

MODULE 1 BASICS ISSUES IN MATHEMATICS EDUCATION

Unit1	Aims and Objectives of Teaching Mathematics
Unit2	Features of the New 9-Year Basic Mathematics Curriculum
Unit3	Components of Effective Mathematics Instruction
Unit4	Mathematics Instruction for Students with Learning Difficulties

UNIT 1 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING MATHEMATICS**CONTENTS**

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Every year, at the beginning of the semester, I ask my group of student-teachers “why do we teach mathematics? What do we want to achieve in our mathematics lessons?” These were the questions which I asked myself in joining the profession as a mathematics teacher. In fact, they are good questions which all teachers should ask themselves from time to time in their daily practice. Different teachers may have different answers to these questions. Some possible answers to the first question are “mathematics is important and useful in our daily life”; “mathematics is the basis for other subjects such as science and engineering”; “mathematics helps us develop logical thinking” and “mathematics helps us find the right way to solve problems”. Some even say “I like mathematics, so I would like to help my students appreciate the subject”. Each of these answers suggests a reason for the importance of mathematics or school mathematics in the teacher’s mind. Nevertheless, each answer is only a partial answer to the question. To look for a comprehensive answer, we inevitably need to address the question why mathematics is essential in our world.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain mathematics as an important part of understanding our world
- prove that the subject and its applications in science, commerce and technology are important if students are to understand and appreciate the relationships and patterns of both number and space in their daily life
- express what mathematics is clearly and concisely
- explain that mathematics also help students to develop

their capacity of reasoning so that they could think more logically and independently in making rational decisions.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Importance of Mathematics

In the past, teaching objectives in Mathematics were limited to having students memorise facts and obtain skills in manipulating and calculating numbers. Memorising of rules and mechanical manipulation of numbers were considered sufficient. Today, we emphasize skill in compilation as well as skill in mastery of ideas and understanding of operations. The application of knowledge and facts to new situations is the best criterion of effective learning. Applications need clear understanding, close study and concentrated attention. Hence the teacher of mathematics has to develop all these habits and attitudes in the pupils.

There should be no insistence upon memorizing facts. So the chief value of mathematics study is that it trains you in the use of reasoning power. Hence in teaching, the teachers should emphasize thinking and reasoning, rather than memory work and rote learning.

To the students, the solving of a difficult problem is a discovery and constitutes training in such work. The chief aim of teaching mathematics is to develop these faculties that lead to discovery and inventions. The famous pedagogue, Schultze, remarks that “mathematical study trains the students in systematic and orderly habits and the pleasure connected with the successful conquering of a difficulty stimulate will power”. It also cultivates the power of attention, for in mathematics, the slightest lack in attention is ruinous. Mathematics makes constant demands upon imagination (Prakash, 2011).

To enable students to cope confidently with the mathematics needed in their future studies, workplaces or daily life in a technological and information-rich society, the curriculum should aim at developing in the students:

- the ability to conceptualise, inquire, reason and communicate mathematically, and to use mathematics to formulate and solve problems in daily life as well as in mathematical contexts
- the ability to manipulate numbers, symbols and other mathematical objects
- the number sense, symbol sense, spatial sense and a sense of measurement as well as the capability in appreciating structures and patterns
- a positive attitude towards mathematics and the capability of appreciating the aesthetic nature and cultural aspect of mathematics

The main goals of teaching mathematics at the primary level (ages 6 to 12 years) are to help

students to acquire:

- a) the basic skills in numeracy
- b) the ability to use these skills to solve problems
- c) the ability to estimate and make or calculate approximations and
- d) the ability to interpret graphs and arrangements of numerical data

More specifically, the curriculum should be outlined so that students should be able to:

- a) master the skills in writing numbers, counting and stating place value
- b) acquire the basic skills in the four basic operations of adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing
- c) acquire the ability to measure, weigh, state time and specify the face value of currency
- d) identify and state the shapes of objects and be able to know the properties of square, rectangles, triangles, cuboids, cylinders, spheres, cones and pyramids
- e) solve problems involving numbers, measurement, weight, money, distance, space and time
- f) estimate and calculate approximations
- g) record and read groups of data in the form of simple tables and graphs.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The study of mathematics contributes to the development of the individual and furthering an individual's scientific emancipation.

5.0 SUMMARY

Mathematics develops in the pupil the ability to acquire basic skills in numeracy and use these skills to solve problems. It also helps them to estimate and make or calculate approximations and to interpret graphs and arrangements of numerical data.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

State five reasons for the teaching of mathematics in primary schools

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UNIT 2 FEATURES OF THE NEW 9-YEAR BASIC MATHEMATICS CURRICULUM

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- 3.2 Why Do We Teach Mathematics?
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- 3.7 Organization of the 9-Year Basic Mathematics Curriculum Format
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- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The school curriculum comprises all learning and other experiences that each school plans for its pupils. The National Curriculum is an important element of the school curriculum and a teacher's awareness of this is vital for effective use of the curriculum.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain mathematics as a problem-solving activity in all areas of life
- explain mathematics as a way of communication
- explain mathematics as a way of reasoning in diverse areas of life activities
- explain mathematics as a way of connection of ideas
- describe the format of primary mathematics curriculum.

3.0 MAINCONTENT

3.1 Introduction to the New National Mathematics Curriculum for Basic Education Programme

Adeniyi(2007), in the revised edition of *National Mathematics Curriculum for Basic Education Programme* beginning from Basic 1 to 9 stated the general objectives for the 9-Year Basic Mathematics Curriculum thus: 'this revised edition of the National Mathematics Curriculum is for the Basic Education Programme beginning from Basic 1 to 9. In this new curriculum, there is no Primary Mathematics Curriculum for Junior Secondary curriculum. The two levels of education (Primaries 1-6 and JS1-3) have been infused into Basic 1-9. Pupils are expected to continue their education from Basic one to Basic nine without interruption'.

This revised curriculum became necessary because the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Bill 2004 mandated a nine-year compulsory education. Second, the National Economic, Empowerment and Development Scheme (NEEDS) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) necessitated also the need to revise this curriculum where necessary.

