Ohio’s Learning Standards | Mathematics

Kindergarten

Ohio | Department of Education

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Introduction

PROCESS

To better prepare students for college and careers, educators used public comments along with their professional expertise and experience to revise Ohio's Learning Standards. In spring 2016, the public gave feedback on the standards through an online survey. Advisory committee members, representing various Ohio education associations, reviewed all survey feedback and identified needed changes to the standards. Then they sent their directives to working groups of educators who proposed the actual revisions to the standards. The Ohio Department of Education sent their revisions back out for public comment in July 2016. Once again, the Advisory Committee reviewed the public comments and directed the Working Group to make further revisions. Upon finishing their work, the department presented the revisions to the Senate and House education committees as well as the State Board of Education.

UNDERSTANDING MATHEMATICS

These standards define what students should understand and be able to do in their study of mathematics. Asking a student to understand something means asking a teacher to assess whether the student has understood it. But what does mathematical understanding look like? One hallmark of mathematical understanding is the ability to justify, in a way appropriate to the student's mathematical maturity, why a particular mathematical statement is true, or where a mathematical rule comes from. There is a world of difference between a student who can summon a mnemonic device to expand a product such as $(a + b)(x + y)$ and a student who can explain where the mnemonic device comes from. The student who can explain the rule understands the mathematics at a much deeper level. Then the student may have a better chance to succeed at a less familiar task such as expanding $(a + b + c)(x + y)$. Mathematical understanding and procedural skill are equally important, and both are assessable using mathematical tasks of sufficient richness.

The content standards are grade-specific. However, they do not define the intervention methods or materials necessary to support students who are well below or well above grade-level expectations. It is also beyond the scope of the standards to define the full range of supports appropriate for English learners and for students with special needs. At the same time, all students must have the opportunity to learn and meet the same high standards if they are to access the knowledge and skills necessary in their post-school lives. Educators should read the standards allowing for the widest possible range of students to participate fully from the outset. They should provide appropriate accommodations to ensure maximum participation of students with special education needs. For example, schools should allow students with disabilities in reading to use Braille, screen reader technology or other assistive devices. Those with disabilities in writing should have scribes, computers, or speech-to-text technology. In a similar vein, educators should interpret the speaking and listening standards broadly to include sign language. No set of grade-specific standards can fully reflect the great variety in abilities, needs, learning rates, and achievement levels of students in any given classroom. However, the standards do provide clear signposts along the way to help all students achieve the goal of college and career readiness.

The standards begin on page 4 with the eight Standards for Mathematical Practice.

Standards for Mathematical Practice

The Standards for Mathematical Practice describe varieties of expertise that mathematics educators at all levels should seek to develop in their students. These practices rest on important "processes and proficiencies" with longstanding importance in mathematics education. The first of these are the NCTM process standards of problem solving, reasoning and proof, communication, representation, and connections. The second are the strands of mathematical proficiency specified in the National Research Council's report *Adding It Up:* adaptive reasoning, strategic competence, conceptual understanding (comprehension of mathematical concepts, operations and relations), procedural fluency (skill in carrying out procedures flexibly, accurately, efficiently, and appropriately), and productive disposition (habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in diligence and one's own efficacy).

1. Make sense of problems and persevere in solving them.
In Kindergarten, students begin to build the understanding that doing mathematics involves solving problems and discussing how they solved them. Students explain to themselves the meaning of a problem and look for ways to solve it. Real-life experiences should be used to support students' ability to connect mathematics to the world. To help students connect the language of mathematics to everyday life, ask students questions such as "How many students are absent?" or have them gather enough blocks for the students at their table. Younger students may use concrete objects or pictures to help them conceptualize and solve problems. They may check their thinking by asking themselves, "Does this make sense?" or they may try another strategy.

2. Reason abstractly and quantitatively.
Younger students begin to recognize that a number represents a specific quantity. Then, they connect the quantity to written symbols. Quantitative reasoning entails creating a representation of a problem while attending to the meanings of the quantities. For example, a student may write the numeral 11 to represent an amount of objects counted, select the correct number card 17 to follow 16 on a calendar, or build two piles of counters to compare the numbers 5 and 8. In addition, kindergarten students begin to draw pictures, manipulate objects, or use diagrams or charts to express quantitative ideas. Students need to be encouraged to answer questions such as "How do you know?", which reinforces their reasoning and understanding and helps student develop mathematical language.

3. Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others.
Younger students construct arguments using concrete referents, such as objects, pictures, drawings, and actions. They also begin to develop their mathematical communication skills as they participate in mathematical discussions involving questions like "How did you get that?" and "Why is that true?" They explain their thinking to others and respond to others' thinking. They begin to develop the ability to reason and analyze situations as they consider questions such as "Are you sure that ___?", "Do you think that would happen all the time?", and "I wonder why ___?"

4. Model with mathematics.
In early grades, students experiment with representing problem situations in multiple ways including numbers, words (mathematical language), drawing pictures, using objects, acting out, making a chart or list, creating equations, etc. Students need opportunities to connect the different representations and explain the connections. They should be able to use all of these representations as needed. For example, a student may use cubes or tiles to show the different number pairs for 5, or place three objects on a 10-frame and then determine how many more are needed to "make a ten." Students rely on manipulatives (or other visual and concrete representations) while solving tasks and record an answer with a drawing or equation.

5. Use appropriate tools strategically.
Younger students begin to consider the available tools (including estimation) when solving a mathematical problem and decide when certain tools might be helpful. For instance, kindergarteners may decide that it might be advantageous to use linking cubes to represent two quantities and then compare the two representations side-by-side or later, make math drawings of the quantities. Students decide which tools may be helpful to use depending on the problem or task and explain why they use particular mathematical tools.

Standards for Mathematical Practice, continued

6. Attend to precision.
Kindergarten students begin to develop precise communication skills, calculations, and measurements. Students describe their own actions, strategies, and reasoning using gradelevel appropriate vocabulary. Opportunities to work with pictorial representations and concrete objects can help students develop understanding and descriptive vocabulary. For example, students describe and compare two- and three-dimensional shapes and sort objects based on appearance. While measuring objects iteratively (repetitively), students check to make sure that there are no gaps or overlaps. During tasks involving number sense, students check their work to ensure the accuracy and reasonableness of solutions. Students should be encouraged to answer questions such as, "How do you know your answer is reasonable?"

7. Look for and make use of structure.
Younger students begin to discern a pattern or structure in the number system. For instance, students recognize that 3 + 2 = 5 and 2 + 3 = 5. Students use counting strategies, such as counting on, counting all, or taking away, to build fluency with facts to 5. Students notice the written pattern in the "teen" numbers—that the numbers start with 1 (representing 1 ten) and end with the number of additional ones. Teachers might ask, "What do you notice when ___?"

8. Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning.
In the early grades, students notice repetitive actions in counting, computations, and mathematical tasks. For example, the next number in a counting sequence is 1 more when counting by ones and 10 more when counting by tens (or 1 more group of 10). Students should be encouraged to answer questions such as, "What would happen if ___?" and "There are 8 crayons in the box. Some are red and some are blue. How many of each could there be?" Kindergarten students realize 8 crayons could include 4 of each color (8 = 4 + 4), 5 of one color and 3 of another (8 = 5 + 3), and so on. For each solution, students repeatedly engage in the process of finding two numbers to join together to equal 8.

CONNECTING THE STANDARDS FOR MATHEMATICAL PRACTICE TO THE STANDARDS FOR MATHEMATICAL CONTENT

The Standards for Mathematical Practice describe ways in which developing student practitioners of the discipline of mathematics increasingly ought to engage with the subject matter as they grow in mathematical maturity and expertise throughout the elementary, middle, and high school years. Designers of curricula, assessments, and professional development should all attend to the need to connect the mathematical practices to mathematical content in mathematics instruction.

The Standards for Mathematical Content are a balanced combination of procedure and understanding. Expectations that begin with the word "understand" are often especially good opportunities to connect the practices to the content. Students who lack understanding of a topic may rely on procedures too heavily. Without a flexible base from which to work, they may be less likely to consider analogous problems, represent problems coherently, justify conclusions, apply the mathematics to practical situations, use technology mindfully to work with the mathematics, explain the mathematics accurately to other students, step back for an overview, or deviate from a known procedure to find a shortcut. In short, a lack of understanding effectively prevents a student from engaging in the mathematical practices. In this respect, those content standards which set an expectation of understanding are potential "points of intersection" between the Standards for Mathematical Content and the Standards for Mathematical Practice. These points of intersection are intended to be weighted toward central and generative concepts in the school mathematics curriculum that most merit the time, resources, innovative energies, and focus necessary to qualitatively improve the curriculum, instruction, assessment, professional development, and student achievement in mathematics.

