2021

Conceptual knowledge OR Procedural knowledge OR Conceptual knowledge AND Procedural knowledge: Why the conjunction is important for teachers

Derek P. Hurrell

*University of Notre Dame Australia*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte](https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte)

**Recommended Citation**

Hurrell, D. P. (2021). Conceptual knowledge OR Procedural knowledge OR Conceptual knowledge AND Procedural knowledge: Why the conjunction is important for teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 46*(2).

[http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2021v46n2.4](http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2021v46n2.4)

This Journal Article is posted at Research Online.

[https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol46/iss2/4](https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol46/iss2/4)
Conceptual Knowledge OR Procedural Knowledge or Conceptual Knowledge AND Procedural Knowledge: Why the Conjunction is Important to Teachers

Derek Hurrell
University of Notre Dame

Abstract: The terms conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge are often used by teachers and never more so than when discussing how teachers teach, and children learn mathematics. This paper will look at literature regarding conceptual and procedural knowledge and their place in the classroom, to offer teachers and teacher educators’ advice on some of the more pressing issues and understandings around them. A thorough synthesis of extant and seminal literature will provide advice to teachers and teacher educators on how a deeper insight into conceptual and procedural knowledge could improve the quality of mathematics teaching.

Keywords Conceptual knowledge, Procedural knowledge, Teacher understanding

Introduction

Recently, when working with a group of highly motivated, mathematically perceptive, experienced primary and lower secondary teachers, questions were raised around conceptual and procedural knowledge. The teachers were asked if it was always better to teach to develop conceptual knowledge or procedural knowledge, and then offered the opportunity to justify and qualify their responses. This question was raised in the knowledge that it was a ‘loaded’ question, one that might provoke responses which were either strong, or guarded, due to expected conventions about teaching and learning. What emerged after some discussion, was that the collective understanding regarding conceptual and procedural knowledge, seemed worthy of further scrutiny. In essence, the teachers indicated that they carried the belief that conceptual and procedural knowledge were mutually exclusive, and that conceptual knowledge was, without exception, more appropriate or necessary than procedural knowledge.

What do we mean by Concepts and Conceptual Knowledge?

According to Westwood (2008) a concept can be defined as “a mental representation that embodies all the essential features of an object, a situation, or an idea. Concepts enable us to classify phenomena as belonging, or not belonging, together in certain categories” (p. 24). Chinn (2012) defined concepts as characteristics that determine either the inclusion or the exclusion of something from a set or class. The focus is on classifying, categorising, ordering and on labelling. Concepts, according to Rittle-Johnson and Koedinger (2009), are ideas that are generalised from specific instances and that govern a domain; for example,
place-value. If a student can recite the place value of a number as an isolated piece of information due to remembering the ‘verbal labels’ of each position, this is not conceptual knowledge. It becomes conceptual once that knowledge is linked to other knowledge, such as the grouping of objects by ten and the multiplicative nature of each of the places.

Bruner (1966) determined that concepts are developed through a series of stages. It commences with the ‘enactive’ stage where learning involves concrete experiences. Secondly is the ‘iconic’ stage. The ‘iconic’ stage is the where pictorial and other graphic representations are engaged. The ‘symbolic’ stage is the final stage and where abstract notation, and symbols are considered apposite for carrying meaning to the learner. This progression was further developed by Biggs and Collis (1982; 1991) when proposing their SOLO Taxonomy with Multimodal Functioning. The seminal work of Bruner (1966) and Biggs and Collis (1982; 1991) is still extant and underpins the contemporary instructional practice of CRA (Concrete-Representational-Abstract). CRA was originally visualised as a way to work with students with Learning Difficulties by employing graduated instruction (Strickland & Maccini, 2013). However, CRA, which in the literature is also referred to as CPA (Concrete-Pictorial-Abstract), proved to be an effective strategy for mainstream students to gain an understanding of needed mathematical concepts and skills (Agrawal & Morin, 2016; Flores, 2010; Miller & Kaffar, 2011).

Conceptual knowledge (notably characterised by Skemp, 1978, as Relational Knowledge) may be visualised as a connecting web of relationships (Miller & Hudson, 2007; Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015). This connection can be between two previously learned mathematical ideas or concepts, or be a connection between a concept previously learned and a concept newly learned; “the principles which govern a domain” (Rittle-Johnson, Fyfe, & Loehr, 2016, p. 576). Some researchers (e.g. Hiebert, 1986, Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015) have characterised it as being knowledge, where the rich links and relationships are as equally vital as the separate bits of information they join. However, Baroody, Feil, and Johnson (2007) asserted that when defining conceptual knowledge as being knowledge about facts, principles and generalisations, there is no necessity for the knowledge to be richly related. Rather, the research of Baroody, Feil, and Johnson (2007) and others (e.g. diSessa, Gillespie, & Easterly, 2004; Schneider & Stern, 2009) advocates that the conceptual knowledge of novices can often be disjointed, and can require time to become integrated, and that the richness of the connections increases with developing expertise. Scrutiny of Baroody, Feil, and Johnson’s (2007) claim may lead to proposing a position with regards to the type of knowledge, conceptual or procedural, and also of the qualities of each type.

Richland, Stigler and Holyoak (2012) characterised conceptual knowledge as the attainment of expert facility of the conceptual structure of a domain. The use of the word structure is informed through the work of Bruner (1966), who wrote about the role of structure in thinking and learning in the development of concepts. Bruner identified four functions that concepts perform in helping us organise people’s perceptions and understanding. Concepts:

• provide structure for a discipline
• provide a framework within which details can be more readily understood and remembered
• are the primary bridges which make transfer of learning possible; and
• provide the framework for lifelong learning.