The revised National Mathematics Curriculum for Basic Education in Nigeria is focused on giving children the opportunity to:

- 1) acquire mathematical literacy necessary to function in an information age
- 2) cultivate the understanding and application of mathematics skills and concepts necessary to thrive in the ever-changing technological world
- 3) develop the essential element of problem solving, communication, reasoning and connection within their study of mathematics.
- 4) understand the major ideas of mathematics, bearing in mind that the world has changed and is still changing since the first National Mathematics Curriculum was developed in 1977. There is need to incorporate such changes in the areas of Information and Communications Technologies (ICT), Population and Family Life Education, Environmental Degradation, Drug Abuse and HIV/AIDS.

These gave rise to the need to make the curriculum more responsive to the survival and developmental needs of the Nigerian child. It should also be noted that this revised curriculum placed emphasis on affective domain and quantitative reasoning unlike the previous curriculum. This is to boost pupils' achievement in cognitive and psychomotor capabilities. The thematic approach was also adopted in selecting the content and learning experiences in the curriculum. This is because it is useful in accommodating new contents/programme without necessarily disrupting the entire content or curriculum structure.

There are now six themes in this revised curriculum: Number and Numeration, Basic Operations, Measurement, Algebraic Process, Geometry and Mensuration and Everyday Statistics.

This is a teaching curriculum. Thus, it provides maximal aid for the teacher by prescribing topics, objectives or expected learning outcomes stated in measurable terms, pupils' and teachers' activities and adequate evaluation guide. For this curriculum to be effective in achieving the purpose for which it is meant, the following recommendations are made:

- 1) it is strongly recommended that copies of these documents be made available to every primary school teacher and much emphasis be placed on its use in order to achieve stated objectives
- 2) there is need to organize workshops for teachers, supervisors and inspectors on how to interpret and use the curriculum
- 3) The minimum qualification for teacher teaching in Basics 1-9 is Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE). University graduates of first degree and above in various disciplines teaching in Basics 1-9 must have education qualification for the Basic Education Program to succeed.

Finally, it is our hope that the revised National Mathematics Curriculum will achieve the goals and objectives of the Universal Basic Education Programme in Nigeria as contained in the National Policy on Education (2004) and the UBE bill of 2004.

3.2 Why Do We Teach Mathematics?

What do we want to achieve in our mathematics lessons? This is a good question which all teachers should ask themselves from time to time in their daily practice. To look for a comprehensive answer, we inevitably need to address the question why mathematics is essential in our world as follows:

3.3 Mathematics as Problem Solving

Although the definition of problem solving may differ from that of NCTM's (1992), it, nevertheless, becomes the significant element to be emphasized in the teaching and learning of mathematics. Teachers are expected to intentionally teach students on the heuristics of problem solving. Although teachers are free to choose the strategy suitable for their students, they are encouraged to follow those recommended by Polya (1974). Teachers are also encouraged to simulate mathematical problems based on their daily experiences. More specifically, teachers are expected to provide varied experiences through which students can work individually or in groups in tackling mathematical problems. The curriculum places heavy emphasis on the relationships between mathematics and real life problems. Problem solving in real contexts are considered essential in helping students appreciate mathematics. In short, problem solving becomes the focus in the curriculum.

3.4 Mathematics as Communication

The curriculum clearly states that one of the objectives in learning mathematics is to acquire the ability to communicate ideas through the use of mathematical symbols or ideas. An essential part of the curriculum is to help students attain the ability to comprehend mathematical statements encountered, for example, in the mass media.

Students are expected to be able to interpret the statistics used in various reports they encounter in the mass media. In mathematics lessons, students are encouraged to work in groups on certain projects or problems.

3.5 Mathematics as Reasoning

The main goal statement clearly states that the students need to develop the ability to think logically, systemically, creatively and critically. Although this is not clearly stated in the syllabus, teachers' guides and further elaboration of the syllabus specially encourage teachers to use approaches that can simulate mathematical thinking or reasoning. The use of statistics to critically examine information as part of the lessons, for example, can be said to be in line with the aim of promoting the above thinking abilities.

3.6 Mathematical Connections

There is a strong emphasis in making connections within mathematics itself and across other subjects. In fact, the title of the curriculum suggests that making mathematical connections within itself or across other areas of study is strongly suggested. Making the connections between mathematics studied in class and material from everyday life or the environment are explicitly stated in the documents accompanying the syllabus. Through the introduction of certain facts concerning historical development in mathematics, the curriculum hopes that students should be able to see that mathematics has its origin in many cultures and is developed as responses to human needs that are both utilitarian and aesthetic.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mathematics is often regarded as the “queen” of the sciences. Briefly explain why this could be true.

Organization of the 9-Year Basic Mathematics Curriculum Format

MARY ONE

ME: NUMBER AND UNMERATION

	Performance Objectives	Contents	Activities		Teaching and Learning materials	Evaluation Guide
			Teacher	Pupils		
Sample numbers	Pupils should be able to: 1. Sort and classify number of objects in a group or collection	i. Sort and classify objects leading to idea of 1-5	1. Brings objects such as: beans, bottle tops, buttons and nylon bags 2. Mixes the collections and asks pupils to sort them according to types	1. Bring various objects such as: beans, bottle tops, buttons and nylon bags to class 2. Sort them according to types	Counters: stones, beans, bottle tops, buttons, leaves and nylon bags etc	Pupil to: 1. Sort given number of objects from a collection.
	2. Identify number of objects in a group or collection	ii. Identification of number of objects 1-5	1. Guides pupils to form groups: one for stones, two for bottle tops, three for beans, four for buttons and five for balls	Sort and classify the mixed collection by forming groups for objects e.g. pick a stone, pick two bottle tops etc	Counters: stones, beans, bottle tops, buttons, leaves and nylon bags etc	2. Arrange given number of objects from a collection together.
	3. Count correctly up to 5	iii. Reading of number 1-5	1. Asks pupils to show one bottle top, 2 bottle tops, up to 5 bottle tops 2. Reads number 1-5	Read the number 1-5 on board		3. Read given numbers on the board
	4. Write correctly number 1-5	iv. Writing of numbers 1-5	1. Writes numbers 1-5 on board 2. Leads pupils to write the numbers in order in their books	Write the number 1-5 in exercise book		4. Write number 1-5 on the board/exercise book
	5. Arrange numbers 1-5 in order of their magnitudes (quantities)	v. Ordering of number 1-5	Arranges numbers in order of their magnitude using counters and other objects	Use counters to arrange objects in magnitude or in ordering form		5. Order given numbers in order of their magnitudes in form
	6. Appreciate the need for counting and ordering		Leads pupils to appreciate number in order of their magnitude	Appreciate the need for counting and ordering in everyday activities		6. State why counting and ordering are important