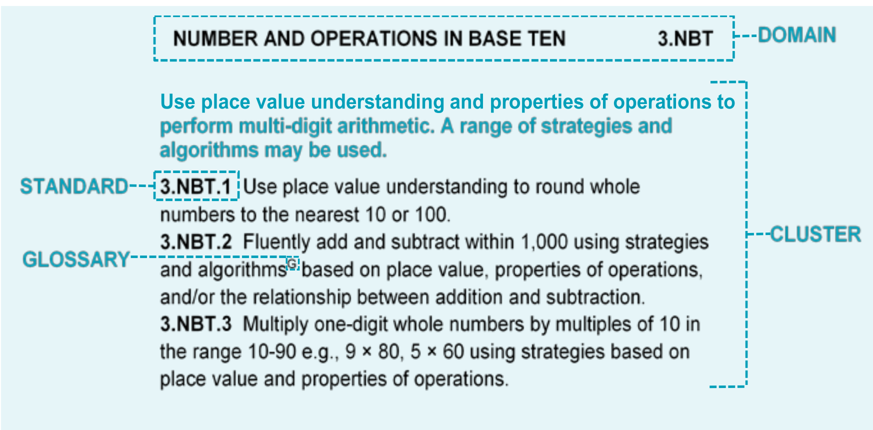
How to Read the Grade Level Standards

Standards define what students should understand and be able to do.

Clusters are groups of related standards. Note that standards from different clusters may sometimes be closely related, because mathematics is a connected subject.

Domains are larger groups of related standards. Standards from different domains may sometimes be closely related.

G shows there is a definition in the glossary for this term.


NUMBER AND OPERATIONS IN BASE TEN 3.NBT

Use place value understanding and properties of operations to perform multi-digit arithmetic. A range of strategies and algorithms may be used.

3.NBT.1 Use place value understanding to round whole numbers to the nearest 10 or 100.

3.NBT.2 Fluently add and subtract within 1,000 using strategies and algorithms G based on place value, properties of operations, and/or the relationship between addition and subtraction.

3.NBT.3 Multiply one-digit whole numbers by multiples of 10 in the range 10-90 e.g., 9 × 80, 5 × 60 using strategies based on place value and properties of operations.

These standards do not dictate curriculum or teaching methods. For example, just because topic A appears before topic B in the standards for a given grade, does not necessarily mean that teachers must teach topic A before topic B. A teacher might prefer to teach topic B before topic A, or might choose to highlight connections by teaching topic A and topic B at the same time. Or, a teacher might prefer to teach a topic of his or her own choosing that leads, as a byproduct, to students reaching the standards for topics A and B.

What students can learn at any particular grade level depends upon what they have learned before. Ideally then, each standard in this document might have been phrased in the form, "Students who already know ... should next come to learn ...." But at present this approach is unrealistic—not least because existing education research cannot specify all such learning pathways. Therefore, educators, researchers, and mathematicians used their collective experience and professional judgment along with state and international comparisons as a basis to make grade placements for specific topics.

Kindergarten

In Kindergarten, instructional time should focus on two critical areas:

Critical Area 1: Representing, relating, and operating on whole numbers, initially with sets of objects

Students use numbers, including written numerals, to represent quantities and to solve quantitative problems, such as counting objects in a set; counting out a given number of objects; comparing sets or numerals; and modeling simple joining and separating situations with sets of objects, or eventually with equations such as 5 + 2 = 7 and 7 − 2 = 5. (Kindergarten students should see addition and subtraction equations, and student writing of equations in kindergarten is encouraged, but it is not required.) Students choose, combine, and apply effective strategies for answering quantitative questions, including quickly recognizing the cardinalities of small sets of objects, counting and producing sets of given sizes, counting the number of objects in combined sets, or counting the number of objects that remain in a set after some are taken away.

Critical Area 2: Describing shapes and space. More learning time in Kindergarten should be devoted to number than to other topics

Students describe their physical world using geometric ideas, e.g., shape, orientation, spatial relations, and vocabulary. They identify, name, and describe basic two-dimensional shapes, such as squares, triangles, circles, rectangles, and hexagons, presented in a variety of ways, e.g., with different sizes and orientations, as well as three-dimensional shapes such as cubes, cones, cylinders, and spheres. They use basic shapes and spatial reasoning to model objects in their environment and to construct more complicated shapes. They identify the measurable attributes of shapes.