Researchers (Mason, Stephens, & Watson, 2009; Mulligan & Mitchelmore, 2009) have written about mathematical structure often being expressed in the form of a generalisation or a relationship, which is seen to be constantly true in a domain. Their deliberate use of the word relationship and the use of this word by other researchers (e.g. Hiebert, 1986; Star, 2005), offered a connection to the definitions given for conceptual knowledge. Clark (2011) saw
concepts as the most powerful and useful cognitive tools available to people, as concepts have the 'capacity' of organisation and association. In essence a concept is an idea that is well enough understood to allow other ideas to be connected with it and become part of a web of understanding. Such connections and webs often lead to the formation of conceptual knowledge.

What do we mean by Procedures and Procedural Knowledge?

Procedures are a series of steps and/or actions employed to achieve a task or reach a goal (Hiebert & LeFevre, 1986; Rittle-Johnson, 2017; Rittle-Johnson, Schneider, & Star, 2015). Adopting this definition, without taking regard of the qualities of procedural knowledge (Table 2), could lead to what Skemp (1978) referred to as learning “rules without reason” (p. 9). Martin (2009) warned that executing procedures in such a mechanical fashion which employs rules without reason can often lead to peculiar and unreasonable solutions. Written algorithms (for example dividing a 4-digit number by a 2-digit number) are an often employed procedure, as are actions which have been suitably arranged to solve a problem, for example equation-solving steps (Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015). In essence a procedure is a routine, but it can be either thoughtfully considered, or executed with little consideration.

Procedural knowledge is characterised by some researchers (Canobi, 2009; Miller & Hudson, 2007; Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015) as the capacity to follow steps in sequence to solve mathematical problems or reach a mathematical goal. This can comprise a familiarity with, and a knowledge of, the system of symbols to construct algorithms, but can also pertain to a knowledge of procedural rules necessary to solve problems (Hiebert, & LeFevre, 1986; Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015). Baroody, Feil, and Johnson (2007) observed that procedures can often be interconnected or embedded within other procedures, and disagree with teachers who may view procedural knowledge to be devoid of relationships. Again, it appears prudent to reflect on the qualities of procedural knowledge, rather than to just accept a shallow, illconsidered, and perhaps sometimes unconsidered characterisation of this type of knowledge.

Conceptual and Procedural Knowledge in Creating Mathematically Powerful Classrooms

Improving the quality of mathematics learning and teaching is a pressing matter across the globe (Cobb & Jackson, 2011), and yet, how to support instructional improvement is an area which is not researched particularly well (Cobb & Jackson, 2011; Coburn, Russell, Kaufman, & Stein, 2012; Cohen, Moffitt, & Goldin, 2007; Stein, 2004) and needs to be considered an important topic for researchers (Cobb & Jackson, 2011). One field of research where there is substantial work, regards teacher impact on the academic success of students (Charalambous, Hill, & Mitchell, 2012; Chetty, Friedman, & Rockoff, 2014). How student success can be encouraged has engendered further research into effective teaching practice and much of this research has focussed on the attributes or characteristics of effective teachers of mathematics, including factors such as: subject matter knowledge (Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008; Cobb and Jackson 2011); pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman 1986); teacher efficacy (Young-Loveridge & Mills 2009; Zambo & Zambo 2008); and teacher confidence, attitudes and beliefs (Swarz, Hart, Smith, Smith, & Tolar, 2007). There has also been substantial research into how students learn mathematics (Darco, Mosher, & Corcoran, 2011). There is arguably no greater issue in the teaching and learning of mathematics more
pressing than the decisions teachers make about whether to teach procedurally or conceptually.

The connections between how students learn mathematics and the success they might encounter through successful teaching practices is one that asks teachers and other mathematics educators to consider how learning is best facilitated. Such questions are complex, as the practice of teaching is complex (Clarke & Pittaway, 2014; Danielson, 2013, Hattie, 2015). The practice of teaching asks teachers to make choices with regards to instructional strategies on a daily basis, choices which need to be informed. These strategies should always be focussed on developing mathematically powerful classrooms (Hattie, 2015; Schoenfeld, 2014). Whether considering Schoenfeld’s five dimensions of powerful classrooms, or Hattie’s distinction between the ‘expert’ teacher and the ‘experienced’ teachers, or other researchers who articulate indicators of teachers who provide quality instruction (Charalambous, Hill & Mitchell, 2012; Hill, Ball & Schilling, 2008; Hill, Rowan & Ball, 2005), the need for focussed, quality instruction is central. Focussed, quality instruction requires teachers to make judgements, and one key judgement is the consideration of the place of procedural knowledge and conceptual knowledge in the teaching of mathematics.

That many students were not developing a conceptual understanding of mathematics, and that consequently this was critically inhibiting their capacity to transfer and generalise mathematics was a concern of Richland, Stigler and Holyoak (2012). They posited that this paucity in the development of conceptual understanding was resulting in students who despite having success with mathematics in high school, found a subsequent need to receive remedial assistance while attending community colleges. Further research (Givvin, Stigler, & Thompson, 2011; Stigler, Givvin, & Thompson, 2010) concluded that the mathematical knowledge of these students was largely procedural and left the students with ineffectual mathematical reasoning and a want to conduct incorrect or partially correct procedures. Such a reliance on procedural knowledge was a further issue, in that many of these students used their two-year associate’s degree (a degree which is an alternative pathway into tertiary study) gained at community college, as a springboard to four-year degrees, which often required a knowledge of mathematics that was more conceptual (The Princeton Review, 2017).