4.0 CONCLUSION

The new basic mathematics curricular emphasizes that mathematics should be taught in connection with its usefulness as an everyday activity

5.0 SUMMARY

Mathematics could be seen as a problem solving activity in all areas of life; as a way of communication; as a way of reasoning in diverse areas of life activities, and as a way of connection of ideas.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe the format of the new primary school curriculum in Nigeria and explain the linkages between each column.

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UNIT 3 COMPONENTS OF EFFECTIVE MATHEMATICS INSTRUCTION

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
- 3.1 Effective Nursery through Primary Four Instruction
- 3.2 Teaching Primary Five and Beyond
- 3.3 Teaching through a Concrete-to-Representational-to-Abstract Sequence of Instruction
- 3.4 Using Concrete Manipulative to Teach Mathematics
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Less is known about the components of effective mathematics instruction than the components of effective reading instruction, because research in mathematics is less extensive than in reading. However, conclusions can still be drawn from some very good studies that do exist, as well as from typical grade level expectations in mathematics. As is true for reading, there is no single "best" programme for teaching mathematics. Rather, certain key abilities involved in learning mathematics need to be addressed in instruction, with the importance of different abilities shifting somewhat across the elementary and secondary grades.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain how to develop pupils' ability in concept formations
- teaching through a concrete-to-representational-to-abstract sequence of instruction
- using concrete manipulative to teach mathematics
- state types of manipulative.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Effective Nursery through Primary Four Instruction

At these levels, general education instruction in mathematics should include development of the following mathematics-related abilities: concepts and reasoning (e.g., basic number concepts, meaning of operations such as addition, geometric concepts); automatic recall of number facts (e.g., memorisation of basic addition facts such as $3+4$ so that children know answers instantly)

instead of having to count); computational algorithms (the written procedure or series of steps for solving more complex types of calculation, e.g., for two-digit addition with regrouping, calculation starts in the right-hand column and tens are "carried" from the ones to the tens column); functional mathematics (e.g., practical applications such as time and money); and verbal problem-solving (e.g., solving word problems).

Because progress in mathematics builds heavily upon previously learned skills, it is important for instruction to be clear, unambiguous, and systematic, with key prerequisites taught in advance. For instance, children should not be expected to develop automatic recall of addition facts if they do not understand the basic concept of addition or the meaning of the addition sign. It is also essential for children to have sufficient practice to acquire new skills. For example, although manipulative such as cubes or rods can be very helpful in developing basic concepts, many children will not spontaneously progress from accurately solving facts with manipulative to automatic recall of facts. Instead, most children benefit from practice activities focused specifically on helping them to memorise facts. Similarly, learning computational algorithms such as those used in long division or two-digit multiplication often requires considerable practice.

Scientific investigators interested in learning disabilities have identified several patterns that may be found in youngsters with mathematics disabilities. Some of these children have difficulties that revolve primarily around automatic recall of facts, coupled with good conceptual abilities in mathematics. This pattern characterises some children with reading disabilities. Another common pattern involves difficulties with computational algorithms; yet a third pattern involves visual-spatial difficulties, such as difficulty lining up columns or with learning spatial aspects of mathematics, such as geometry. Although effective general education instruction can help to prevent low mathematics achievement in many children, some youngsters with genuine mathematics disabilities will require more intensive, long-term instruction in order to make appreciable level of achievement.

3.2 Teaching Primary Five and Beyond

In primary five and beyond, general education instruction in mathematics focuses a great deal on advanced concepts and reasoning (e.g., what a variable or a function is), learning of complex computational algorithms (e.g., those involved in adding and subtracting fractions and decimals), and more difficult kinds of verbal problem-solving (e.g., problems with multiple steps). By grade five, automatic recall of number facts is well-developed in most normally achieving youngsters. However, youngsters with mathematics disabilities often continue to struggle with mathematics skills far below grade expectations, including not only automatic recall, but also many computational algorithms and mathematics concepts. A thorough evaluation that assesses a range of important mathematics skills is essential, because children can have different strengths and weaknesses even within the domain of mathematics, and knowing the pattern of strengths and weaknesses is central to instructional planning. For instance, a child

who has good conceptual abilities but whose difficulties centre on automatic recall and computation will need a different kind of instructional program than will one whose main difficulties are conceptual in nature.

As children advance into junior and secondary schools, tracking of students into different levels of mathematics (e.g., an accelerated track, a grade-level track, and a remedial track) could be easier. Also, science courses begin to draw more heavily on mathematics skills, and students with mathematics disabilities may begin to experience more difficulties in science. Providing intensive remediation of basic mathematics skills to students who need it remains essential in these classes, not only to help students acquire the skills needed for everyday life, but also because mathematics achievement serves as a gateway for higher education and for many occupations.

3.3 Teaching through a Concrete-to-Representational-to-Abstract Sequence of Instruction

The purpose of teaching through a concrete-to-representational-to-abstract sequence of instruction is to ensure that students truly have a thorough understanding of the mathematics concepts/skills they are learning. When students who have mathematics learning problems are allowed to first develop a concrete understanding of the mathematics concept/skill, then they are much more likely to perform that mathematics skill and truly understand mathematical concepts at the abstract level.

What is it?

