book. Her ability to remember and access every research study she has ever read was truly awe inspiring. In addition, our “internal” editor, Lisa Ritter, applied her exacting standards and patience to the job of copy editing the manuscript, thus freeing us to continue revising ad infinitum; we thank her for a job well done.

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Finally, we would never have embarked upon this endeavor in the first place if it were not for the thousands of faculty members and graduate students with whom we have worked over the years. We are humbled by your ongoing dedication to your students and by your willingness to share your stories and experiences, open up your courses to us, and reflect thoughtfully on and refine your teaching practice. We continue to learn and benefit from our interactions with you, and we hope this book provides something useful in return.

## ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Susan A. Ambrose is associate provost for education, director of the Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence, and teaching professor in the Department of History at Carnegie Mellon. She received her doctorate in American history from Carnegie Mellon in 1986 and has been at the Eberly Center since its inception. Her major responsibilities include identifying and responding to changing educational needs that impact faculty and graduate students, maintaining overall operation of the Eberly Center and overseeing the Intercultural Communication Center and the Office of Academic Development. Susan Ambrose has been a visiting scholar for the American Society of Engineering Education and the National Science Foundation, and was awarded an American Council on Education fellowship to study leadership styles of two university presidents. She has coauthored three books and published more than twenty-five chapters, articles, and commissioned reports in such areas as faculty satisfaction, engineering education, teaching and learning, and women in science and engineering. In recent years she has received funding from the National Science Foundation, the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, the Lilly Endowment, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the Eden Hall Foundation, and the ALCOA Foundation. She also teaches courses on immigration, particularly Mexican and Asian immigration to the United States.

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Marsha C. Lovett is associate director for faculty development at the Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence and associate teaching professor in the Department of Psychology at Carnegie Mellon. The question that drives her work is how people learn. She has studied this question from various perspectives, as a graduate student, postdoctoral researcher, and assistant professor in Carnegie Mellon's Psychology Department. Her research combines computational and mathematical modeling, controlled experiments, and classroom observation. She has studied learning in several disciplines including geometry, physics, linear algebra, programming, and statistics, at the high school and college levels. She designed and developed *StatTutor*, a computer-based tutor that helps students learn the skills of data analysis. Her teaching has included undergraduate and graduate courses on research

methods, the analysis of verbal data, and the nature of expertise. At the Eberly Center, Lovett applies theoretical and empirical principles from cognitive psychology to help instructors improve their teaching. She has published more than thirty research articles on learning and instruction and is co-editor of the book *Thinking with Data*. In recent years, she has received funding from the National Science Foundation, the Office of Naval Research, and the Spencer Foundation.

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## Introduction: Bridging Learning Research and Teaching Practice

Learning results from what the student does and thinks and only from what the student does and thinks. The teacher can advance learning only by influencing what the student does to learn.

*HERBERT A. SIMON,<sup>1</sup> one of the founders of the field of Cognitive Science, Nobel Laureate, and University Professor (deceased) at Carnegie Mellon University*

As the quotation above suggests, any conversation about effective teaching must begin with consideration of how students learn. Yet instructors who want to investigate the mechanisms and conditions that promote student learning may find themselves caught between two kinds of resource: research articles with technical discussions of learning, or books and Web sites with concrete strategies for course design and classroom pedagogy. Texts of the first type focus on learning but are often technical, inaccessible, and lack clear application to the classroom, while texts of the second type are written in accessible language but often leave instructors without a clear sense of why (or even whether) particular strategies promote learning. Neither of these genres offers what many instructors really need—a model of student learning that enables them to make sound teaching decisions. In other words, instructors need a bridge between research and practice, between teaching and learning.

We wrote this book to provide such a bridge. The book grew out of over twenty-nine years of experience consulting with faculty colleagues about teaching and learning. In these consultations, we encountered a number of recurring problems that spanned disciplines, course types, and student skill levels. Many of these problems raised fundamental questions about student learning. For example: Why can't students apply what they have learned? Why do they cling so tightly to misconceptions? Why are they not more engaged by material I find so interesting? Why do they claim to know so much more than they actually know? Why do they continue to employ the same ineffective study strategies?

