

1 Teacher's Conceptions and Beliefs in Orienting the Solution of 2 Problems of Additive Structure

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4 Received: 11 December 2019 Accepted: 4 January 2020 Published: 15 January 2020

5

6 **Abstract**

7 This article describes the concepts and problem types, performed by three primary education
8 teachers around the teaching of mathematics and addition in particular. We applied the
9 quantitative research approach with a design case study section, using a Likert scale
10 questionnaire, a test of personal constructs and a self-report. The results show that in the
11 scheduled classes, the prevailing tendency of traditional teaching and technology. It became
12 apparent dichotomy between what teachers think about mathematics and their teaching. The
13 additive problems are referred to written statement and numerical exercises; whose
14 characteristics correspond to problems in routine phrased containing solution strategy either
15 directly or indirectly.

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17 **Index terms**— teachers in service, conceptions, problems of additive structure, orientations, problem solving.
18 Resumen-En este artículo se describen las concepciones y tipos de problema que desarrollan tres profesores
19 de educación básica primaria en torno a la enseñanza de la matemática y, en particular de la suma. Para
20 ello se aplicó el enfoque de investigación cuantitativo, con un diseño de estudio de caso transversal, aplicando
21 un cuestionario de escala tipo Likert, un test sobre constructos personales y un auto reporte. Los resultados
22 muestran que, en las clases planificadas, prevalece la tendencia de enseñanza tradicional y la tecnológica. Se hizo
23 evidente la dicotomía entre lo que el profesor piensa sobre la matemática y su forma de enseñarla. Los problemas
24 aditivos propuestos, son referidos a enunciados escritos y ejercicios numéricos, cuyas características corresponden
25 a problemas de rutina que contienen en su enunciado la estrategia de solución, ya sea directa o indirectamente.

26 Introduction n order to guide students in solving everyday problems, the mastery of additive structures is
27 essential in a mathematics teacher (Chinnappan and Thomas, 2001), since these include the basic primary
28 operations, which the student must base its background knowledge in mathematics, demanding a great effort
29 from the student to appropriate the concepts that are put into play (Kieran et al., 2016; Radford, 2018).

30 Bryant, Nunes and Tzekaki (2009) affirm that the first steps of children in mathematical reasoning follow
31 directly from their experiences in additive reasoning, so any type of limitations in the domain of problems of
32 additive structures leads them to commit serious mistakes in solving mathematical tasks. If this is taken into
33 account, unless teachers can really address the problems of additive structures properly, it is unlikely that they
34 can help children move forward in an adequate development of their mathematical thinking (Willis and Fuson,
35 1988). In this sense, it is necessary for the teacher, to properly master these structures and to be competent,
36 guiding his students towards their understanding, and also to be knowledgeable about adequate learning theories
37 to base their practice, and the implications of these theories that allow students to align with the contents that
38 are oriented to them (Ball, Thames and Phelps, 2008). This demands from the teacher a great preparation
39 to be able to anticipate what their students will do, what they think, which in turn can provide information
40 on how they make sense of the mathematical contents, by connecting their understanding of the operations and
41 procedures that they use to solve the task, with the semantic characteristics of the problems they solve (Chapman,
42 2007; Dolores, 2013).

43 Throughout this process, conceptions the teacher has about the way of teaching are very involved, because
44 the conceptions about the teaching of mathematics plays a very important role in the development of teacher
45 training, this is because each teacher may conceive the concepts he teaches differently, so it is possible that each

3 III. MATHEMATICS TEACHER'S CONCEPTIONS

46 one emphasizes different aspects hoping to find some coherence with his own conceptions (Lebrija, Flores and
47 ??rejos, 2010, Arcavi, 2020).

48 Within the context of the described context and consequently assuming the fundamental role that teachers
49 have in the educational setting, a research process was developed, guided by the following question: What are
50 the conceptions of primary school teachers in guiding children solving problems of additive structures?

51 1 II.

52 2 Theoretical Approach

53 To answer the question posed, it was sought to describe the conceptions and types of problems that teachers of
54 basic primary education develop around teaching how to solve additive structure problems.