- Each mathematics concept/skill is first modeled with concrete materials (e.g. chips, unit cubes, base ten blocks, beans and bean sticks, pattern blocks).
- Students are provided many opportunities to practice and demonstrate mastery using concrete materials
- The mathematics concept/skill is next modeled at the representational (semi-concrete) level which involves drawing pictures that represent the concrete objects previously used (e.g. tallies, dots, circles, stamps that imprint pictures for counting)
- Students are provided many opportunities to practice and demonstrate mastery by drawing solutions
- The mathematics concept/skill is finally modelled at the abstract level (using only numbers and mathematical symbols)
- Students are provided many opportunities to practice and demonstrate mastery at the abstract level before moving to a new mathematics concept/skill.
- As a teacher moves through a concrete-to-representational-to-abstract sequence of instruction, the abstract numbers and/or symbols should be used in conjunction with the concrete materials and representational drawings (promotes association of abstract symbols with concrete & representational understanding)

What are the critical elements of this strategy?

- Use appropriate concrete objects to teach particular mathematics concept/skill (see Concrete Level of Understanding/ Understanding Manipulatives-Examples by mathematics concept area). Teach concrete understanding first.
- Use appropriate drawing techniques or appropriate picture representation of concrete objects (see Representational Level of Understanding/ Examples of drawing solutions by mathematics concept area). Teach representational understanding second.
- Use appropriate strategies for assisting students to move to the abstract level of understanding for a particular mathematics concept/skill (see Abstract Level of Understanding/Potential barrier to abstract understanding for students who have learning problems and how to manage these barriers).
- When teaching at each level of understanding, use explicit teaching methods (see the instruction strategy Explicit Teacher Modeling).

How do I implement the strategy?

1. When initially teaching a mathematics concept/skill, describe and model it using concrete objects (concrete level of understanding).
2. Provide students many practice opportunities using concrete objects.
3. When students demonstrate mastery of skill by using concrete objects, describe and model how to perform the skill by drawing or with pictures that represent concrete objects (representational level of understanding).
4. Provide many practice opportunities where students draw the solutions or use pictures to solve problem.
5. When students demonstrate mastery drawing solutions, describe and model how to perform the skill using only numbers and mathematics symbols (abstract level of understanding).
6. Provide many opportunities for students to practice performing the skill using only numbers and symbols.
7. After students have mastered performing the skill at the abstract level of understanding, ensure students maintain their skill level by providing periodic practice opportunities for the mathematics skills.

How does this Instructional Strategy Positively Impact Students

who have Learning Problems?

- Helps passive learner to make meaningful connections
- Teaches conceptual understanding by connecting concrete understanding to abstract mathematics process
- By linking learning experiences from concrete-to- representational-to- abstract levels of understanding, the teacher provides a graduated framework for students to make meaningful connections.
- Blends conceptual and procedural understanding in structured way

SELF ASSESSMENTS EXERCISE

- (1) Briefly describe how you would teach nursery level effectively.
- (2) Describe in brief, Concrete –to- Representational –to- Abstract sequence of instructions.

3.4 Using Concrete Manipulative to Teach Mathematics

What is it?

The concrete level of understanding is the most basic level of mathematical understanding. It is also the most crucial level for developing conceptual understanding of mathematics concepts/skills. Concrete learning occurs when students have ample opportunities to manipulate concrete objects to solve problem. For students who have mathematics learning problems, explicit teacher modeling of the use of specific concrete objects to solve specific mathematics problems is needed.

Understanding manipulative (concrete objects)

To use mathematics manipulatives effectively, it is important that you understand several basic characteristics of different types of mathematics manipulatives and how these specific characteristics impact students who have learning problems. As you read about the different types of manipulatives, reflect on pictures of different manipulatives.

General types of mathematics manipulatives

Discrete- those materials that can be counted (e.g. cookies, children, counting blocks, toy cars, etc.).

Continuous -materials that are not used for counting but are used for measurement (e.g. ruler, measuring cup, weight scale, trundle wheel).

Suggestions for using discrete and continuous materials with students who have learning problems

Students who have learning problems need to have abundant experiences using discrete materials before they will benefit from the use of continuous materials. This is because discrete materials have defining characteristics that students can easily discriminate through sight and touch. As students master an understanding of specific readiness concepts for specific measurement concepts/skills through the use of discrete materials (e.g. counting skills), then continuous materials can be used.

Types of manipulatives used to teach the Base-10 System/place-value (Smith, 1997):

Proportional - shows relationships by size (e.g. ten counting blocks grouped together is ten times the size of one counting block; a bean stick with ten beans glued to a popsicle stick is ten times bigger than one bean).

Non-linked proportional - single units are independent of each other, but can be "bundled together (e.g. Popsicle sticks can be "bundled together in groups of 'tens' with rubber bands; individual unifix cubes can be attached in rows of ten unifix cubes each).

Linked proportional - comes in single units as well as "already bundled" tens units, hundreds units, and thousands units (e.g. base ten cubes/blocks; beans and bean sticks).

Examples of manipulative (concrete objects)

Suggested manipulatives are listed according to mathematics concept/skill area. Descriptions of manipulative are provided as appropriate. A brief description of how each set of manipulative may be used to teach the mathematics concept/skill is provided at the bottom of the list for each mathematics concept area. This is not meant to be an exhaustive list, but this list does include a variety of common manipulative. The list includes examples of "teacher-made" manipulatives as well as "commercially-made" ones. These are discussed under the following headings:

Counting/Basic Addition & Subtraction
Place Value
Multiplication/Division Positive
and Negative Integers Fractions Geometry
Beginning Algebra

Counting/Basic Addition & Subtraction Pictures

- Colored chips
- Beans
- Unifix cubes
- Golf tees
- Skittles or other candy pieces
- Packaging popcorn

- Popsicle sticks/tongue depressors

Description of use: students can use these concrete materials to count, to add, and to subtract. Students can count by pointing to objects and counting aloud. Students can add by counting objects, putting them in one group and then counting the total. Students can subtract by removing objects from a group and then counting how many are left.