As we worked with faculty to explore the sources of these problems, we turned to the research on learning, and from this research we distilled seven principles, each of which crystallizes a key aspect of student learning. These principles have become the foundation for our work. Not only have we found them indispensable in our own teaching and in our consultations with faculty, but as we have talked and worked with thousands of faculty from around the world, we have also found that these principles resonate across disciplines, institution types, and cultures, from Latin America to Asia. In our experience, these principles provide instructors with an understanding of student learning that can help them (a) see *why* certain teaching approaches are or are not supporting students' learning, (b) generate or refine teaching approaches and strategies that more effectively foster student learning in specific contexts, and (c) transfer and apply these principles to new courses.

In this book, we offer these principles of learning, along with a discussion of the research that supports them, their implications for teaching, and a set of instructional strategies targeting each principle. Before briefly summarizing the full set of principles and discussing the characteristics that we share and some ways that this book can be used, we begin by discussing what we mean by learning.

### WHAT IS LEARNING?

Any set of learning principles is predicated on a definition of learning. In this book, we define learning as a *process* that leads to *change*, which occurs as a result of *experience* and increases the potential for improved performance and future learning (adapted from Mayer, 2002). There are three critical components to this definition:

1. Learning is a *process*, not a product. However, because this process takes place in the mind, v

can only infer that it has occurred from students' products or performances.

- ~~2. Learning involves *change* in knowledge, beliefs, behaviors, or attitudes. This change unfolds over time; it is not fleeting but rather has a lasting impact on how students think and act.~~
3. Learning is not something done to students, but rather something students themselves do. It is the direct result of how students interpret and respond to their *experiences*—conscious and unconscious, past and present.

## OUR PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Our seven principles of learning come from a perspective that is developmental and holistic. In other words, we begin with the recognition that (a) learning is a developmental process that intersects with other developmental processes in a student's life, and (b) students enter our classrooms not only with skills, knowledge, and abilities, but also with social and emotional experiences that influence what they value, how they perceive themselves and others, and how they will engage in the learning process. Consistent with this holistic perspective, readers should understand that, although we address each principle individually to highlight particular issues pertaining to student learning, they all work in real learning situations and are functionally inseparable.

In the paragraphs below, we briefly summarize each of the principles in the order in which they are discussed in the book.

*Students' prior knowledge can help or hinder learning.*

Students come into our courses with knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes gained in other courses and through daily life. As students bring this knowledge to bear in our classrooms, it influences how they filter and interpret what they are learning. If students' prior knowledge is robust and accurate and activated at the appropriate time, it provides a strong foundation for building new knowledge. However, when knowledge is inert, insufficient for the task, activated inappropriately, or inaccurate, it can interfere with or impede new learning.

*How students organize knowledge influences how they learn and apply what they know.*

Students naturally make connections between pieces of knowledge. When those connections form knowledge structures that are accurately and meaningfully organized, students are better able to retrieve and apply their knowledge effectively and efficiently. In contrast, when knowledge is not connected in accurate or random ways, students can fail to retrieve or apply it appropriately.

*Students' motivation determines, directs, and sustains what they do to learn.*

As students enter college and gain greater autonomy over what, when, and how they study and learn, motivation plays a critical role in guiding the direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of their learning behaviors in which they engage. When students find positive value in a learning goal or activity, expect to successfully achieve a desired learning outcome, and perceive support from the environment, they are likely to be strongly motivated to learn.

*To develop mastery, students must acquire component skills, practice integrating them, and know when to apply what they have learned.*

Students must develop not only the component skills and knowledge necessary to perform complex tasks, they must also practice combining and integrating them to develop greater fluency and automaticity. Finally, students must learn when and how to apply the skills and knowledge they learn. As instructors, it is important that we develop conscious awareness of these elements of mastery so that we can help our students learn more effectively.

*Goal-directed practice coupled with targeted feedback enhances the quality of students' learning.*

Learning and performance are best fostered when students engage in practice that focuses on a specific goal or criterion, targets an appropriate level of challenge, and is of sufficient quantity and frequency to meet the performance criteria. Practice must be coupled with feedback that explicitly

communicates about some aspect(s) of students' performance relative to specific target criteria, provides information to help students progress in meeting those criteria, and is given at a time and frequency that allows it to be useful.