KINDERGARTEN OVERVIEW

COUNTING AND CARDINALITY

- Know number names and the count sequence.
- Count to tell the number of objects.
- Compare numbers.

OPERATIONS AND ALGEBRAIC THINKING

- Understand addition as putting together and adding to, and understand subtraction as taking apart and taking from.

NUMBER AND OPERATIONS IN BASE TEN

- Work with numbers 11–19 to gain foundations for place value.

MEASUREMENT AND DATA

- Identify, describe, and compare measurable attributes.
- Classify objects and count the number of objects in each category.

GEOMETRY

- Identify and describe shapes (squares, circles, triangles, rectangles, hexagons, cubes, cones, cylinders, and spheres).
- Describe, compare, create, and compose shapes.

MATHEMATICAL PRACTICES

1. Make sense of problems and persevere in solving them.
2. Reason abstractly and quantitatively.
3. Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others.
4. Model with mathematics.
5. Use appropriate tools strategically.
6. Attend to precision.
7. Look for and make use of structure.
8. Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning.

Kindergarten

COUNTING AND CARDINALITY K.CC

Know number names and the count sequence.

K.CC.1 Count to 100 by ones and by tens.

K.CC.2 Count forward within 100 beginning from any given number other than 1.

K.CC.3 Write numerals from 0 to 20. Represent a number of objects with a written numeral 0-20 (with 0 representing a count of no objects).

Count to tell the number of objects.

K.CC.4 Understand the relationship between numbers and quantities; connect counting to cardinality using a variety of objects including pennies.

- **a.** When counting objects, establish a one-to-one relationship by saying the number names in the standard order, pairing each object with one and only one number name and each number name with one and only one object.
- **b.** Understand that the last number name said tells the number of objects counted and that the number of objects is the same regardless of their arrangement or the order in which they were counted.
- **c.** Understand that each successive number name refers to a quantity that is one larger.

K.CC.5 Count to answer "how many?" questions about as many as 20 things arranged in a line, a rectangular array, or a circle, or as many as 10 things in a scattered configuration; given a number from 1-20, count out that many objects.

Compare numbers.

K.CC.6 Orally identify (without using inequality symbols) whether the number of objects in one group is greater/more than, less/fewer than, or the same as the number of objects in another group, not to exceed 10 objects in each group.

K.CC.7 Compare (without using inequality symbols) two numbers between 0 and 10 when presented as written numerals.

OPERATIONS AND ALGEBRAIC THINKING K.OA

Understand addition as putting together and adding to, and understand subtraction as taking apart and taking from.

K.OA.1 Represent addition and subtraction with objects, fingers, mental images, drawings, sounds such as claps, acting out situations, verbal explanations, expressions, or equations. Drawings need not show details, but should show the mathematics in the problem. (This applies wherever drawings are mentioned in the Standards.)

K.OA.2 Solve addition and subtraction problems (written or oral), and add and subtract within 10 by using objects or drawings to represent the problem.

K.OA.3 Decompose numbers and record compositions for numbers less than or equal to 10 into pairs in more than one way by using objects and, when appropriate, drawings or equations.

K.OA.4 For any number from 1 to 9, find the number that makes 10 when added to the given number, e.g., by using objects or drawings, and record the answer with a drawing or, when appropriate, an equation.

K.OA.5 Fluently[G] add and subtract within 5.

NUMBER AND OPERATIONS IN BASE TEN K.NBT

Work with numbers 11–19 to gain foundations for place value.

K.NBT.1 Compose and decompose numbers from 11 to 19 into a group of ten ones and some further ones by using objects and, when appropriate, drawings or equations; understand that these numbers are composed of a group of ten ones and one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, or nine ones.

MEASUREMENT AND DATA K.MD

Identify, describe, and compare measurable attributes.

K.MD.1 Identify and describe measurable attributes (length, weight, and height) of a single object using vocabulary terms such as long/short, heavy/light, or tall/short.

K.MD.2 Directly compare two objects with a measurable attribute in common to see which object has "more of" or "less of" the attribute, and describe the difference. *For example, directly compare the heights of two children, and describe one child as taller/shorter.*

Classify objects and count the number of objects in each category.