Place Value Pictures

- Base 10 cubes/blocks
- Beans and bean sticks
- Popsicle sticks and rubber bands for bundling
- Unit cubes (individual cubes can be combined to represent "tens")
- Place value mat (a piece of tag board or other surface that has columns representing the "ones," "tens," and "hundreds" place values)

Description of use: students are first taught to represent 1-9 objects in the "ones" column. They are then taught to represent "10" by trading in ten single counting objects for one object that contains the ten counting objects on it (e.g. ten separate beans are traded in for one "bean stick"-a popsicle stick with ten beans glued on one side. Students then begin representing different values 1-99. At this point, students repeat the same trading process for "hundreds."

Multiplication/Division Pictures

- Containers and counting objects (paper dessert plates and beans, paper or plastic cups and candy pieces, playing cards and chips, cut out tag board circles and golf tees, etc.). Containers represent the "groups" and counting objects represent the number of objects in each group. (e.g. $2 \times 4 = 8$: two containers with four counting objects on each container) Counting objects arranged in arrays (arranged in rows and columns). Color-code the "outside" vertical column and horizontal row to help emphasize the multipliers

Positive and Negative Integers Picture

- Counting objects, one set light colored and one set dark colored (e.g. light and dark colored beans; yellow and blue counting chips; circles cut out of tag board with one side colored, etc.).

Description of use: light colored objects represent positive integers and dark colored objects represent negative integers. When adding positive and negative integers, the student matches pairs of dark and light colored objects. The color and number of objects remaining represent the solution.

Fractions Pictures

- Fraction pieces (circles, half-circles, quarter-circles, etc.)
- Fraction strips (strip of tag board one foot in length and one inch wide, divided into wholes, $\frac{1}{2}$'s, $\frac{1}{3}$'s, $\frac{1}{4}$'s, etc.)
- Fraction blocks or stacks. Blocks/cubes that represent fractional parts by proportion (e.g. a $\frac{1}{2}$ " block is twice the height as a $\frac{1}{4}$ " block).

Description of use: the teacher models how to compare fractional parts using one type of manipulative. Students then compare fractional parts.

As students gain understanding of fractional parts and their relationships with a variety of manipulatives, the teacher models and then students begin to add, subtract, multiply, and divide using fraction pieces.

Geometry Pictures

- Geoboards (square platforms that have raised notches or rods that are formed in an array). Rubber bands or string can be used to form various shapes around the raised notches or rods.

Description of Use: concepts such as area and perimeter can be demonstrated by counting the number of notch or rod "units" inside the shape or around the perimeter of the shape.

Beginning Algebra Pictures

- Containers (representing the variable of "unknown") and counting objects (representing integers)-e.g. paper dessert plates and beans, small clear plastic beverage cups, counting chips, playing cards and candy pieces, etc.

Description of use: The algebraic expression, " $4x = 8$," can be represented with four plates (" $4x$ "). Eight beans can be distributed evenly among the four plates. The number of beans on one plate represents the solution (" $x = 2$ ").

Suggestions for using manipulative (Burns: 1996):

- talk with your students about how manipulatives help to learn mathematics
- set ground rules for using manipulative.
- develop a system for storing manipulative.
- allow time for your students to explore manipulative before beginning instruction.
- encourage students to learn names of the manipulative they use
- provide students time to describe the manipulative they use orally or in writing. Model this as appropriate
- introduce manipulative to parents

Representational

What is it?

Examples of drawing solutions by mathematics concept level.

What is it?

At the representational level of understanding, students learn to problem-solve by drawing pictures. The pictures students draw represent the concrete objects students

manipulated when problem-solving at the concrete level. It is appropriate for students to begin drawing solutions to problems as soon as they demonstrate they have mastered a particular mathematics concept/skill at the concrete level. While not all students need to draw solutions to problems before moving from a concrete level of understanding to an abstract level of understanding, students who have learning problems in particular typically need practice solving problems through drawing. When they learn to draw solutions, students are provided an intermediate step where they begin transferring their concrete understanding toward an abstract level of understanding. When students learn to draw solutions, they gain the ability to solve problems independently. Through multiple independent problem-solving practice opportunities, students gain confidence as they experience success. Multiple practice opportunities also assist students to begin to "internalise" the particular problem-solving process. Additionally, students' concrete understanding of the concept/skill is reinforced because of the similarity of their drawings to the manipulatives they used previously at the concrete level.

Drawing is not a "crutch" for students that they will use forever. It simply provides students an effective way to practice problem solving independently until they develop fluency at the abstract level.

Examples of drawing solutions by mathematics concept level

The following drawing examples are categorised by the type of drawings ("Lines, Tallies, and Circles," or "Circles/Boxes"). In each category, there are a variety of examples demonstrating how to use these drawings to solve different types of computation problems.

What is it?

Potential barriers to abstract understanding for students who have learning problems and how to manage these barriers

What is it?

A student who problem-solves at the abstract level, does so without the use of concrete objects or without drawing pictures. Understanding mathematics concepts and performing mathematics skills at the abstract level requires students to do this with numbers and mathematics symbols only. Abstract understanding is often referred to as "doing mathematics in your head." Completing mathematics problems where mathematics problems are written and students solve these problems using paper and pencil is a common example of abstract level problem solving. Potential barriers to abstract understanding for students who have learning problems and how to manage these barriers are:

1. students who are not successful solving problems at the abstract level may not understand the concept behind the skill.

Suggestions:

- re-teach the concept/skill at the concrete level using appropriate

- concrete objects (see Concrete Level of Understanding).
 - re-teach concept/skill at representational level and provide opportunities for student to practice concept/skill by drawing solutions (see Representational Level of Understanding).
 - provide opportunities for students to use language to explain their solutions and how they got them (see instructional strategy Structured Language Experiences).
2. Have difficulty with basic facts/memory problems.