*Students' current level of development interacts with the social, emotional, and intellectual climate of the course to impact learning.*

Students are not only intellectual but also social and emotional beings, and they are still developing the full range of intellectual, social, and emotional skills. While we cannot control the development process, we can shape the intellectual, social, emotional, and physical aspects of the classroom climate in developmentally appropriate ways. In fact, many studies have shown that the climate we create has implications for our students. A negative climate may impede learning and performance, but a positive climate can energize students' learning.

*To become self-directed learners, students must learn to monitor and adjust their approaches to learning.*

Learners may engage in a variety of metacognitive processes to monitor and control their learning—assessing the task at hand, evaluating their own strengths and weaknesses, planning their approach, applying and monitoring various strategies, and reflecting on the degree to which their current approach is working. Unfortunately, students tend not to engage in these processes naturally. When students develop the skills to engage these processes, they gain intellectual habits that not only improve their performance but also their effectiveness as learners.

### **WHAT MAKES THESE PRINCIPLES POWERFUL?**

The principal strength of these seven principles is that they are based directly on research, drawing on literature from cognitive, developmental, and social psychology, anthropology, education, and diversity studies, and research targeting not only higher education but also K-12 education. Although, of course, this is not an exhaustive review and any summary of research necessarily simplifies a host of complexities for the sake of accessibility, we believe that our discussions of the research underlying each principle are faithful to the scholarship and describe features of learning about which there is widespread agreement. Indeed, several of our principles converge with those that others have delineated (Pittsburgh Science of Learning Center, 2009; American Psychological Society, 2008), a convergence that we believe attests to their salience.

Not only are these principles research-based, but as we have shared them with colleagues over the years, we have found that they are

- *Domain-independent:* They apply equally well across all subject areas, from biology to design to history to robotics; the fundamental factors that impact the way students learn transcend disciplinary differences.
- *Experience-independent.* The principles apply to all educational levels and pedagogical situations. In other words, although the pedagogical implications of a principle will be somewhat different for first-year undergraduate students in a lab environment as opposed to graduate students in a studio environment, the principle still applies.
- *Cross-culturally relevant:* Although the research we identified has been conducted primarily in the Western world, faculty colleagues in other countries have resonated with the principles, finding them relevant to their own classes and students. However, it is important to bear in mind that culture can and does influence how the principles should be applied as instructors design and teach their courses.

### **INTENDED AUDIENCES**

This book is intended for anyone interested in understanding more about how students learn and applying that information to improve instruction. This includes—but is not limited to—faculty members, graduate students, faculty developers, instructional designers, and librarians. It also

includes K-12 educators. In addition, the principles outlined here are valuable for instructors at all experience levels. They can help new and inexperienced instructors understand the components of effective course design and classroom pedagogy. They can help experienced instructors troubleshoot problems or adapt effective strategies to suit new courses or student populations. They can also help highly successful and experienced instructors reflect on what makes their approaches and methods effective. Finally, these principles can enable faculty members to better support student learning without having to rely on outside experts (a benefit that is particularly valuable for faculty on campuses without teaching and learning centers).

### **HOW TO READ THIS BOOK**

Each chapter in this book begins with stories that represent teaching situations that we hope will strike readers as familiar. Although the instructors described in these stories are fictional, the scenarios are authentic, representing composites of real problems we have encountered over many years of consulting with faculty. We analyze these stories to identify the core problems or issues involved and use them to introduce the learning principle relevant to those problems. Then we discuss the principle in relation to the research that underlies it. Finally, we provide a set of strategies to help instructors design instruction with that principle in mind.

Because all of these principles combine to influence learning, no one principle stands alone. Consequently, the chapters can be read in any order. Moreover, the book can be read in conjunction with our Web site, which provides additional strategies, applications, sample materials, and resources. The URL is <http://www.cmu.edu/teaching>.

### **NOTE**

1 Herb Simon was a university professor at Carnegie Mellon University and had joint appointments in the departments of psychology and computer science. While at Carnegie Mellon, Herb played a major role in the development of the Graduate School of Industrial Administration (renamed the Tepper School of Business in 2004), the Department of Psychology, the School of Computer Science, and the College of Humanities and Social Sciences. He was one of the founding fathers of the fields of cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence, and won the Nobel Prize in Economics in 1978 and the National Medal of Science in 1986. For many years (until his death), Herb served as a member of the Advisory Committee to the Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence. He was often heard paraphrasing this quote from Elliott Dunlap Smith, a past president of Carnegie Mellon University.