55 3 III. Mathematics Teacher's Conceptions

56 and Beliefs in Practice Gil and Rico (2003), describe beliefs as the undisputed personal truths sustained by
57 each one, derived from experience or fantasy, a strong evaluative and affective component, through which you
58 can understand and characterize the ways they have to interpret teaching and learning. They propose to focus
59 attention on the conceptions and beliefs of math teachers, because knowing them you can better understand
60 some of their attitudes and positions. In addition, consider that each teacher gives a personal answer to the key
61 questions of the curriculum for their action in the classroom: it has some objectives, but to achieve them it works
62 some contents with a certain methodology and applies some evaluation criteria. To Flórez and Solano (2011)
63 and Heuvel-Panhuizen (2020), conceptions appear as another important structure to describe human thought.
64 However, they state that they are difficult to define, thus, beliefs can be seen as incontrovertible personal truths
65 that are idiosyncratic, with much affective value and evaluative components. Likewise, conceptions are considered
66 as "implicit organizers of concepts, of an essentially cognitive nature and that include beliefs, meanings, concepts,
67 propositions, rules, mental images, preferences, etc., that influence what is perceived and processes of reasoning
68 that are carried out" ??Azcárate and Moreno, 2003, p. 267). In this sense, the Ministry of National Education
69 (1998) suggests teachers reflect on what to teach? when to teach? how to teach? And what, how and when to
70 evaluate? as fundamental elements, pillars of the teaching and learning process.

71 Regarding the studies carried out on teachers' conceptions and beliefs about the nature of mathematics and
72 the relationship they have with their practice in the classroom, Suárez, Martín and Pájaro (2012) consider their
73 practice to be dialectical, that their beliefs and conceptions affect the teacher's practice, but in turn the practice
74 can cause the teacher to reevaluate their beliefs and conceptions.

75 To Muis (2004), beliefs that affect the decisions teachers make in math class can be classified into three
76 basic types: ? Beliefs about mathematics: on the one hand, there is the aspect of those who believe that
77 mathematics is finished, absolute knowledge, which is constituted by a relation of fixed and infallible concepts,
78 which must be memorized in order to be learned. Another aspect of this belief is that the individual invents or
79 creates mathematical knowledge according to the needs of science or those of everyday life, so that knowledge is
80 constantly and continuously modified. ? Beliefs about how to learn mathematics: these can be located in two
81 extremes: one in the belief that the student plays an active role in the construction of his own knowledge, so
82 the conditions must be provided for them to develop their potential, analyze and defend or refute views on the
83 solution to a problem. On the other hand, the belief that the student is a mere receiver of knowledge, so the
84 strategies used in the instructional processes must be to dictate notes or exercise, following a model previously
85 made by the teacher. ? Beliefs about teaching: this, like the previous one, can also be located at two extremes:
86 one where it is believed that teaching is the center of the knowledge acquisition process, and that in order to
87 acquire it, students must exercise and memorize concepts and procedures. At the other extreme, there is a belief
88 that teaching a student implies leading him to think like mathematicians, and that teaching should be oriented
89 to the understanding of concepts and procedures as a means to solve problems. Likewise, it is believed that it is
90 necessary to adapt the teaching to the characteristics of the knowledge and to the cognitive and affective needs
91 of the students.

92 Contreras (2010) built a profile of the didactic trends of a math teacher, based on his beliefs about the role
93 of problem solving in the classroom. Discover, little concordance between the conceptions that a teacher has
94 with specific tendency, presenting a diversity of possibilities between the relationship of his conceptions and the
95 simultaneity of tendencies for the same teacher, so there are differences between the tendencies of one teacher to
96 another. Based on his findings, he suggests some trends that can be established according to the different ways of
97 manifesting. It highlights factors involved in the teaching and learning processes, which can affect these beliefs:
98 the methodologies, the purposes of the subjects, the role played by students, teachers and the evaluation carried
99 out in said process. Contreras proposes to work by solving problems as an instrument to produce a change of
100 conceptions about mathematics and its teaching and learning.

101 In this regard, Hernández (2011) considers that the analysis of student attitudes for mathematics teachers is
102 an issue that has aroused the interest of research in mathematics education, since the inadequacy of traditional
103 approaches to achieve the objectives of an increasingly demanding and changing society. That is, the knowledge
104 that is conceived by the undergraduate is outdated before the teacher leaves, so the need for the qualification
105 to be continuous and permanent is pressing. In addition, this process of permanent outdated of the knowledge

106 acquired, even before using it, suggests that it should be developed are adaptive skills, rather than updated and
107 useful content for specific issues.

