Lisa is an 8-year-old third grader who receives special education services in a learning support classroom for mathematics and reading. She has little confidence in her problem-solving ability and has a phobia for mathematics. When asked to solve word problems, Lisa typically grabs all the numbers in the problem and starts to add rather than pause to understand the nature of the problem she has to solve. Many students who take Lisa’s approach to problem-solving—often students with learning disabilities and those at risk for math failure—become unsuccessful problem-solvers.

But here’s the good news: We can use graphic representations to teach students with learning disabilities to be effective problem-solvers (see box, “What Is a Graphic Representational Technique?”). Recent studies have indicated that problem-solving instruction (e.g., graphic representational strategy) that emphasizes conceptual understanding can significantly help children with learning disabilities meet the challenges of the general education classroom (Xin & Jitendra, 1999).

This article describes the graphic representational technique, shows how to use the strategy for solving word problems, and discusses how to assess students’ problem-solving performance.

**Teaching Problem-Solving Using the Graphic Representational Strategy**

In addressing “big ideas” in mathematical problem-solving, we need to focus on carefully chosen problems. Here, we look at three different problem types, “change,” “group,” and “compare,” that characterize most addition and subtraction problems presented in commercial basal mathematics programs (Marshall, 1990). Using graphic representations, students can develop their problem-solving skills, but also integrate addition and subtraction concepts. The essential elements of the graphic representation strategy are problem schemata identification and representation and problem solution.

**Phase 1. Problem Schemata Identification and Representation**

The goal of schema identification and representation instruction, a prerequisite to understanding and organizing information for later problem solution, is to facilitate conceptual understanding. Problem schemata identification involves recognizing the problem pattern (e.g., “change” or “group”), or semantic structure of the problem, whereas problem representation refers to translating a problem from words into a meaningful graphic representation.

The key aspects of this instruction are for students to:

- Identify the separate features of each problem type (problems involving a change, a grouping, or a comparison—change, group, and compare).
- Organize and represent the relevant information in the story situation using schematic diagrams (see Figure 1).

Begin Phase 1 by providing students with story situations (see Figure 1) of each problem type. These situations present all quantities as known before students actually learn to solve word problems. Introduce problem-schema analysis using explicit modeling with several examples of story situations. During guided practice, use frequent student exchanges to facilitate the identification of critical elements of the problem.
story. The following examples describe how to teach students to discern the features that govern each of the three different story situations:

- “Change” story situation. Consider the following story situation involving a change:

  John had 47 baseball cards in his collection. He lost 15 of them when his family moved from Florida to New York. Now John has 32 baseball cards.

  Teach students that the “change” schema relation starts with a “beginning set” (e.g., 47 baseball cards) in which the object identity (e.g., baseball cards) and the amount of the object are defined (e.g., 47). Then a change (loses 15 baseball cards) occurs to the beginning set that results in an “ending set” (32 baseball cards) in which the new amount (i.e., 32) is defined. The ending set is less than the beginning set, because the word “lost” in the story situation implies that the change resulted in fewer baseball cards than the amount John initially had. Students learn that in this situation, both the beginning and ending sets could not occur at the same time; either there were 47 baseball cards or 32 baseball cards. Based on the position of the beginning, change, and ending sets in the story situation, students learn to infer the passage of time from past to present.

- “Group” story situation. Here is a sample story situation involving a group:

  Tim has 54 fruit trees in his orchard. 39 are apple trees, and the remaining 15 are peach trees.

  Here, teach students that unlike the “change” relation, the passage of time is irrelevant to this “group” situation. The story did not say that Tim first had 39 apple trees and then planted 15 peach trees.

  In addition, the “group” situation does not involve any change of object amounts. Instead, the group situation involves understanding part-whole relationships and knowing that the whole (i.e., superordinate) is equal to the sum of its parts (subordinates). Students learn that the subordinate categories (apple trees and peach trees) should have semantic ties to the superordinate category (trees).

  For example, students learn the common attributes of the three elements, “apple trees,” “peach trees,” and “trees,” and the relationships among them in the story situation. Although “apple trees” and “peach trees” are instances of trees with some similar attributes, they are distinct in that an apple tree is not the same as a peach tree.

- “Compare” story situation. Here is a story situation involving a comparison, or a “compare” relation:
Mitch has 43 music CDs and Anne has 70. Anne has 27 more music CDs than Mitch.

Teach students to focus on the presence of two sets (Mitch and Anne and their music records), each associated with a smaller or larger value (i.e., 43 and 70) and both having the same unit of measure (e.g., music CDs). One set serves as the comparison set (Anne’s music CDs) and the other as the referent set (Mitch’s music CDs). Typically, students learn to identify the compared and referent sets and determine the larger set by examining the comparison statement (i.e., Anne has 27 more music CDs than Mitch). Students focus on the more than or less than concepts to compare the two sets and identify the difference in value between the two sets.

For each problem type, the teacher or students read the story situation and map features of the situation onto the appropriate schematic diagrams. Initially, worksheets should include story situations of a single problem type. When students learn to identify and map subsequent problem types, worksheets should gradually include all three problem types. This phase should continue until students are able to accurately discern the three different problem types.