Suggestions:

- regularly provide students with a variety of practice activities focusing on basic facts. Facilitate independent practice by encouraging students to draw solutions when needed (see the student practice strategies Instructional Games, Self-correcting Materials, Structured Cooperative Learning Groups, and Structured Peer Tutoring).
 - conduct regular one-minute timings and chart student performance. Set goals with students and frequently review chart with students to emphasize progress. Focus on particular fact families that are most problematic first, and then slowly incorporate a variety of facts as the students demonstrate competence (see Evaluation Strategy Continuous Monitoring and Charting of Student Performance).
 - teach students regular patterns that occur throughout addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division facts (e.g. "doubles" in multiplication, 9's rule-add 10 and subtract one, etc.)
 - provide student a calculator or table when they are solving multiple-step problems.
3. Repeat procedural mistakes

Suggestions:

- provide fewer number of problems per page.
- provide fewer numbers of problems when assigning paper and pencil practice/homework.
- provide ample space for students writing, cueing, and drawing. Provide problems that are already written on learning sheets rather than requiring students to copy problems from board or textbook.
- provide structure: turn lined paper sideways to create straight columns. Allow students to use dry-erase boards/lap chalkboards that allow mistakes to be wiped away cleanly. Color cue symbols; for multi-step problems, draw color-cued lines that signal students where to write and what operation to use; provide boxes that represent where numerals should be placed; provide visual directional cues in a sample problem; provide a sample problem, completed step by step at top of learning sheet
- provide strategy cue cards that students can use to recall the correct procedure for solving problem
- provide a variety of practice activities that require modes of

expression other than only writing.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Students learning and mastery greatly depend on the number of opportunities a student has to respond. The more opportunities for successful practice that you provide (i.e. practice that does not negatively impact students learning characteristics), the more likely it is that your students will develop mastery of that skill especially when manipulatives are employed in teaching.

5.0 SUMMARY

Teaching through a concrete-to-representational-to-abstract sequence of instruction involves the use of manipulatives both concrete and representational. Concrete objects should be used when teaching the following topics in primary schools: Counting/Basic Addition and Subtraction; Place Value; Multiplication/Division; Positive and Negative Integers; Fractions; Geometry and Beginning Algebra.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. In each case give five concrete objects that can be used to teach:
 - a. Counting/Basic Addition and Subtraction
 - b. Place Value/ Multiplication/Division
 - c. Positive and Negative Integers
 - d. Fractions
 - e. Geometry
 - f. Beginning Algebra.
- ii. Briefly describe how you will use geoboard to teach area of a rectangle.
- iii. List different types of manipulatives with at least two examples each.

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UNIT 4 MATHEMATICS INSTRUCTION FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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- 3.4 Peer -Tutoring
- 3.5 Visual Representations
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

It is important for teachers to understand the characteristics of students with learning difficulties and be able to adopt instruction to their peculiar needs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state four approaches for teaching students with learning difficulties in mathematics
- distinguish between the learning instructions for teaching students with learning difficulties.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Effective Mathematics Instruction for Students with Learning Difficulties in Mathematics Four

Approaches that Improve Results

Students have a variety of disabilities—most notably, learning difficulties. But other disabilities as well may occur such as mild mental retardation, AD/HD, behavioral disorders, and cognitive disabilities. Meta-analyses have found strong evidence of instructional approaches that appear to help students with disabilities

improve their mathematics achievement. According to these studies, four methods of instruction show the most promise. These are:

- systematic and explicit instruction
- self-instruction
- peer-tutoring
- visual representation

Of course, to make use of this information, an educator would need to know much more about each approach. So let us take a closer look at them.

3.2 Explicit and Systematic Instruction

Explicit instruction, often called direct instruction, refers to an instructional practice that carefully constructs interactions between students and their teacher. Teachers clearly state a teaching objective and follow a defined instructional sequence. They assess how much students already know on the subject and tailor subsequent instruction, based upon that initial evaluation of student skills. Students move through the curriculum, both individually and in groups, repeatedly practicing skills at a pace determined by the teacher's understanding of student needs and progress (Swanson, 2001). Explicit instruction has been found to be especially successful when a child has problems with a specific or isolated skill (Kroesbergen & Van Luit, 2003).

The Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST) offers a helpful snapshot of an explicit instructional episode (Hall, 2002), shown in Figure 4.1 below. Consistent communication between teachers and students creates the foundation for the instructional process. Instructional episodes involve pacing a lesson appropriately, allowing adequate *processing* and *feedback* time, encouraging *frequent student responses*, and *listening and monitoring* throughout a lesson.

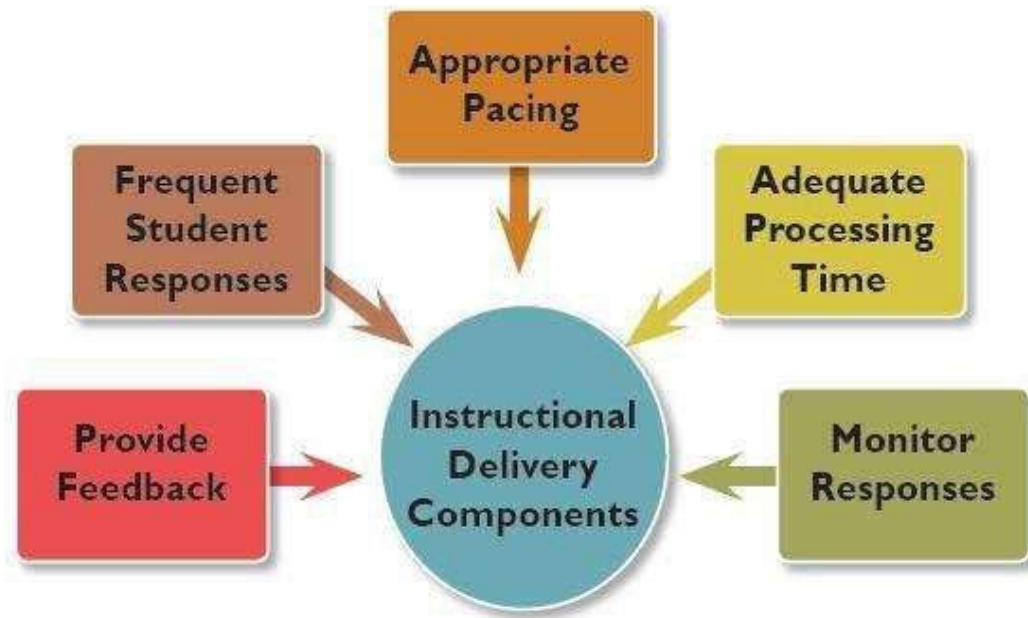


Figure 1. Standard instructional delivery components essential to all explicit instructional episodes (Hall, 2002).