**But They Said They Knew This!**

I recently taught Research Methods in Decision Sciences for the first time. On the first day of class, I asked my students what kinds of statistical tests they had learned in the introductory statistics course that is a prerequisite for my course. They generated a fairly standard list that included T-tests, chi-square, and ANOVA. Given what they told me, I was pretty confident that my first assignment was pitched at the appropriate level; it simply required that students take a data set that I provided, select and apply the appropriate statistical test from those they had already learned, analyze the data, and interpret the results. It seemed pretty basic, but I was shocked at what they handed in. Some students chose a completely inappropriate test while others chose the right test but did not have the foggiest idea how to apply it. Still others could not interpret the results. What I can't figure out is why they told me they knew this stuff when it's clear from their work that most of them don't have a clue.

*Professor Soo Yon Won*

**Why Is This So Hard for Them to Understand?**

Every year in my introductory psychology class I teach my students about classic learning theory, particularly the concepts of positive and negative reinforcement. I know that these can be tough concepts for students to grasp, so I spell out very clearly that *reinforcement* always refers to increasing a behavior and *punishment* always refers to decreasing a behavior. I also emphasize that, contrary to what they might assume, *negative reinforcement* does not mean punishment; it means removing something aversive to increase a desired behavior. I also provide a number of concrete examples to illustrate what I mean. But it seems that no matter how much I explain the concept, students continue to think of negative reinforcement as punishment. In fact, when I asked about negative reinforcement on a recent exam, almost 60 percent of the class got it wrong. Why is this so hard for students to understand?

*Professor Anatole Dione*

**WHAT IS GOING ON IN THESE STORIES ?**

The instructors in these stories seem to be doing all the right things. Professor Won takes the time to gauge students' knowledge of statistical tests so that she can pitch her own instruction at the appropriate level. Professor Dione carefully explains a difficult concept, provides concrete examples, and even gives an explicit warning about a common misconception. Yet neither instructor's strategy is having the desired effect on students' learning and performance. To understand why, it is helpful to consider the effect of students' prior knowledge on new learning.

Professor Won assumes that students have learned and retained basic statistical skills in the prerequisite course, an assumption that is confirmed by the students' self-report. In actuality, although students have some knowledge—they are able to identify and describe a variety of statistical tests—this may not be sufficient for Professor Won's assignment, which requires them to determine which particular tests are appropriate, apply the right test for the problem, and then interpret the results. Her predicament stems from a mismatch between the knowledge students have and the knowledge their instructor expects and needs them to have to function effectively in her course.

In Professor Dione's case it is not what students do *not* know that hurts them but rather what they *do* know. His students, like many of us, have come to associate positive with "good" and negative with "bad," an association that is appropriate in many contexts, but not in this one. When students are introduced to the concept of negative reinforcement in relation to classic learning theory, their prior understanding of "negative" may interfere with their ability to absorb the technical definition. Instead of grasping that the "negative" in negative reinforcement involves removing something to get

positive change (an example would be a mother who promises to quit nagging if her son will clean his room), students interpret the word “negative” to imply a negative response, or punishment. In other words, their prior knowledge triggers an inappropriate association that ultimately intrudes on and distorts the incoming knowledge.

### WHAT PRINCIPLE OF LEARNING IS AT WORK HERE?

As we teach, we often try to enhance our students’ understanding of the course content by connecting it to their knowledge and experiences from earlier in the same course, from previous courses, or from everyday life. But sometimes—like Professor Won—we overestimate students’ prior knowledge and thus build new knowledge on a shaky foundation. Or we find—like Professor Dione—that our students are bringing prior knowledge to bear that is not appropriate to the context and which is distorting their comprehension. Similarly, we may uncover misconceptions and inaccuracies in students’ prior knowledge that are actively interfering with their ability to learn the new material.