If it is the case that the school system is producing students who are procedural in their approach to solving mathematical problems and who employ ineffective reasoning, is there an approach to teaching and learning to ameliorate or even remedy this? Such a question only has potency if it is acknowledged that a concentration on developing procedural knowledge is not the sole purpose of mathematics education, but also recognises the importance of conceptual knowledge. Research is unambiguous in accepting that both conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge are important (Hiebert & Grouws, 2007; Rittle-Johnson, Schneider & Star, 2015). This acceptance that both forms of knowledge are important allows the debate to move to determining the relationship between the two. Although this debate still receives contemporary attention (Alcock et al., 2014; Rittle-Johnson, 2017; Rittle-Johnson & Koedinger, 2009; Schneider, Rittle-Johnson & Star, 2011) it is one that has some history (e.g. Resnick & Ford, 1981; Sowder, 1998). In the past, the terms have been couched differently (Table 1), but regardless of the labels, the divisions regarding the types of knowledge are consistent. (Hiebert & Lefevre, 1986).
Is Conceptual Knowledge always ‘deeper’ than Procedural Knowledge?

Star (2005) proposed a matrix to represent the types and qualities of conceptual and procedural knowledge (Table 2). The matrix indicates that for each knowledge type (conceptual and procedural) there is the possibility of developing a superficial knowledge or a deep knowledge. However, Star noted that with the prevailing, yet often erroneous, interpretation of what conceptual knowledge (seen by some as solely deep connected learning) and procedural knowledge (seen by some as solely step by step, prescriptive learning) evokes, it is challenging to determine an illustration or articulation of deep-procedural, or shallow-conceptual knowledge. Due to the range of qualities contained within conceptual and procedural knowledge, Kieran (2013) declared the dichotomy between them to be fundamentally unsound. Kieran (2013) writes that “…during any period of elaboration, procedures are conceptual in nature” (p. 212) and that procedures are regularly being extended and revised, and therefore updated, by means of conceptual elements.

Table 2: Types and Qualities of Conceptual and Procedural Knowledge - Star (2005)

As Star’s (2005) matrix did not attempt to illustrate the connection between these two types of knowledge, Baroody, Feil, and Johnson (2007) proposed a reconceptualisation to represent the different types and qualities of conceptual and procedural knowledge which recognised the connections. This reconceptualisation of Star’s (2005) model included constructs which they called, routine expertise, and adaptive expertise. Routine expertise is where there is a superficial conceptual and/or procedural knowledge, which is able to be applied to familiar situations, but not unfamiliar ones, or to new tasks. Adaptive expertise is where both conceptual and procedural knowledge is deep, and where that knowledge can be applied creatively, flexibly and appropriately to all situations, familiar or new.

Baroody, Feil, and Johnson (2007) used their reconceptualisation of Star’s (2005) perspective to inform their own representation of the dependency between procedural and conceptual knowledge (Figure 1). This further reconceptualisation of Star’s model (2005) was deemed necessary due to unease that Star equated deep-knowledge only with richly connected knowledge, but lacked other aspects of knowledge quality (level of structure/degree of organisation; abstractness; and accuracy) and knowledge completeness (connections to everyday situations and applications).
Which comes first, Procedural or Conceptual Knowledge?

The unstated belief which predicated Baroody, Feil, and Johnson’s (2007) model (Figure 1) is that students need knowledge of both concepts and procedures and that they have an influence on each other. It is the notion of this relationship that presents further issues. Rittle-Johnson and Schneider (2015) offered four differing views as to the relationship between procedural and conceptual knowledge. These four are the;

- procedure-first view (a uni-directional view)
- the concepts-first view (a second uni-directional view)
- the inactivation view (where both conceptual and procedural knowledge is thought to develop independently of each other), and
- the iterative view where the causal relationship is seen as being bi-directional, that is, increases in one, generates increases in the other.

This iterative, bi-directional view is now considered to be the most accepted (Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015) with research finding correlations between procedural and conceptual knowledge across a range of domains and ages (Cowan et al., 2011; Dowker, 2008; Durkin, Rittle-Johnson, & Star, 2011; Hallet, Nunes, & Bryant, 2010; Hecht & Vagi, 2010; Patel & Canobi, 2010; Star & Rittle-Johnson, 2009). In synthesising the available research, Rittle-Johnson and Schneider (2015) concluded that although the relationship between conceptual and procedural knowledge is bi-directional, it is not always symmetrical, and that, at times, conceptual knowledge is stronger and more consistent in supporting procedural knowledge, than the reverse.

As the research indicates that the two types of learning are iterative, a question of an optimal sequence is raised, that is, whether procedural knowledge or conceptual knowledge should be introduced first, or if indeed it matters. Although Grouws and Cebulla (2000) and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM, 2014) overtly support the concept-first iterative approach, most researchers appear to be a little more circumspect with their support. Although in promoting the iterative process, researchers (e.g. Canobi, 2009; Khashan, 2014; Rittle-Johnson & Koedinger, 2009; Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015; Star, 2002) appeared reticent to deem that one type of knowledge should always precede the other,
it seems that the examples they provided regarding instructional methods, usually start with conceptual knowledge before procedural knowledge.