**Phase 2. Problem Solution**

Problem solution includes the selection and application of appropriate mathematical operations based on the problem representation. The key aspects of problem solution instruction are for students (a) to plan to solve the problem by identifying the action procedure (e.g., counting, adding, subtraction) and sequence of steps; and (b) to carry

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**Figure 2. Sample Procedure for Solving (a) Change, (b) Group, and (c) Compare Problems**

**Change Problem**

A balloon man had some balloons. Then 14 balloons blew away and the man now has 29 balloons. How many balloons did the man begin with?

**Group Problem**

Jenny saw 25 birds on a camping trip. She saw 17 sparrows and some owls. How many owls did Jenny see on the camping trip?

**Compare Problem**

Barbara is 37 years old. Cindy is 7 years older than Barbara. How old is Cindy?
out the operation identified in the planning step to solve the problem.

Once students display adequate knowledge of problem schemata, teach them to solve word problems. Begin this phase with a review of the problem schemata within the context of real-world problems, rather than the story situations shown in Phase 1. Through a question-and-answer session, prompt students to identify the problem type and the key features of the problem. Then ask them to map the information onto the relevant diagram and flag the missing information in the problem, using a question mark. During this phase, address any misconceptions with explicit feedback and additional modeling.

After students identify and map the information onto diagrams, they learn to plan to solve the problem. They begin by finding the “whole” or total amount in the word problem by focusing on the specific information provided in the text, as follows:

- In a “change” problem, students learn whether the problem ends up with more or less than the beginning amount. Teach students that when the problem ends up with more, the ending amount represents the total. If the problem ends up with less, however, the beginning amount is the total.
- For the “group” problem, the larger group object always represents the total, because the smaller groups combine to form the larger group.
- To find the total amount in the “compare” problem, students determine whether the referent or the compared set represents the higher value. Teach students to examine the comparison, or “difference” statement, to find the set that represents the total amount in the “compare” problem. In each instance, students learn to write T for total under the specific set that represents the total (see Figure 2).

Next, students select an arithmetic operation based on which part of the problem situation is unknown and which of the critical elements in the problem structure represents the total or whole. Finally, they solve the problem.
using a generalizable rule, “When the total is not known, add to find the total; when the total is known, subtract to find the part or other amount,” which is based on the part-whole concept (see Figure 2). To guide students in memorizing the rules, provide them with a self-instructional sheet with written rules for identifying the total and determining the operation needed to solve the problem (see Figure 3). The note sheet can serve as a scaffold until students can independently verbalize the rules. The self-instructional note sheet and diagrams serve to improve students’ understanding and memory of information in word problems. However, once students are proficient in using the schemata diagrams, fade or remove them and encourage them to represent the problem using their own diagrams. Figure 4 presents the instructional sequence of the representational strategy.

Evaluating Problem-Solving Performance

When teaching the graphic representational strategy, ask students to complete word problem tests at the end of each instructional session to check their understanding and to evaluate whether they have mastered the strategy steps. Examine students’ completed tests not only for correct solutions but also for strategy use (e.g., draw a diagram, map information onto the diagram, plan to solve the problem by figuring out the operation to use and the sequence of steps) and provide them with additional instruction, as needed, before they move to the next problem type.

Initially, assess students’ performance in solving one problem type. Later, when they complete instruction in the use of the strategy steps for all problem types, present tests that include all three problem types. In addition, evaluate how well students maintain the skill and knowledge after the strategy lessons are over; and discover how well they have transferred the skills to novel and complex problems.

Student Success

My colleagues and I have successfully taught the graphic representational strategy to students with disabilities in elementary and middle schools in our research investigations (Jitendra et al., 1998; Jitendra & Hoff, 1996; Jitendra, Hoff, & Beck, 1999). We found dramatic improvements in students’ problem-solving scores. In addition, they maintained the skills for as long as 4 weeks, and students were able to use the strategy in novel and complex problems. In these studies, we also found that the performance of students with learning disabilities either approached or surpassed that of a sample of students without disabilities.

Students also reported positive attitudes regarding the strategy instruction. For example, students’ responses about what they liked the most about the strategy were as follows: “Learning to solve problems,” “Getting the correct answers,” “It’s easier to understand, it gave me clues,” “I liked the problems,” “It was fun,” “They were cool.” When asked if they would recommend this strategy to a friend, they all answered in the affirmative. One student even reported that she felt she could go to college and become a teacher, which she was not sure she would be able to do before participating in our study. Further, this student was so pleased with her success that she became involved in tutoring a younger student in a general education classroom using the strategy.

Teachers of students in our studies also have indicated transfer of effective problem-solving skills into their classrooms. One teacher noted that the student who evidenced math phobia before the intervention showed increased confidence in her math performance and was more consistent in labeling her work on problem-solving tasks.

Final Thoughts

This article shows that we can teach students with learning disabilities to use effective problem-solving skills. We should not have to wait until students with learning disabilities master easier material (e.g., computation skills) before presenting them with problem-solving opportunities.

References


*To order the book marked by an asterisk (*), please call 24 hrs/365 days: 1-800-BOOKS-NOW (266-5766) or (732) 728-1040; or visit them on the Web at http://www.clicksmart.com/teaching/. Use VISA, M/C, AMEX, or Discover or send check or money order + $4.95 S&H ($2.50 each add’l item) to: Clicksmart, 400 Morris Avenue, Long Branch, NJ 07740; (732) 728-1040 or FAX (732) 728-7080.

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