

## HABITS OF MIND

# COMPUTATION AND ESTIMATION (12B)

In everyday life, people often have to make simple calculations in their minds. The advent of the small, inexpensive electronic calculator has made it possible to carry out a range of calculations with precision and to check the reasonableness of the answers. There are also many situations where an approximate answer is as useful as a precise one. Estimating approximate answers can often take the place of making a precise measurement or a careful calculation or be used to check calculations made using electronic calculators or paper and pencil. Skill in estimation is based on a sense of what level of precision is needed, which in turn depends on understanding the purpose of the calculation.

The map is organized around two strands—*estimation* and *computation*. In elementary grades, the focus is on using numbers to represent quantities and basic operations on numbers. In middle school, the kinds of numbers involved in problems expands to include fractions, decimals, and percents and the kinds of computations expand to include calculation of central tendency and probability. Computer spreadsheets come into play as a way to perform arithmetic operations on numbers. In high school, problem solving includes use of ratio and proportion, simple algebraic formulas, and computer-based analysis. Throughout, students are expected to make sound choices about which tools to use—their heads, paper and pencil, calculators, or computers—and to judge the reasonableness of measurements and calculations.

This map draws on mathematical ideas that also appear on the **MATHEMATICAL PROCESSES** map in *Atlas 1* and the **NUMBERS** map in this volume.

### NOTES

The grades 3-5 benchmark “Make calculations when necessary to solve real-world problems...” is central to the overall topic of the map, as indicated by the number of arrows connecting it to other benchmarks. The link between this benchmark and the benchmark “State the purpose of each step in a calculation” indicates that it is not sufficient for students to be able to solve problems simply by memorizing steps in a solution. They are also expected to understand the purpose of each step in all of the calculations they make. Three new benchmarks derived from *Science for All Americans* identify specific skills needed for solving a wide range of problems.

### RESEARCH IN BENCHMARKS

Research suggests using word problems as a basis for teaching addition and subtraction concepts, rather than teaching computational skills first and then applying them to solve problems (Carpenter & Moser, 1983). Research has identified a developmental progression of concepts and skills that students use for addition and subtraction (Fuson, 1988; Fuson, 1992). There is evidence that instruction based on this progression can help (Romberg & Carpenter, 1986; Fuson & Willis, 1989).

Students make a variety of errors in multi-digit addition and subtraction calculations (Brown & Van Lehn, 1982). Student errors suggest students interpret and treat multi-digit numbers as single-digit numbers placed adjacent to each other, rather than using place-value meanings for the digits in different positions (Fuson, 1992). Research also suggests students interpret multiplication of whole numbers mainly as repeated addition. This interpretation is inadequate for many multiplication problems and can lead to restrictive intuitive notions such as “multiplication always makes larger” (Greer, 1992).

Elementary- and middle-school students make several errors when they operate on decimals and fractions (Benander & Clement, 1985; Kouba et al., 1988; Peck & Jencks, 1981; Wearne & Hiebert, 1988). For example, many middle-school students cannot add  $4 + 0.3$  correctly or  $7\frac{1}{2} + 3\frac{1}{2}$  (Kouba et al., 1988; Wearne & Hiebert, 1988). Also, lower middle-school students may have difficulties understanding the relationship between fractions and decimals (Markovits & Sowder, 1991). These errors are due in part to the fact that students lack essential concepts about decimals and fractions and have memorized procedures that they apply incorrectly. Interventions to improve concept knowledge can lead to increased ability by 5<sup>th</sup>-graders to add and subtract decimals correctly (Wearne & Hiebert, 1988).

Students of all ages misunderstand multiplication and division (Bell et al., 1984; Graeber & Tirosh, 1988; Greer, 1992). Commonly held misconceptions include “multiplication always makes larger” and “division always makes smaller.” Students may correctly select multiplication as the operation needed to calculate the cost of gasoline when the amount and unit cost are integers, then select division for the same problem when the amount and unit cost are decimal numbers (Bell et al., 1981). Suggestions have been made to improve student concepts of multiplication (Greer, 1992), but further research is needed to evaluate these suggestions.

The use of calculators in K-12 mathematics does not hinder the development of basic computation skills and frequently improves concept development and paper-and-pencil skills, both in basic operations and in problem solving (Hembree & Dessart, 1986; Kaput, 1992). The use of calculators in testing produces higher scores than paper-and-pencil efforts in problem solving as well as in basic operations (Hembree & Dessart, 1986).

Good estimators use a variety of estimating tactics and switch easily between them. They understand place value and the meaning of operations, and are skilled in mental computation. Poor estimators rely on algorithms that are more likely to yield the exact answer. They lack an understanding of the notion and value of estimation and often describe it as “guessing” (Sowder, 1992b). Before 6<sup>th</sup> grade, students develop few estimation skills from their natural experiences (Case & Sowder, 1990; Sowder, 1992b). Some researchers caution that teaching estimation to young children may have as its single effect that they master specific procedures in a superficial manner (Sowder, 1992b).