So, should it always be a Concept-first Approach?

Circumspection regarding the concept-first approach is evident through the research of Rittle-Johnson and Koedinger (2009) and Rittle-Johnson, Schneider, and Star (2015) who state that it would be beneficial (my emphasis) for the early introduction of procedures to occur after an initial concept lesson, and that conceptual knowledge often supports procedural knowledge. Even using a guarded word such as beneficial, (rather than the suggestion that it is advisable, or even desireable) this displays a disposition towards conceptual knowledge predicking procedural knowledge.

With little empirical evidence to support a concept-first iterative approach, why then has it enjoyed such a pervasive adoption? Firstly, the evidence there is, shows that in developing conceptual knowledge of mathematics, students who are taught for a conceptual understanding followed by a procedural understanding, outperform students who are instructed for procedural then conceptual knowledge (Pesek & Kirshner, 2000). Pesek and Kirshner’s (2000) study also reinforced the research of Hiebert (1999), who asserted that once students have memorised and practised procedures (including written algorithms, that they do not necessarily understand) they have less motivation to comprehend their meaning or the reasoning behind them. This indicates that trying to create a situation or environment for bi-directional iteration to occur requires a concept-first approach.

A further argument as to the need for a conceptual first approach sits with the research which challenges a longstanding preoccupation with breaking mathematics knowledge into small pieces, and asserts that doing so, may be counterproductive to deep learning (Pellegrino & Hilton, 2012). Conley (2014) stressed that the approach should rather be about allowing the students the opportunity to grasp the ‘big picture’, that is, developing conceptual knowledge. Other research also posits that although ‘experts’ do know more ‘facts’, crucially it is that the facts are connected and organised into meaningful schemas or patterns, a characteristic of conceptual knowledge, that is important (Ericsson, Charness, Feltovich, & Hoffman, 2006). It is this schematised conceptual knowledge which allows them to select and remember relevant information and extract levels of meaning not apparent to novices (Chi, Glaser, & Rees, 1982). Further, this organisation allows for greater transfer; what was learned, can be transferred into new situations more quickly (Schwartz, Bransford, & Sears, 2005).

Consideration also needs to be given, regarding issues which impact on the knowledge types and therefore on the efficacy of the learning which can be expected. Pesek and Kirshner (2000) pursued the issue of interference of prior learning, writing that there are two types of interference cognitive and attitudinal (although they mention a third, metacognitive interference, which is an intermediate between their two stated types). Cognitive interference, considered by Pesek and Kirshner as being the more important interference, is when previous understandings of something are so powerful they obtrude into subsequent learning. An example of this could be when a student has generalised the procedural understanding of the equals sign (=) standing for “give me an answer” (Knuth, Stephens, McNeil, & Alibali, 2006). This understanding is quite appropriate when working in arithmetic, but is highly problematic later in school with the requirement to solve equations (Booth, Barbieri, Francie Eyer, & Paré-Blagoev, 2014), as the idea of balance across two sides of an equation is a foundational concept of equivalence (Chesney & McNeil, 2014). Therefore if the ‘arithmetic’ understanding of the equals sign is persistent, then future
teaching and learning is obfuscated. This is a case where procedural knowledge might interfere with a conceptually broader, more complex, and arguably mathematically more important, understanding.

Attitudinal interference is where a student’s previously acquired opinions and attitudes block comprehensive engagement with a topic and therefore impede potential for learning (Pesek & Kirshner, 2000). For example if the student has been exposed to predominantly procedural practices which they have found unengaging. Many teachers who teach from a predominantly procedural knowledge standpoint, would likely employ textbooks as a significant source of their teaching. According to Boaler (1998) this approach emphasises computation and procedures and encourages limited, school-bound and inflexible learning, not a description which sits in concordance with conceptual knowledge. It may then be reasonable to assert that favouring procedural knowledge through the use of textbooks, and by extension, didactic teaching may promote attitudinal interference to learning, particularly when conceptual knowledge is desired. What has also been observed in detailed analyses of mathematics textbooks is that they tend to adopt a dominant mathematical teaching method which revolves around presenting archetypal tasks and then suggesting methods of solution. These solutions most commonly are in the form of algorithmic templates such as rules, methods and solved examples tasks. Such methods of solution produce learning in the short-term but there are data indicating that they fail to enhance students’ long-term conceptual knowledge (Wirebring, et al., 2015).

In combining the research that promotes a concept-first iterative approach to learning, with an understanding of the possible interferences of prior learning, a sound basis is built for recommending that although learning should be iterative between conceptual and procedural knowledge, a concept-first iterative process is endorsed. This position being clearly foregrounded, and in order that the iterative process be properly explored, it should be acknowledged that not only does conceptual knowledge support the development of procedural knowledge, the research further indicates, that development of procedural knowledge supports the development of conceptual knowledge (Hiebert & Wearne, 1996; Peled & Segalis, 2005; Rittle-Johnson & Alibali, 1999; Rittle-Johnson, Schneider, & Star, 2015). There is also evidence that gaining procedural knowledge can lessen the cognitive demands on working memory. This lessening of demand can then free the working memory to focus on conceptual knowledge development (Sweller, van Merrienboer, & Paas, 1998). These arguments accepted it should be noted that the extent to which gains in procedural knowledge support gains in conceptual knowledge, is markedly influenced by the nature of the practice or procedural instruction. Research (Canobi, 2009; McNeil et al., 2012) showed how sequencing arithmetic problems to encourage the identification of conceptual relationships proved to be efficacious, whereas when the problems were in random order this effect was not noted. The inference here is that thoughtful, deep-knowledge of procedure was required on the teachers’ behalf, to support the conceptual knowledge (Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015). This deep-knowledge of procedures could actually be considered to show an understanding of connections and relationships, and therefore has qualities which are analogous to conceptual knowledge.