K.MD.3 Classify objects into given categories; count the numbers of objects in each category and sort the categories by count. The number of objects in each category should be less than or equal to ten. Counting and sorting coins should be limited to pennies.

GEOMETRY K.G

Identify and describe shapes (squares, circles, triangles, rectangles, hexagons, cubes, cones, cylinders, and spheres).

K.G.1 Describe objects in the environment using names of shapes, and describe the relative positions of these objects using terms such as *above, below, beside, in front of, behind,* and *next to.*

K.G.2 Correctly name shapes regardless of their orientations or overall size.

K.G.3 Identify shapes as two-dimensional (lying in a plane, "flat") or three-dimensional ("solid").

Describe, compare, create, and compose shapes.

K.G.4 Describe and compare two- or three-dimensional shapes, in different sizes and orientations, using informal language to describe their commonalities, differences, parts, and other attributes.

K.G.5 Model shapes in the world by building shapes from components, e.g., sticks and clay balls, and drawing shapes.

K.G.6 Combine simple shapes to form larger shapes.

Glossary

Addition and subtraction within 5, 10, 20, 100, or 1000. Addition or subtraction of two whole numbers with whole number answers, and with sum or minuend in the range 0-5, 0-10, 0-20, or 0-100, respectively. Example: 8 + 2 = 10 is an addition within 10, 14 − 5 = 9 is a subtraction within 20, and 55 − 18 = 37 is a subtraction within 100.

Additive inverses. Two numbers whose sum is 0 are additive inverses of one another. Example: ¾ and $-\,{}^{3}/_{4}$ are additive inverses of one another because ¾ + $(-{}^{3}/_{4}) = (-\,{}^{3}/_{4}) + {}^{3}/_{4} = 0$.

Algorithm. *See also:* computation algorithm.

Associative property of addition. See Table 3, page 96.

Associative property of multiplication. See Table 3, page 96.

Bivariate data. Pairs of linked numerical observations. Example: a list of heights and weights for each player on a football team.

Box plot. A method of visually displaying a distribution of data values by using the median, quartiles, and extremes of the data set. A box shows the middle 50% of the data.[1] *See also:* first quartile and third quartile.

Commutative property. See Table 3, page 96.

Complex fraction. A fraction ${}^{A}/_{B}$ where *A* and/or *B* are fractions (*B* nonzero).

Computation algorithm. A set of predefined steps applicable to a class of problems that gives the correct result in every case when the steps are carried out correctly. *See also:* computation strategy.

Computation strategy. Purposeful manipulations that may be chosen for specific problems, may not have a fixed order, and may be aimed at converting one problem into another. *See also:* computation algorithm.

Congruent. Two plane or solid figures are congruent if one can be obtained from the other by rigid motion (a sequence of rotations, reflections, and translations).

Counting on. A strategy for finding the number of objects in a group without having to count every member of the group. For example, if a stack of books is known to have 8 books and 3 more books are added to the top, it is not necessary to count the stack all over again. One can find the total by counting on—pointing to the top book and saying "eight," following this with "nine, ten, eleven. There are eleven books now."

Dilation. A transformation that moves each point along the ray through the point emanating from a fixed center, and multiplies distances from the center by a common scale factor.

Dot plot. *See also:* line plot.

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[1] Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, http://dpi.wi.gov/ standards/mathglos.html, accessed March 2, 2010.

[2] Many different methods for computing quartiles are in use. The method defined here is sometimes called the Moore and McCabe method. See Langford, E., "Quartiles in Elementary Statistics," Journal of Statistics Education Volume 14, Number 3 (2006).

Expanded form. A multi-digit number is expressed in expanded form when it is written as a sum of single-digit multiples of powers of ten. For example, 643 = 600 + 40 + 3.

Expected value. For a random variable, the weighted average of its possible values, with weights given by their respective probabilities.

First quartile. For a data set with median M, the first quartile is the median of the data values less than M. Example: For the data set {1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the first quartile is 6.2 *See also:* median, third quartile, interquartile range.

Fluency. The ability to use efficient, accurate, and flexible methods for computing. Fluency does not imply timed tests.

Fluently. *See also:* fluency.

Fraction. A number expressible in the form $^{a}/_{b}$ where *a* is a whole number and *b* is a positive whole number. (The word fraction in these standards always refers to a non-negative number.) *See also:* rational number.