108 To Gamboa (2014) the affective dimension, closely related to beliefs, is a very strong determinant in the
109 learning of mathematics, so this element must be taken into account by researchers in mathematical education
110 as a means to understand this process from the perspective of both students and teachers. He considers that
111 from his study a change in this discipline could be achieved, since everything seems to be a matter of attitude
112 to achieve an improvement of the beliefs and attitudes of students and teachers towards this area of knowledge.
113 Gamboa (2014) states that mathematics is presented in the school curriculum as one of the most feared subjects,
114 which causes students to reject it, which leads to difficulties and low levels of achievement in their teaching and
115 learning process. Despite the above, Hernández (2011) indicates that mathematics have usually been related to
116 rationality, abstraction and logical reasoning, so that their learning must be linked to the formation of positive
117 attitudes, not only by mathematics, but of mathematics as a way to enhance other areas of knowledge. For
118 Hernández (2011), mathematics is a dynamic in students, which functions as a trigger, contributes to logical
119 reasoning when dealing with situations in other sciences and as a conceptual organizer that facilitates interactive
120 regulation between equals.

121 Regarding the theoretical model corresponding conceptions of mathematics ??odino, Batanero and Font
122 (2003), affirm that beliefs about the nature of mathematics (idealist-platonic and constructivist) are a factor
123 that determines the performance of teachers in the class. Zapata, Blanco and Contreras (2009) use three trends:
124 platonic, instrumentalist and problem solving. The platonic view considers mathematics as a body of static
125 but unified knowledge, as an immutable product which is discovered, not created. On the other hand, the
126 instrumental vision assumes mathematics as a tool bag, which is composed of an accumulation of facts, rules and
127 skills that the trained craftsman must use skillfully in search of some external purpose. In this way mathematics
128 is a set of useful and separated rules and facts. The problem-solving vision states that there is a dynamic, where
129 mathematics viewed as a field of creation and human invention that is constantly expanding (Heuvel-Panhuizen,
130 2020), within which patterns are produced and subsequently distilled in the form of knowledge, which is added
131 to the total of knowledge mathematics is not a finished product, as its results remain open for review.

132 4 IV.

133 5 Additive Structures

134 Making an approach to the conceptual dimension of numerical thinking, according to Romero et al. (2002), when
135 talking about additive structures, reference is made to mental conceptions and images which in a constructive
136 process, who learns them gradually builds up, from which they give meanings to situations involving numbers
137 natural, addition and subtraction of numbers, in order to understand them, make sense and find strategies to
138 address them.

139 According to Bonilla, Sánchez and Guerrero (1999), problems with additive structure are those solved with an
140 addition or subtraction operation. The symbolic problems of additive structure will vary according to the open
141 sentence given in the problem. Changing the unknown generates six open sentences for the sum and another six
142 for the subtraction. The classification of problems that are carried out according to their semantic structure is
143 considered of great interest. Four categories can be considered in school verbal problems that suggest addition
144 and subtraction operations: change, combination, comparison and equalization.

145 According to Orrantia (2003), exchange problems are made up of an amount to which something is added or
146 removed, resulting in a new amount. The problems of combination and comparison are made up of two quantities
147 that are combined or compared to produce a third quantity. Those related to equalization are composed by
148 a quantity and a result and the missing quantity that leads to that result is requested with an addition or
149 subtraction operation. The first three types of problems reflect the same type of actions to be performed and
150 the last, suggest the use of an equation to find an unknown or operate by trial. However, since the problems
151 include three quantities, one of which is unknown, in each category several types of problems can be identified
152 according to what quantity is unknown. The following table shows the typology of structures that may result
153 when combining additive structure sentences. Some examples of these type of problems in order of complexity
154 and use are:

155 "Carlos has 4 apples and 5 pears. How many fruits do you have in total? "(C1).

156 "Before he started playing, Andrés had 8 marbles and won 5. How many marbles does he have now?" (C2).

157 "Julio has 2000 pesos less than José and he has 1500 more than Ana. How much does Ana have more than
158 Julio?" (C6).