This acknowledgment of procedural knowledge should in no way be taken as support for a procedure-first, or procedure-only argument. Justifying an over-focus on procedures by asserting that it is a shortcut to computational fluency is a flawed argument. Researchers (Ginsburg, 1977; Skemp, 1978) have long declaimed that ‘meaningful’ memorisation is more effective than rote memorisation, and researchers such as Baroody, Feil, and Johnson (2007) claimed that linking procedural knowledge to existing conceptual knowledge is required. Linking procedural knowledge to conceptual knowledge can; make learning facts and procedures easier, provide computational shortcuts, ensure fewer computational errors, and
promote efficiency. Procedural knowledge connected exclusively or largely with other non-conceptual knowledge tends to yield more error-prone, rigid, short-term, or isolated gains than would more conceptually connected procedural knowledge (Baroody, 2003; Carpenter, 1986). As Fuson, Kalchman, and Bransford (2005) wrote, when procedures are connected with underlying concepts, students are able to better retrieve and employ them.

Conclusion and Discussion

Improving the quality of mathematics teaching and learning is a pressing issue across the globe (Cobb & Jackson, 2011). One area where there is significant research into improving the quality of mathematics teaching and learning is in regard to the impact that teachers have on student academic success (Charalambous et al. 2012; Chetty, Friedman, & Rockoff, 2014). How such academic success is accomplished has engendered further research into effective teaching practice (Daro, Mosher, & Corcoran, 2011). When examining teaching practice, one issue which arises is whether teachers should be teaching mathematics for procedural knowledge, conceptual knowledge, or a combination of the two (Rittle-Johnson & Schneider, 2015).

With due consideration of contemporary literature and research regarding procedural and conceptual knowledge, of what then teachers should be aware?

- We should be considering our practices to include Procedural knowledge and Conceptual knowledge not Procedural knowledge or Conceptual knowledge.
- Procedural knowledge and conceptual knowledge are both important and help to strengthen each other.
- Conceptual knowledge in most cases should precede procedural knowledge.
- There is more chance of students developing a conceptual knowledge if they start with conceptual knowledge and then move to procedural knowledge. Moving in the opposite direction, procedural to conceptual, has the risk that students will not work towards conceptual knowledge.
- Both procedural and conceptual knowledge are more nuanced structures than many teachers realise. Both can be ‘shallow’ (superficial) or ‘deep’.
- Cognitive and attitudinal interference both need to be recognised and acknowledged. Conceptual knowledge appears more suited in avoiding the two sources of interference for learning.
- Meaningful memorisation is valuable. Memorisation is important (for one thing it frees up the working memory) but memorisation with meaning is far more efficacious. Teachers deserve to be made aware of the contemporary research and literature with regards to procedural and conceptual knowledge, in order that they might make informed decisions when creating their teaching and learning environment. Anecdotally there is a good deal of misinformation regarding the efficacy of both knowledge forms amongst teachers, and this is unhelpful. For example, the false positioning of procedural and conceptual knowledge as being two extremes of a continuum, rather than them having the capacity to occupy different places on that continuum depending on the situation, does little to acknowledge their complexity. Conversations around the teaching and learning of mathematics need to be framed on sound understandings of procedural and conceptual knowledge, rather than on limited, and sometimes erroneous, (mis)understandings. In answer to the title of this article it should be Conceptual knowledge and Procedural knowledge, the when and where, that is determined by the professional call of the teacher.
References

Alcock, L., Ansari, D., Batechelor, S., Bison, M., De Smedt, B., Gilmore, C., Göbel, S., Hannula-Sormunen, M, Hodgen, J., Inglis, M., Jones, I., Mazzocco, M., McNeil, N., Schneider, M., Simms, V., & Weber, K. (2015). Challenges in mathematical cognition: A collaboratively-derived research agenda. *Journal of Numerical Cognition, 2*(1), 20–41. https://doi.org/10.5964/jnc.v2i1.10

Agrawal, J., & Morin, L. L., (2016). Evidence-based practices: Applications of concrete representational abstract framework across math concepts for students with mathematics disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 31*(1), 34–44 https://doi.org/10.1111/ldrp.12093

Ball, D. L., Thames, M., & Phelps, G. (2008). Content knowledge for teaching: What makes it special? *Journal of Teacher Education, 59*(5), 389-407. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487108324554

Baroody, A. J. (2003). *The development of adaptive expertise and flexibility: The integration of conceptual and procedural knowledge*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Baroody, A. J., Feil, Y., & Johnson, A. R. (2007). An alternative reconceptualization of procedural and conceptual knowledge. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 38*, 115-131.