Identity property of 0. See Table 3, page 96.

Independently combined probability models. Two probability models are said to be combined independently if the probability of each ordered pair in the combined model equals the product of the original probabilities of the two individual outcomes in the ordered pair.

Integer. A number expressible in the form *a* or −*a* for some whole number *a*.

Interquartile Range. A measure of variation in a set of numerical data, the interquartile range is the distance between the first and third quartiles of the data set. Example: For the data set {1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the interquartile range is 15 − 6 = 9. *See also:* first quartile, third quartile.

Justify: To provide a convincing argument for the truth of a statement to a particular audience.

Line plot. A method of visually displaying a distribution of data values where each data value is shown as a dot or mark above a number line. Also known as a dot plot.[3]

Mean. A measure of center in a set of numerical data, computed by adding the values in a list and then dividing by the number of values in the list. (To be more precise, this defines the arithmetic mean) Example: For the data set {1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the mean is 21.

Mean absolute deviation. A measure of variation in a set of numerical data, computed by adding the distances between each data value and the mean, then dividing by the number of data values. Example: For the data set {2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the mean absolute deviation is 20.

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[3] Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, *op. cit.*

[4] Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, *op. cit.*

Median. A measure of center in a set of numerical data. The median of a list of values is the value appearing at the center of a sorted version of the list—or the mean of the two central values, if the list contains an even number of values. Example: For the data set {2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 90}, the median is 11.

Midline. In the graph of a trigonometric function, the horizontal line halfway between its maximum and minimum values.

Multiplication and division within 100. Multiplication or division of two whole numbers with whole number answers, and with product or dividend in the range 0-100. Example: 72 ÷ 8 = 9.

Multiplicative inverses. Two numbers whose product is 1 are multiplicative inverses of one another. Example: $^3/_4$ and $^4/_3$ are multiplicative inverses of one another because $^3/_4 \times {^4/_3} = {^4/_3} \times {^3/_4} = 1$.

Number line diagram. A diagram of the number line used to represent numbers and support reasoning about them. In a number line diagram for measurement quantities, the interval from 0 to 1 on the diagram represents the unit of measure for the quantity.

Percent rate of change. A rate of change expressed as a percent. Example: if a population grows from 50 to 55 in a year, it grows by $^5/_{50}$ = 10% per year.

Probability distribution. The set of possible values of a random variable with a probability assigned to each.

Properties of equality. See Table 4, page 96.

Properties of inequality. See Table 5, page 97.

Properties of operations. See Table 3, page 96.

Probability. A number between 0 and 1 used to quantify likelihood for processes that have uncertain outcomes (such as tossing a coin, selecting a person at random from a group of people, tossing a ball at a target, or testing for a medical condition).

Probability model. A probability model is used to assign probabilities to outcomes of a chance process by examining the nature of the process. The set of all outcomes is called the sample space, and their probabilities sum to 1. *See also:* uniform probability model.

Prove: To provide a logical argument that demonstrates the truth of a statement. A proof is typically composed of a series of justifications, which are often single sentences, and may be presented informally or formally.

Random variable. An assignment of a numerical value to each outcome in a sample space.

Rational expression. A quotient of two polynomials with a nonzero denominator.

Rational number. A number expressible in the form $^{a}/_{b}$ or $-^{a}/_{b}$ for some fraction $^{a}/_{b}$. The rational numbers include the integers.

Rectilinear figure. A polygon all angles of which are right angles.

Rigid motion. A transformation of points in space consisting of a sequence of one or more translations, reflections, and/or rotations. Rigid motions are here assumed to preserve distances and angle measures.

Repeating decimal. The decimal form of a rational number. *See also:* terminating decimal.

Sample space. In a probability model for a random process, a list of the individual outcomes that are to be considered.

Scatter plot. A graph in the coordinate plane representing a set of bivariate data. For example, the heights and weights of a group of people could be displayed on a scatter plot.[5]

Similarity transformation. A rigid motion followed by a dilation.

Standard Algorithm. See computational algorithm.

Tape diagram. A drawing that looks like a segment of tape, used to illustrate number relationships. Also known as a strip diagram, bar model, fraction strip, or length model.

Terminating decimal. A decimal is called terminating if its repeating digit is 0.

Third quartile. For a data set with median *M*, the third quartile is the median of the data values greater than *M*. Example: For the data set {2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the third quartile is 15. *See also:* median, first quartile, interquartile range.