Systematic instruction focuses on teaching students *how to learn* by giving them the tools and techniques that efficient learners use to understand and learn new material or skills. Systematic instruction, sometimes called “strategy instruction” refers to the strategies students learn that help them integrate new information with what is already known in a way that makes sense and be able to recall the information or skill later, even in a different situation or place. Typically, teachers model strategy use for students, including thinking aloud through the problem-solving process, so students can see when and how to use a particular strategy and what they can gain by doing so. Systematic instruction is particularly helpful in strengthening essential skills such as organization and attention, and often includes:

- memory devices to help students remember the strategy (e.g., a first-letter mnemonic created by forming a word from the beginning letters of other words)
- strategy steps stated in everyday language and beginning with action verbs (e.g., read the problem carefully)
- strategy steps stated in the order in which they are to be used (e.g., students are cued to read the word problem carefully before trying to solve the problem)
- strategy steps that prompt students to use cognitive abilities (e.g., the critical steps needed in solving a problem) (Lenz, Ellis, & Scanlon, 1996, as cited in Maccini & Gagnon, n.d.).

All students can benefit from a systematic approach to instruction, not just those with disabilities. That is why many of the textbooks being published today include overt systematic approaches to instruction in their explanations and learning activities. That is also why NICHCY’s first *Evidence for Education* was devoted to the power of strategy instruction. The research into systematic and explicit instruction is clear—the

approaches taken together positively impact students' learning (Swanson, in press). The National Mathematics Advisory Panel Report (2008) found that explicit instruction was primarily effective for computation (i.e., basic mathematics operations), but not as effective for higher order problem solving. That being understood, meta-analyses and research reviews by Swanson (1999; 2001) and Swanson and Hoskyn (1998) assert that breaking down instruction into steps, working in small groups, questioning students directly, and promoting ongoing practice and feedback seem to have greater impact when combined with systematic "strategies." What does a combined systematic and explicit instructional approach look like in practice? Tammy Cihylik, a learning support teacher at Harry S. Truman Elementary School in Allentown, Pennsylvania, describes a first-grade lesson that uses money to explore mathematical concepts:

[Students] use manipulatives, she explains, "looking at the penny, identifying the penny." Cihylik prompts the students with explicit questions: "what does the penny look like? How much is it worth?" Then she provides the answers herself, with statements like, "the penny is brown, and is worth one cent." Cihylik encourages students to repeat the descriptive phrases after her, and then leads them in applying that basic understanding in a systematic fashion. After counting out five pennies and demonstrating their worth of five cents, she instructs the students to count out six pennies and report their worth. She repeats this activity each day, and incorporates other coins and questions as students master the idea of value.

Within this example, the relationship between explicit and systematic instruction becomes clear. The teacher is leading the instructional process through continually checking in, demonstration, and scaffolding/extending ideas as students build understanding. She uses specific strategies involving prompts that remind students the value of the coins, simply stated action verbs, and metacognitive cues that ask students to monitor their money. Montague (2007) suggests that "the instructional method underlying cognitive strategy instruction is explicit instruction."

3.3 Self-Instruction

Self-instruction refers to a variety of self-regulation strategies that students can use to manage themselves as learners and direct their own behavior, including their attention (Graham, Harris, & Reid, 1992). Learning is essentially broken down into elements that contribute to success:

- setting goals
- keeping on task
- checking your work as you go
- remembering to use a specific strategy
- monitoring your own progress
- being alert to confusion or distraction and taking corrective action
- checking your answer to make sure it makes sense and that the mathematics calculations were correctly done.

When students discuss the nature of learning in this way, they develop both a detailed picture of themselves as learners (known as metacognitive awareness) and the self-regulation skills that good learners use to manage and take charge of the

learning process. Some examples of self-instruction statements are shown on the next page.

To teach students to “talk to themselves” while learning new information, solving a mathematics problem, or completing a task, teachers should first model self-instruction aloud. They take a task and think aloud while working through it, crafting a monologue that overtly includes the mental behaviors associated with effective learning: goal-setting, self-monitoring, self-questioning, and self-checking. Montague (2004) suggests that both correct and incorrect problem-solving behaviors be modelled.

Modelling of correct behaviors helps students understand how good problem solvers use the processes and strategies appropriately. Modelling of incorrect behaviors allows students to learn how to use self-regulation strategies to monitor their performance and locate and correct errors. Self-regulation strategies are learned and practiced in the actual context of problem solving. When students learn the modelling routine, they then can exchange places with the teacher and become models for their peers.

The self-statements that students use to talk themselves through the problem-solving process are actually prompting students to use a range of strategies and to recognize that certain strategies need to be deployed at certain times (e.g., self-evaluation when you are done, to check your work). Because learning is a very personal experience it is important that teachers and students work together to generate self-statements that are not only appropriate to the mathematics tasks at hand but also to individual students. Instruction also needs to include frequent opportunities to practice their use, with feedback (Graham et al., 1992) until students have internalised the process.

Self Assessment Exercise

What is self-instruction? How does it compare with your experience in Distance Learning System?

3.4 Peer-Tutoring

Peer-tutoring is a term that has been used to describe a wide array of tutoring arrangements, but most of the research on its success refers to students working in pairs to help one another learn or practice an academic task. Peer-tutoring works best when students of different ability levels work together (Kunsch, Jitendra, & Sood, 2007). During a peer-tutoring assignment, it is common for the teacher to have student switch roles partway through, so the tutor becomes the tutee. Since explaining a concept to another person helps extend one's own learning, this practice gives both students the opportunity to better understand the material being studied.