159 V.

160 6 Methodology a) Type of study

161 This work was developed under a mixed (Creswell, 2009), where the quantitative component (Hernández,
162 Fernández and Baptista, 2006), corresponds to a non-experimental research design, since there was no
163 manipulation of variables and the phenomenon was the observed object of the study in its natural environment.
164 The qualitative components are the actions and reasons given by teachers in the development of their math classes,
165 related to the resolution of problems of additive structures. A descriptive case design was made (Hernández et

10 VI. RESULTS AND INFORMATION ANALYSIS

166 al., 2006), and following Mertens (2005) individuals, were seen and analyzed as an entity. In this study, the case
167 was the conceptions that teachers have about teaching and learning of mathematics, in relation to the teaching
168 of problem solving of additive structures.

169 7 b) Sample

170 Informants in this study were three teachers from elementary level of education that guide the area of math in
171 third, fourth and fifth grades. The inclusion criteria: at least five years of experience; with residence in the urban
172 area to facilitate contact; availability to participate and attend the research process, and to be entitled as a math
173 teacher. The teachers age was 37 and 45 years old, and all had been working as a math teacher for more than
174 ten years. For the analysis of the information they have been given fictitious names (Sara, Juan and Carlos), to
175 protect their identity.

176 8 c) Study Variables

177 The variables observed and analyzed in this study were: 1) Conceptions about the nature of mathematics,
178 teaching and learning of mathematics, teaching and learning of problems of additive structure; 2) Teaching
179 trends or didactic model used by the teacher, and 3) Type of problems of additive structure addressed.

180 9 d) Information Gathering

181 To collect the information, four instruments were applied: (1) a Likert scale questionnaire. The information
182 collected in it, allowed a first characterization of the teacher's conceptions, taking into account aspects such as:
183 attitude towards mathematics, vision towards mathematics, attitude towards the teaching of mathematics, vision
184 of the teaching of mathematics, vision of learning mathematics. (2) The technique of actions and reasons, within
185 the technique of the mesh applied by Rodríguez (2003): here, each teacher stated actions and reasons (between 15
186 and 25) that he normally proposes during the development of his math classes and particularly when developing
187 topics related to the solution of additive structure problems. With the actions and their respective reasons, each
188 teacher completed a square grid or grid, from which a matrix resulted allowing to build a database in the SPSS
189 program. (3) Teachers were asked to plan a lesson which, in a first activity, allowed to gather information focused
190 on the experience of each teacher, for this each teacher was asked to work on the concept of addition in one
191 class and, in another, the subtraction. And (4) each teacher was asked to formulate six situations or activities
192 that required for its solution, the addition or subtraction operations, this the claim to investigate the types of
193 problems used by teachers in the classes. Thus, an approach was made to the conceptions of each teacher from
194 each instrument applied.

195 Information processing was carried out through statistical methods, seeking to avoid to the maximum that
196 the observed or measured phenomenon was affected by the personal preferences of the researchers. The method
197 of extraction of principal components and rotation analysis (Varimax normalization with Kaiser) was applied,
198 in addition, by means of factorial analysis, groups or clusters of reasons were closely related generated. Each
199 group was assigned a generic label or name that gathered the essence of the reasons that constitute each group or
200 conglomerate. An individual analysis of each case was performed, with all the instruments, then a characterization
201 of each teacher was made, taking into account the aspects proposed for the analysis. In addition, a comparative
202 analysis was made between cases, crossing the results obtained for each one, so that an approach to the shared
203 aspects of the teachers under study was obtained, in relation to their conceptions.

204 10 VI. Results and Information Analysis

205 The analysis of the information collected shows that three teachers (Sara, Juan and Carlos) presented a positive
206 attitude towards teaching mathematics. Similar to Lebrija et al. (2010), inclined favorably towards the problem-
207 solving vision, and negatively towards the instrumental and platonic vision, the latter being the least favored.
208 Faced with the vision of the teaching of mathematics, they favorably shared the vision of teaching by discovery,
209 using several solution strategies, with a cooperative learning vision, showing sufficiency in their work, but without
210 visualizing themselves integrated as a team in a collaborative work with peers in their area (Rodríguez and
211 Espinoza, 2017). Likewise, they unfavorably assumed the vision of teaching the textguided curriculum. On the
212 vision of teaching focused on basic skills and the vision of problem solving (Muis, 2004), both Sara and Carlos
213 express a negative attitude. In relation to the vision of teaching from a curriculum designed by the teacher, only
214 Sara and Juan show a positive attitude.