Transitivity principle for indirect measurement. If the length of object A is greater than the length of object B, and the length of object B is greater than the length of object C, then the length of object A is greater than the length of object C. This principle applies to measurement of other quantities as well.

Trapezoid. 1. A trapezoid is a quadrilateral with at least one pair of parallel sides. (inclusive definition) 2. A trapezoid is a quadrilateral with exactly one pair of parallel sides. (exclusive definition) *Districts may choose either definition to use for instruction. Ohio's State Tests' items will be written so that either definition will be acceptable.*

Uniform probability model. A probability model which assigns equal probability to all outcomes. *See also:* probability model.

Vector. A quantity with magnitude and direction in the plane or in space, defined by an ordered pair or triple of real numbers.

Verify: To check the truth or correctness of a statement in specific cases.

Visual fraction model. A tape diagram, number line diagram, or area model.

Whole numbers. The numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ….

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[5] Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, *op. cit.*

Table 1. Common Addition and Subtraction Situations.

	RESULT UNKNOWN	CHANGE UNKNOWN	START UNKNOWN
ADD TO	Two bunnies sat on the grass. Three more bunnies hopped there. How many bunnies are on the grass now? 2 + 3 = ?	Two bunnies were sitting on the grass. Some more bunnies hopped there. Then there were five bunnies. How many bunnies hopped over to the first two? 2 + ? = 5	Some bunnies were sitting on the grass. Three more bunnies hopped there. Then there were five bunnies. How many bunnies were on the grass before? ? + 3 = 5
TAKE FROM	Five apples were on the table. I ate two apples. How many apples are on the table now? 5 – 2 = ?	Five apples were on the table. I ate some apples. Then there were three apples. How many apples did I eat? 5 – ? = 3	Some apples were on the table. I ate two apples. Then there were three apples. How many apples were on the table before? ? – 2 = 3
	TOTAL UNKNOWN	**ADDEND UNKNOWN**	**BOTH ADDENDS UNKNOWN[1]**
PUT TOGETHER/ TAKE APART[2]	Three red apples and two green apples are on the table. How many apples are on the table? 3 + 2 = ?	Five apples are on the table. Three are red and the rest are green. How many apples are green? 3 + ? = 5, 5 – 3 = ?	Grandma has five flowers. How many can she put in her red vase and how many in her blue vase? 5 = 0 + 5, 5 = 5 + 0 5 = 1 + 4, 5 = 4 + 1 5 = 2 + 3, 5 = 3 + 2
	DIFFERENCE UNKNOWN	**BIGGER UNKNOWN**	**SMALLER UNKNOWN**
COMPARE[3]	("How many more?" version): Lucy has two apples. Julie has five apples. How many more apples does Julie have than Lucy? ("How many fewer?" version): Lucy has two apples. Julie has five apples. How many fewer apples does Lucy have than Julie? 2 + ? = 5, 5 – 2 = ?	(Version with "more"): Julie has three more apples than Lucy. Lucy has two apples. How many apples does Julie have? (Version with "fewer"): Lucy has 3 fewer apples than Julie. Lucy has two apples. How many apples does Julie have? 2 + 3 = ?, 3 + 2 = ?	(Version with "more"): Julie has three more apples than Lucy. Julie has five apples. How many apples does Lucy have? (Version with "fewer"): Lucy has 3 fewer apples than Julie. Julie has five apples. How many apples does Lucy have? 5 – 3 = ?, ? + 3 = 5

Key: Grades K, 1 and 2 (extend to include grade level appropriate numbers) | Grades 1, 2(extend) | Grade 1 (start), Grade 2 (mastery) | Grade 2

[1] These take apart situations can be used to show all the decompositions of a given number. The associated equations, which have the total on the left of the equal sign, help children understand that the = sign does not always mean "makes" or "results in" but always does mean "is the same number as."

[2] Either addend can be unknown, so there are three variations of these problem situations. *Both Addends Unknown* is a productive extension of this basic situation, especially for small numbers less than or equal to 10.

[3] For the *Bigger Unknown* or *Smaller Unknown* situations, one version directs the correct operation (the version using more for the *Bigger Unknown* and using less for the *Smaller Unknown*). The other versions are more difficult.

Acknowledgements

ADVISORY COMMITTEE MEMBERS

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