Research has also shown that a variety of peer-tutoring programs are effective in teaching mathematics, including Classwide Peer-Tutoring (CWPT), Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS), and Reciprocal Peer-Tutoring (RPT) (Barley *et al.*, 2002). Successful peer-tutoring approaches may involve the use of different materials, rewards systems, and reinforcement procedures, but at their core they share the following characteristics (Barley *et al.*, 2002):

- the teacher trains the student to act both as tutors and tutees, so they are prepared to tutor, and receive tutoring from their peers. Before engaging in a peer-tutoring program, students need to understand how the peer-tutoring process works and what is expected of them in each role.
- peer-tutoring programs benefit from using highly structured activities. Structured activities may include teacher-prepared materials and lessons (as in Classwide Peer-Tutoring) or structured teaching routines that students follow when it is their turn to be the teacher (as in Reciprocal Peer-Tutoring).
- materials used for the lesson (e.g., flashcards, worksheets, manipulatives, and assessment materials) should be provided to the students. Students engaging in peer tutoring require the same materials to teach each other as a teacher would use for the lesson.
- continual monitoring and feedback from the teacher help students engaged in peer tutoring stay focused on the lesson and improve their tutoring and learning skills.

Finally, there is mounting research evidence to suggest that, while low-achieving students may receive moderate benefits from peer tutoring, effects for students specifically identified with learning difficulties may be less noticeable unless care is taken to pair these students with a more proficient peer who can model and guide learning objectives (Kunsch, Jitendra, & Sood, 2007).

3.5 Visual Representations

Mathematics instruction is a complex process that attempts to make abstract concepts tangible, difficult ideas understandable and multifaceted problems solvable. Visual representations bring research-based options, tools, and alternatives to bear in meeting the instructional challenge of mathematics education (Gersten *et al.*, 2008).

Visual representations, broadly defined, can include manipulatives, pictures, number lines, and graphs of functions and relationships. “representation approaches to solving mathematical problems include pictorial (e.g., diagramming); concrete (e.g., manipulatives); verbal (linguistic training); and mapping instruction (schema-based)” (Xin & Jitendra, 1999, p. 211). Research has explored the ways in which visual representations can be used in solving story problems (Walker & Poteet, 1989); learning basic mathematics skills such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division (Manalo, Bunnell, & Stillman, 2000); and mastering fractions (Butler, Miller, Crehan, Babbitt, & Pierce, 2003) and algebra (Witzel, Mercer, & Miller, 2003).

Concrete-Representational-Abstract (CRA) techniques are probably the most common example of mathematics instruction incorporating visual representations. The CRA technique actually refers to a simple concept that has proven to be a very effective method of teaching mathematics to students with disabilities (Butler *et al.*, 2003; Morin & Miller, 1998). CRA is a three-part instructional strategy in which the teacher first uses *concrete* materials (such as colored chips, base-ten blocks, geometric figures, pattern blocks, or unit cubes) to model the mathematical concept to be learned, then demonstrates the concept in *representational* terms (such as drawing pictures), and finally in *abstract* or *symbolic* terms (such as numbers, notation, or mathematical symbols).

During a fraction lesson using CRA techniques, for example, the teacher might first show the students plastic pie pieces, and explain that, when the circle is split into 4 pieces, each of those pieces is $\frac{1}{4}$ of the whole, and when a circle is split into 8 pieces, each piece is $\frac{1}{8}$ of the whole. After seeing the teacher demonstrate fraction concepts using concrete manipulatives, students would then be given plastic circles split into equal pieces and asked what portion of the whole one section of that circle would be. By holding the objects in their hands and working with them concretely, students are actually building a *mental* image of the reality being explored physically.

After introducing the concept of fractions with concrete manipulatives, the teacher would model the concept in *representational* terms, either by drawing pictures or by giving students a worksheet of unfilled-in circles split into different fractions and asking students to shade in segments to show the fraction of the circle the teacher names.

In the final stage of the CRA technique, the teacher demonstrates how fractions are rewritten using abstract terms such as numbers and symbols (e.g., $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$). The teacher would explain what the numerator and denominator are and allow students to practice writing different fractions on their own.

As the Access Center (2004) points out, CRA works well with individual students, in small groups, and with an entire class. It is also appropriate at both the elementary and secondary levels. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) recommends that, when using CRA, teachers should make sure that students understand what has been taught at each step before moving instruction to the next stage (Berkas & Pattison, 2007). In some cases, students may need to continue using manipulatives in the representational and abstract stages as a way of demonstrating understanding.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have briefly examined four approaches to teaching mathematics to students with disabilities which research has shown to be effective. Each is worthy of study in its own right and the sources of additional information provided will help teachers, administrators, and families bring these research-based practices into the mathematics classroom.

When it is time to determine how you can best teach mathematics to your students, select an instructional intervention that supports the educational goals of those students based on age, needs, and abilities. Research findings can and do help identify effective and promising practices, but it is essential to consider how well-matched any research actually is to your local situation and whether or not a specific practice will be useful or appropriate for a particular classroom or child. Interventions are likely to be most effective when they are applied to similar content, in similar settings, and with the age groups intended for them. That is why it is important to look closely at the components of any research study to determine whether the overall findings provide appropriate guidance for your specific students, subjects, and grades—apple to apples, so to speak.

5.0 SUMMARY

Systematic and explicit instruction is a detailed instructional approach in which teachers guide students through a defined instructional sequence. Within systematic and explicit instruction, students learn to regularly apply strategies that effective learners use as a fundamental part of mastering concepts.

Self-instruction is a way by which students learn to manage their own learning with specific prompting or solution-oriented questions.

Peer tutoring, is an approach that involves pairing students together to learn or practice an academic task.

Visual representation uses manipulatives, pictures, number lines, and graphs of functions and relationships to teach mathematical concepts.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Distinguish between the following types of instructions: systematic and explicit instruction; self-instruction; peer tutoring and visual representation instructions.

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