Biggs, J. B., & Collis, K. F. (1982). Evaluating the Quality of Learning: The SOLO Taxonomy. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Biggs, J. B., & Collis, K. F. (1991). Multimodal learning and the quality of intelligent behavior. In H. A. H. Rowe (Ed.), Intelligence: Reconceptualization and Measurement (pp. 57-76). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum. Boaler, J. (1998). Open and closed mathematics: Students experiences and understandings. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 29*(1), 41–62. https://doi.org/10.5951/jresmatheduc.29.1.0041

Booth, J.L., Barbieri, C., Eyer, F., & Paré-Blagoev, E. J. (2014). Persistent and pernicious misconceptions in algebraic problem solving. *Journal of Problem Solving, 7*, 10–23 https://doi.org/10.7771/1932-6246.1161

Bruner, J. S. (1966). *Toward a Theory of Instruction*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press

Canobi, K. H. (2009). Concept-procedure interactions in children's addition and subtraction. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 102*, 131-149. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2008.07.008

Carpenter, T. P. (1986). Conceptual knowledge as a foundation for procedural knowledge: Implications from research on the initial learning of arithmetic. In J. Hiebert (Ed.), *Conceptual procedural knowledge: The case of mathematics* (pp. 113-132). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Charalambous, C. Y., Hill, H.C., & Mitchell, R. (2012). Two negatives don’t always make a positive: Exploring how limitations in teacher knowledge and the curriculum contribute to instructional quality. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 44*(4), 489-513. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220272.2012.716974

Chesney, D. L. & McNeil, N. M. (2014). Activation of operational thinking during arithmetic practice hinders learning and transfer. *The Journal of Problem Solving, 7*(1), 24-35. https://doi.org/10.7771/1932-6246.1165

Chetty, R., Friedman, J. N. & Rockoff, J. E. (2014). Measuring the impacts of teachers I: Evaluating bias in teacher value-added estimates. *American Economic Review 104*(9), 2593-2632. https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.104.9.2593
Chi, M. T., Glaser, R., & Rees, E. (1982). Expertise in problem solving. In R. J. Stemberg (Ed.), Advances in the psychology of human intelligence (pp. 7-77). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Chinn, S. (2012). The Trouble with Maths: A Practical Guide to Helping Learners with Numeracy Difficulties. NY, Routledge.

Clark, E. (2011). Concepts as organizing frameworks. Encounter, 24(3), 32-44. Retrieved from: www.ojs.greatideas.org/Encounter/Clark243.pdf (Original work published in 1997).

Clarke, M., & Pittaway, S. (2014). Marsh's becoming a teacher (6th Ed.). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Australia.

Cobb, P., & Jackson, K. (2011). Towards an empirically grounded theory of action for improving the quality of mathematics teaching at scale. Mathematics Teacher Education and Development, 13(1), 6–33.

Coburn, C. E., Russell, J. L. Kaufman, J. and Stein, M. K. (2012). Supporting sustainability: Teachers' advice networks and ambitious instructional reform. American Journal of Education, 119(1): 137-182. https://doi.org/10.1086/667699

Cohen, D. K., Moffitt, S. L., & Goldin, S. (2007). Policy and practice: The dilemma. American Journal of Education, 113, 515-548. https://doi.org/10.1086/518487

Conley, D. T. (2014). A new era for educational assessment. Students at the center. Deeper Learning Research Series, Boston, MA. https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.v23.1983

Cowan, R., Donlan, C., Shepherd, D.-L., Cole-Fletcher, R., Saxton, M., & Hurry, J. (2011). Basic calculation proficiency and mathematics achievement in elementary school children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 103, 786-803. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024556

Danielson, C. (2013). The framework for teacher evaluation instrument. Princeton, NJ: The Danielson Group.

Daro, P., Mosher, F., & Corcoran, T. (2011). Learning trajectories in mathematics: A foundation for standards, curriculum, assessment, and instruction. CPRE Research Report #RR-68. Philadelphia: Consortium for Policy Research in Education. https://doi.org/10.12698/cpre.2011.rr68

diSessa, A. A., Gillespie, N. M., & Easterly, J. B. (2004). Coherence versus fragmentation in the development of the concept of force. Cognitive Science, 28, 843-900. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog2806_1

Dowker, A. (2008). Individual differences in numerical abilities in preschoolers. Developmental Science, 11, 650-654. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2008.00713.x

Durkin, K., Rittle-Johnson, B., & Star, J. R. (2011). Procedural flexibility matters for student achievement: How procedural flexibility relates to other outcomes. Paper presented at the 14th Biennial conference of the European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction, Exeter, United Kingdom.

Ericsson, K. A., Charness, N., Feltovich, P. J., & Hoffman, R. R. (Eds.). (2006). The Cambridge handbook of expertise and expert performance. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511816796

Flores, M. M., Hinton, V. M., Strozier, S. D., & Terry, S. L. (2014). Using the concrete-representational-abstract sequence and the strategic instruction model to teach computation to students with autism spectrum disorders and developmental disabilities. Education and Training in Autism and Developmental Disabilities, 49(4), 547–554.
Fuson, K. C., Kalchman, M. & Bransford, J. D. (2005). Mathematics understanding: An introduction. In M. S. Donovan & J. D. Bransford (Eds.), How students learn mathematics in the classroom (pp. 217-256). Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Ginsburg, H. P. (1977). Children's arithmetic: The learning process. NY: D. van Nostrand Co.