215 In relation to the vision of learning of mathematics (Gamboa, 2014), teachers unfavorably agree with memory
216 learning. In the constructivist vision of learning and the role of errors in teaching, Juan and Carlos expressed
217 their acceptance, while Sara assumed a negative attitude. When learning from the decision and autonomy, Sara
218 and Juan shared the favorable attitude, while Carlos assumed a negative attitude. Although it is observed that
219 they share some beliefs, the heterogeneity between them is also appreciated, an aspect that leads to the sharing
220 of the position of Gil and Rico (2003) when they express that one cannot speak of a homogeneous and organized
221 knowledge of mathematics teachers about their teaching and learning, since they are influenced by their opinions
222 and personal experiences.

223 The characterization thrown according to the groups or conglomerates of related reasons found and labeled,
224 are presented in Table 2, where, in addition, the preferences of each teacher are described. For each case, the
225 set of labels assigned for the different groups of ratios obtained by the method of extraction of main components
226 and of rotation (Varimax normalization with Kaiser) is presented. Question as a control factor. The teaching
227 orientation of the teacher to encourage learning. Evaluation and group work as a promoter of responsibility
228 and learning. Emphasis on consolidation and concrete activities. Prior knowledge as a factor for understanding.
229 Situations and problems of the context as factors of integration and connection of concepts. Repetition as a
230 mechanism to strengthen learning.

231 11 Source: Self elaboration.

232 Looking at different ideas each assigned label contains (table 2), it can be seen that the three teachers a group
233 of shared reasons prevails when thinking about the design of the class. These actions are aimed at: reinforcing
234 or strengthening the issue, determining prior knowledge, generating interest and motivation, working in groups,
235 evaluating to verify/control and guide/explain the issue. The planning of the classes, are actions shared by the
236 teachers: masterly presentation as usual technique and use of the textbook as the only curricular material, an
237 aspect that seems to follow the structure of a behavioral pedagogical model.

238 The initial diagnosis they make of their students, is based exclusively on the contents that, supposedly, have
239 been taught previously. These aspects are characteristic of the traditional didactic tendency, which as described
240 by Parra (2005), is based on deductive activities with a methodological structure theoryexample-exercise, which
241 consists of an explanation of the teacher, followed by the presentation of an example, to finally assign a series
242 of exercises where the oriented contents are applied. In this order, the teacher verbally transmits the learning
243 contents, through the dictation of his notes or allusion to a textbook, where the exam is the ideal instrument to
244 measure the students' learning, in addition, the student must dedicate an express time for its preparation.

245 Being the evaluation one of the most relevant aspects in the training processes, it could be expected that
246 through it, it will realize the development of competencies in those who learn (Tejada and Ruiz, 2016; Scherer,
247 2020). As evaluation as an integrated element of the educational process, it should be of great impact on students,
248 but if it does not fulfill its formative role it is reduced to measurement for certification (López, 2012). According
249 to Canabal and Margalef (2017) and Contreras-Pérez and Zúñiga-González (2017), for the evaluation to fulfill
250 this formative role, it requires the active presence of feedback, however, in light of the results, this is perceived
251 as deficit (Ion, Silva and García, 2013). Now, from a comparative view to the teachers' plans, as in Zapata
252 et al. (2009), it is appreciated that, within the conceptions of mathematics teaching, the teaching trends that
253 prevail in common are traditional and technological. According to Zapata et al. This predominance of traditional
254 education could be justified by the tendency of teachers to reproduce, especially during the first period of their
255 professional practice, the models in which they have been trained, as if there were an involuntary extension of
256 the actions of their education teachers Basic, medium or university, who survive resiliently for some time in their
257 school practices.

258 Regarding the analysis of types of situations and problems used in class planning, we agree with Martínez
259 and Gorgorió (2004) that the proposed situations were referred to problems of written statement or numerical
260 exercises, the problems were reasoned or in failing that, numerical operations exercises. Parra (2005) calls it a
261 timid incorporation of problem solving. Likewise, it can be seen that the use of records and representations by
262 these professors in their professional practice is quite restricted (Martínez, 2003).

263 Data show the conceptions teachers have to work with problems of additive structures at school, which could
264 be called "written narration of a mathematical situation" ??artínez (2003, p. 260). This apparent absence of
265 problems with a variety of information representation in the math class has, according to Chapman (2007),
266 important didactic consequences, such as limiting the use of representations and their role as a mediation tool in
267 problem resolution.