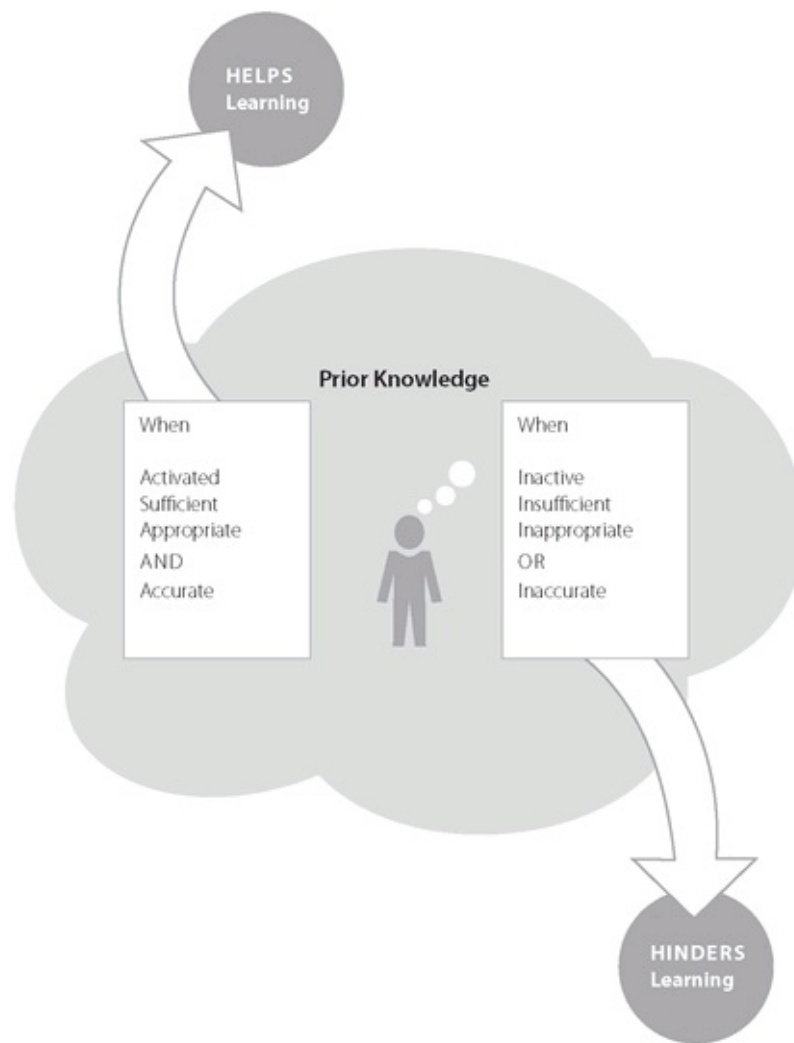
Although, as instructors, we can and should build on students’ prior knowledge, it is also important to recognize that not all prior knowledge provides an equally solid foundation for new learning.

***Principle: Students’ prior knowledge can help or hinder learning.***

Students do not come into our courses as blank slates, but rather with knowledge gained in other courses and through daily life. This knowledge consists of an amalgam of facts, concepts, models, perceptions, beliefs, values, and attitudes, some of which are accurate, complete, and appropriate for the context, some of which are inaccurate, insufficient for the learning requirements of the course, or simply inappropriate for the context. As students bring this knowledge to bear in our classrooms, it influences how they filter and interpret incoming information.

Ideally, students build on a foundation of robust and accurate prior knowledge, forging links between previously acquired and new knowledge that help them construct increasingly complex and robust knowledge structures (see Chapter Two). However, students may not make connections with relevant prior knowledge spontaneously. If they do not draw on relevant prior knowledge—in other words, if that knowledge is *inactive*—it may not facilitate the integration of new knowledge. Moreover, if students’ prior knowledge is *insufficient* for a task or learning situation, it may fail to support new knowledge, whereas if it is inappropriate for the context or *inaccurate*, it may actively distort or impede new learning. This is illustrated in [Figure 1.1](#).

**[Figure 1.1](#).** Qualities of Prior Knowledge That Help or Hinder Learning



Understanding what students know—or think they know—coming into our courses can help us design our instruction more appropriately. It allows us not only to leverage their accurate knowledge more effectively to promote learning, but also to identify and fill gaps, recognize when students are applying what they know inappropriately, and actively work to correct misconceptions.