Givvin, K. B., Stigler, J. W., & Thompson, B. J. (2011). What community college developmental mathematics students understand about mathematics, Part II: The interviews. The MathAMATYC Educator, 2(3), 4-18

Grouws, D. A., & Cebulla, K. J. (2000). Improving student achievement in mathematics. Geneva: International Academy of Education

Hallett, D., Nunes, T., & Bryant, P. (2010). Individual differences in conceptual and procedural knowledge when learning fractions. Journal of Educational Psychology, 102, 395-406. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017486

Hattie, J. (2005). What is the nature of evidence that makes a difference to learning?. Retrieved from http://research.acer.edu.au/research_conference_2005/7

Hattie, J. (2015). The applicability of visible learning to higher education. Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Psychology, 1(1), 79–91. https://doi.org/10.1037/stl0000021

Hecht, S. A., & Vagi, K. J. (2010). Sources of group and individual differences in emerging fraction skills. Journal of Educational Psychology, 102, 843-859. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019824

Hiebert, J. (1986). Conceptual and procedural knowledge: The case of mathematics. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Hiebert, J. (1999). Relationships between research and the NCTM standards. Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 30(1), 3–19. https://doi.org/10.2307/749627

Hiebert, J., & Grouws, D. A. (2007). The effects of classroom mathematics teaching on students' learning. In F. K. Lester (Ed.), Second handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning (pp. 371–404). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

Hiebert, J., & Lefevre, P. (1986). Conceptual and procedural knowledge in mathematics: An introductory analysis. In J. Hiebert (Ed.), Conceptual and procedural knowledge: The case of mathematics (pp. 1-27). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Hiebert, J., & Wearne, D. (1986). Procedures over concepts: The acquisition of decimal number knowledge. In J. Hiebert (Ed.), Conceptual and procedural knowledge: The case of mathematics (pp. 199-223). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum

Hill, H. C., Ball, D.L., & Schilling, S. (2008). Unpacking pedagogical content knowledge: Conceptualizing and measuring teachers' topic-specific knowledge of students. Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 39(4), 372-400.

Hill, H. C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D.L. (2005). Effects of teachers’ mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. American Educational Research Journal, 42(2), 371-406. https://doi.org/10.3102/0028312042002371

Khashan, K.H. (2014). Conceptual and procedural knowledge of rational numbers for Riyadh elementary school teachers. Journal of Education and Human Development, 3(4), 181-197 https://doi.org/10.15640/jehd.v3n4a17

Kieran, C. (2013). The false dichotomy in mathematics education between conceptual understanding and procedural skills: An example from Algebra. In R. Keith (Ed.) Vital directions for Mathematics Education Research (pp. 211–243). New York, NY: Springer https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-6977-3_7
Knuth, E. J., Stephens, A. C., McNeil, N. M., & Alibali, M. W. (2006). Does understanding the equal sign matter? Evidence from solving equations. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 37*, 297-312.

Martin, W.G. (2009). The NCTM High School curriculum project: Why it matters to you. *Mathematics Teacher, 103*(3), 164-166. [https://doi.org/10.5951/MT.103.3.0164](https://doi.org/10.5951/MT.103.3.0164)

Mason, J., Stephens, M., & Watson, A. (2009). Appreciating mathematical structure for all. *Mathematics Education Research Journal, 21*(2), 10-32. [https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03217543](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03217543)

McNeil, N. M., Chesney, D. L., Matthews, P. G., Fyfe, E. R., Petersen, L. A., Dunwiddie, A. E., Wheeler, M. C. (2012). It pays to be organized: Organizing arithmetic practice around equivalent values facilitates understanding of mathematical equivalence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 104*(4), 1109-1121. [https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028997](https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028997)

Miller, S.P., & Hudson, P.J. (2007). Using evidence-based practices to build mathematics competence related to conceptual, procedural, and declarative knowledge. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 22*(1), 47-57. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5826.2007.00230.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5826.2007.00230.x)

Miller, S. P., & Kaffar, B. J. (2011). Developing addition and regrouping competence among second grade students with mathematics difficulties. *Investigations in Mathematics Learning, 4*(1), 25–51. Retrieved from [http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ950987](http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ950987)

Mulligan, J. T., & Mitchelmore, M. C. (2009). Awareness of pattern and structure in early mathematical development. *Mathematics Education Research Journal, 21*(2), 33–49. [https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03217544](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03217544)

NCTM. (2014). *Principles to actions: Ensuring mathematical success for all*. Reston: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Inc.

Patel, P., & Canobi, K. H. (2010). The role of number words in preschoolers' addition concepts and problem-solving procedures. *Educational Psychology, 30*, 107-124. [https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410903473597](https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410903473597)

Peled, I., & Segalis, B. (2005). It's not too late to conceptualize: Constructing a generalized subtraction schema by abstracting and connecting procedures. *Mathematical Thinking and Learning, 7*(3), 207–230. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327833mtl0703_2](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327833mtl0703_2)

Pellegrino, J. W., & Hilton, M. L. (Eds.), (2012). *Education for life and work: Developing transferable knowledge and skills in the 21st century*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Pesek, D., & Kirshner, D. (2000). Interference of Instrumental Instruction in Subsequent Relational Learning. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 31*(5), 524-540. [https://doi.org/10.2307/749885](https://doi.org/10.2307/749885)

Resnick, L. B., & Ford, W. W. (1981). *The psychology of mathematics for instruction*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum

Richland, L. E., Stigler, J. W., Holyoak, K. J. (2012). Teaching the conceptual structure of mathematics, *Educational Psychologist 47*(3), 189-203. [https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2012.667065](https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2012.667065)

Rittle-Johnson, B. (2017). Developing Mathematics Knowledge. *Child Development Perspectives, 11*(3), 184-190. [https://doi.org/10.1111/cdep.12229](https://doi.org/10.1111/cdep.12229)