268 The groups of factors labeled to characterize each teacher when planning the classes, show some characteristics
269 of a constructivist and sometimes social cognitive work, since they say emphasize teamwork, error monitoring
270 and previous knowledge, as a factor to understanding, as well as the use of context problem situations, as a factor
271 of integration and connection with concepts; However, the proposed activities, the indications given and the way
272 in which they are developed are behavioral.

273 Regarding the categories (Bonilla et al., 1999; Orrantia, 2003), a high percentage (78%) of the problems
274 proposed by the teachers correspond to problems in which two measures are composed to give rise to a new
275 measure. Also, 89% of the proposed problems are of the structure "a + b =?", Where the unknown quantity is
276 located in the final measure, given the initial measures a and b. An example of this are those presented by Carlos:
277 "I have 5 apples and 3 pears, how many fruits do I have? Or in one hand I have \$ 420 pesos and in the other \$ 80
278 pesos. How many weights do I have? These types of problems according to the Ministry of National Education
279 (2010) correspond to routine problems, information that is relevant, because there is still a concern in teachers
280 to present students with the same type of scheme or structure in the problems; avoiding to pose more complex
281 problems where the unknown is not the search for the final measure. None presented problems of equalization,
282 where you had to use the concept of equation to find an unknown quantity.

283 12 VII.

284 13 Conclusions

285 Inquiring about the conceptions and types of problems that primary school teachers develop around the teaching
286 of mathematics and in particular of problems of additive structures, allowed us to conclude that the prevailing
287 conceptions of teaching mathematics are emphasized in traditional and technological trends, which according to
288 Zapata et al. (2009) are unfavorable for the development of thinking processes and skills in mathematics. These
289 conceptions emphasize the role of the teacher and the passivity of the student.

290 Despite the fact that the three teachers have a high level of acceptance for the vision of mathematics as problem
291 solving, they also present a high level of rejection to the vision of teaching from the resolution of problems, a
292 situation that makes the permanent dichotomy evident. There are some inconsistencies between what the teacher
293 thinks about mathematics and the way they teach it. This situation could be explained from what was stated
294 by Rodríguez (2003), especially as dichotomy and fragmentation.

295 From the analysis made to the actions and reasons presented by the professors at the time of the design
296 of the class for teaching the solution of additive structure problems, it is appreciated that these actions are
297 directed mainly to: reinforce or strengthen the subject, determine the previous knowledge, generate interest and
298 motivation, work in groups, evaluate to verify and control or to certify, to guide and explain the subject, all this
299 supported by the presentation of exercises that promote mechanization and algorithm.

300 A low level of coherence was found between each teacher's conceptions and their teaching tendencies. In
301 this particular case, the limited knowledge and training that teachers have around the teaching of mathematics,
302 seem to restrict the possibility of implementing them in teaching practice, encouraging traditional pedagogy
303 that does not encourage the student to think so that in this way can develop thinking skills and be able to
304 develop mathematically competent. Well, they just facilitate memorization processes, disconnected from the
305 socio-cultural context where learning takes place. All this, despite the fact that the vision of teaching they claim
306 to have, is that of problem solving.

307 The tendency of teachers to introduce students to problems in the simplest structures dominates, where the
308 unknown quantity is the final measure or routine in its statement containing the solution strategy either directly
309 or indirectly. The preference for these types of structures has limited the approach to more complex problems
310 that lead students to make stronger reflections. In addition, the approach that teachers make of situations are
311 referred to problems of written statement and numerical which does not facilitate an approach to the various
312 forms and structures that additive problems may have, also limiting the field of experience students could explore.

¹ ²

Figure 1:

2

Sara
Teaching reinforcement and
strengthening
Emphasis
knowledge. Connection and
relationship
environment.
Monitoring and evaluation of
achievements. Emphasis on
group
communication. Emphasis on
motivation.

mechanisms.
on previous
with the
Actions for
work and

Juan
Emphasis on evaluation
and motivation. Verify and
reinforce the subject.
Attention to doubts and
errors. Explanation for the
appropriation
subject.

Carlos
of the

Figure 2: Table 2 :

313

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13 CONCLUSIONS

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