### **WHAT DOES THE RESEARCH TELL US ABOUT PRIOR KNOWLEDGE?**

Students connect what they learn to what they already know, interpreting incoming information, and even sensory perception, through the lens of their existing knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions (Vygotsky, 1978; National Research Council, 2000). In fact, there is widespread agreement among researchers that students *must* connect new knowledge to previous knowledge in order to learn (Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Resnick, 1983). However, the extent to which students are able to draw on prior knowledge to *effectively* construct new knowledge depends on the nature of their prior knowledge, as well as the instructor’s ability to harness it. In the following sections, we discuss research that investigates the effects of various kinds of prior knowledge on student learning and explore its implications for teaching.

#### ***Activating Prior Knowledge***

When students can connect what they are learning to accurate and relevant prior knowledge, they learn and retain more. In essence, new knowledge “sticks” better when it has prior knowledge to stick to. One study focused on recall, for example, participants with variable knowledge of soccer were presented with scores from different soccer matches and their recall was tested. People with more prior knowledge of soccer recalled more scores (Morris et al., 1981). Similarly, research conducted by Kole and Healy (2007) showed that college students who were presented with unfamiliar facts about well-known individuals demonstrated twice the capacity to learn and retain those facts as students who were presented with the same number of facts about unfamiliar individuals. Both these studies



illustrate how prior knowledge of a topic can help students integrate new information.

However, students may not spontaneously bring their prior knowledge to bear on new learning situations (see the discussion of transfer in Chapter Four). Thus, it is important to help students activate prior knowledge so they can build on it productively. Indeed, research suggests that even small instructional interventions can activate students' relevant prior knowledge to positive effect. For instance, in one famous study by Gick and Holyoak (1980), college students were presented with two problems that required them to apply the concept of convergence. The researchers found that even when the students knew the solution to the first problem, the vast majority did not think to apply an analogous solution to the second problem. However, when the instructor suggested to students that they think about the second problem in relation to the first, 80 percent of the student participants were able to solve it. In other words, with minor prompts and simple reminders, instructors can activate relevant prior knowledge so that students draw on it more effectively (Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Dooling & Lachman, 1971).

Research also suggests that asking students questions specifically designed to trigger recall can help them use prior knowledge to aid the integration and retention of new information (Woloshyn, Paivola, & Pressley, 1994). For example, Martin and Pressley (1991) asked Canadian adults to read about events that had occurred in various Canadian provinces. Prior to any instructional intervention, the researchers found that study participants often failed to use their relevant prior knowledge to logically situate events in the provinces where they occurred, and thus had difficulty remembering specific facts. However, when the researchers asked a set of "why" questions (for example, "Why would Ontario have been the first place baseball was played?"), participants were forced to draw on their prior knowledge of Canadian history and relate it logically to the new information. The researchers found that this intervention, which they called *elaborative interrogation*, improved learning and retention significantly.

Researchers have also found that if students are asked to generate relevant knowledge from previous courses or their own lives, it can help to facilitate their integration of new material (Peacock, Van Den Bosch, & Kruepeling, 1982). For example, Garfield and her colleagues (Garfield, Del Mas, & Chance, 2007) designed an instructional study in a college statistics course that focused on the concept of variability—a notoriously difficult concept to grasp. The instructors first collected baseline data on students' understanding of variability at the end of a traditionally taught course. The following semester, they redesigned the course so that students were asked to generate examples of activities from their own lives that had either high or low variability, to represent them graphically, and draw on them as they reasoned about various aspects of variability. While both groups of students continued to struggle with the concept, post-tests showed that students who had generated relevant prior knowledge outperformed students in the baseline class two to one.

Exercises to generate prior knowledge can be a double-edged sword, however, if the knowledge that students generate is inaccurate or inappropriate for the context (Alvermann, Smith, & Readance, 1985). Problems involving inaccurate and inappropriate prior knowledge will be addressed in the next two sections.

**Implications of This Research** Students learn more readily when they can connect what they are learning to what they already know. However, instructors should not assume that students will immediately or naturally draw on relevant prior knowledge. Instead, they should deliberately activate students' prior knowledge to help them forge robust links to new knowledge.

#### *Accurate but Insufficient Prior Knowledge*

Even when students' prior knowledge is accurate and activated, it may not be sufficient to support subsequent learning or a desired level of performance. Indeed, when students possess some relevant knowledge, it can lead both students and instructors to assume that students are better prepared than



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