Rittle-Johnson, B., & Alibali, M.W. (1999). Conceptual and procedural knowledge of mathematics: Does one lead to the other? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*(1), 175–189. [https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.91.1.175](https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.91.1.175)
Rittle-Johnson, B., Fyfe, E., & Loehr, A. (2016). The content of instruction within a mathematics lesson: Implications for conceptual and procedural knowledge development. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 86*, 576 - 591. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12124

Rittle-Johnson, B., & Koedinger, K. R. (2009). Iterating between lessons concepts and procedures can improve mathematics knowledge. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 79*, 483-500. https://doi.org/10.1348/000709908X398106

Rittle-Johnson, B., & Schneider, M. (2015). Developing conceptual and procedural knowledge in mathematics. In R. Cohen Kadosh & A. Dowker (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of numerical cognition* (pp. 1102-1118). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199642342.013.014

Rittle-Johnson, B., Schneider, M., & Star, J. (2015). Not a one-way street: Bi-directional relations between procedural and conceptual knowledge of mathematics. *Educational Psychology Review, 27*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-015-9302-x

Rittle-Johnson, B., Siegler, R. S., & Alibali, M. W. (2001). Developing conceptual understanding and procedural skill in mathematics: An iterative process. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93*, 346 –362. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.2.346

Schneider, M., Rittle-Johnson, B., & Star, J. R. (2011). Relations among conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and procedural flexibility in two samples differing in prior knowledge. *Developmental Psychology, 47*(6), 1525-1538 https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024997

Schneider, M., & Stern, E. (2009). The Inverse Relation of Addition and Subtraction: A Knowledge Integration Perspective. *Mathematical Thinking and Learning, 11*, 92-101. https://doi.org/10.1080/10986060802584012

Schoenfeld, A. H. (2014). What makes for powerful classrooms, and how can we support teachers in creating them? A story of research and practice, productively intertwined. *Educational Researcher, 43*(8), 404-412. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X14554450

Schwartz, D. L., Bransford, J. D., & Sears, D. (2005). Efficiency and innovation in transfer. In J. P. Mestre (Ed.), *Transfer of learning from a modern multidisciplinary perspective* (pp. 1- 51). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand, knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher, 15*(2), 4-14. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X015002004

Skemp, R. R. (1978). Relational understanding and instrumental understanding. *Arithmetic Teacher, 26*(3), 9-15. https://doi.org/10.5951/AT.26.3.0009

Sowder, J. T. (1998). *What are the “math wars” in California all about? Reasons and perspectives*. Retrieved from http://staff.tarleton.edu/brawner/coursefiles/579/Math%20Wars%20in%20California.pdf

Star, J.R. (2002). Developing conceptual understanding and procedural skill in mathematics: An interactive process. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93*(2), 346-362. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.2.346

Star, J. R. (2005). Reconceptualizing procedural knowledge. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 36*, 404-411

Star, J. R., & Rittle-Johnson, B. (2009). It pays to compare: An experimental study on computational estimation. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 101*, 408 - 426. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2008.11.004

Stein, M. K. (2004). *Studying the influence and impact of standards: The role of districts in teacher capacity*. Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics Research Catalyst Conference, Reston, VA.
Stigler, J. W., Givvin, K. B., & Thompson, B. J. (2010). What community college developmental mathematics students understand about mathematics. *Mathematics Teacher, 1*(3), 4–16.

Strickland, T. K., & Maccini, P. (2013). The effects of the concrete–representational–abstract integration strategy on the ability of students with learning disabilities to multiply linear expressions within area problems. *Remedial and Special Education, 34*(3), 142–153. [https://doi.org/10.1177/0741932512441712](https://doi.org/10.1177/0741932512441712)

Swars, S., Hart, L. C., Smith, S. Z., Smith, M. E., & Tolar, T. (2007). A longitudinal study of elementary pre-service teachers’ mathematics beliefs and content knowledge. *School Science and Mathematics, 107*(9), 325-335. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1949-8594.2007.tb17797.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1949-8594.2007.tb17797.x)

Sweller, J., van Merrienboer, J. J. G., & Paas, F. G. W. C. (1998). Cognitive architecture and instructional design. *Educational Psychology Review, 10*(3), 251–296. [https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022193728205](https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022193728205)

The Princeton Review. (2017). *4 Reasons to Consider Community College*. Retrieved from [https://www.princetonreview.com/college-advice/community-college](https://www.princetonreview.com/college-advice/community-college)

Westwood, P. (2008). *What teachers need to know about numeracy* [online]. ACER Press, Camberwell, Vic. Retrieved from: [http://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=441576506871113;res=IELHSS](http://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=441576506871113;res=IELHSS)

Wirebring, L.K., Lithner, J., Jonsson, B., Liljekvist, Y., Norqvist, M., & Nyberg, L. (2015). Learning mathematics without a suggested solution method: Durable effects on performance and brain activity. *Trends in Neuroscience and Education, 4*(1-2), 6-14. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tine.2015.03.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tine.2015.03.002)

Young-Loveridge, J., & Mills, J. (2009). Teaching multi-digit multiplication using array-based materials. In R. Hunter, B. Bicknell, & T.Burgess (Eds.), *Crossing divides* (Proceedings of the 32nd annual conference of the Mathematics Education Research Group of Australasia pp. 635-643). Palmerston North, NZ: MERGA.

Zambo, R., & Zambo, D. (2008). The impact of professional development in mathematics on teachers’ individual and collective efficacy: The stigma of underperforming. *Teacher Education Quarterly 35*(1), 159-168.