Ohio's Learning Standards | Mathematics

Grade 1

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 first grade, students realize 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. 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?" They are willing to try other approaches.

2. Reason abstractly and quantitatively.
Younger students recognize that a number represents a specific quantity. They connect the quantity to written symbols. Quantitative reasoning entails creating a representation of a problem while attending to the meanings of the quantities. In first grade students make sense of quantities and relationships while solving tasks. They represent situations by decontextualizing tasks into numbers and symbols. For example, "There are 60 children on the playground and some children go line up. If there are 20 children still playing, how many children lined up?" Students translate the situation into the equation: $60 - 20 = \square$ and then solve the task. Students also contextualize situations during the problem-solving process. For example, students refer to the context of the task to determine they need to subtract 20 from 60 because the total number of children on the playground is the total number less the 20 that are still playing. Students might also reason about ways to partition two-dimensional geometric figures into halves and fourths.

3. Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others.
First graders construct arguments using concrete referents, such as objects, pictures, drawings, and actions. They also practice their mathematical communication skills as they participate in mathematical discussions involving questions like "How did you get that?", "Explain your thinking.", and "Why is that true?" They not only explain their own thinking, but listen to others' explanations. They decide if the explanations make sense and ask questions. For example, "There are 15 books on the shelf. If you take some books off the shelf and there are now 7 left, how many books did you take off the shelf?" Students might use a variety of strategies to solve the task and then share and discuss their problem-solving strategies with their classmates.

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.

First grade students model real-life mathematical situations with a number sentence or an equation and check to make sure equations accurately match the problem context. Students use concrete models and pictorial representations while solving tasks and also write an equation to model problem situations. For example, to solve the problem, "There are 11 bananas on the counter. If you eat 4 bananas, how many are left?" students could write the equation $11 - 4 = 7$. Students also create a story context for an equation such as $13 - 7 = 6$.

Standards for Mathematical Practice, continued

5. Use appropriate tools strategically.
In first grade, students begin to consider the available tools (including estimation) when solving a mathematical problem and decide when certain tools might be helpful. For instance, first graders decide it might be best to use colored chips to model an addition problem. In first grade students use tools such as counters, place value (base ten) blocks, hundreds number boards, number lines, concrete geometric shapes (e.g., pattern blocks, 3-dimensional solids), and virtual representations to support conceptual understanding and mathematical thinking. Students determine which tools are the most appropriate to use. For example, when solving $12 + 8 = \square$, students explain why place value blocks are more appropriate than counters.

6. Attend to precision.
As young children begin to develop their mathematical communication skills, they try to use clear and precise language in their discussions with others and when they explain their own reasoning. In grade one, students use precise communication, calculation, and measurement skills. Students are able to describe their solutions strategies to mathematical tasks using grade-level appropriate vocabulary, precise explanations, and mathematical reasoning. When students measure objects iteratively (repetitively), they check to make sure there are no gaps or overlaps. Students regularly check their work to ensure the accuracy and reasonableness of solutions.

7. Look for and make use of structure.
First graders begin to discern a pattern or structure. For instance, if students recognize $12 + 3 = 15$, then they also know $3 + 12 = 15$. (Commutative property of addition.) To add $4 + 6 + 4$, the first two numbers can be added to make a ten, so $4 + 6 + 4 = 10 + 4 = 14$. While solving addition problems, students begin to recognize the commutative property, for example $7 + 4 = 11$, and $4 + 7 = 11$. While decomposing two-digit numbers, students realize that any two-digit number can be broken up into tens and ones, e.g. $35 = 30 + 5$, $76 = 70 + 6$. Grade one students make use of structure when they work with subtraction as a missing addend problem, such as $13 - 7 = \square$ can be written as $7 + \square = 13$ and can be thought of as how much more do I need to add to 7 to get to 13?

8. Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning.
Grade one students begin to look for regularity in problem structures when solving mathematical tasks. For example, students add three one-digit numbers by using strategies such as "make a ten" or doubles. Students recognize when and how to use strategies to solve similar problems. For example, when evaluating $8 + 7 + 2$, a student may say, "I know that 8 and 2 equals 10, then i add 7 to get to 17. It helps if i can make a 10 out of two numbers when i start." Students use repeated reasoning while solving a task with multiple correct answers. For example, solve the problem, "there are 12 crayons in the box. Some are red and some are blue. How many of each could there be?" Students use repeated reasoning to find pairs of numbers that add up to 12 (e.g., the 12 crayons could include 6 of each color ($6 + 6 = 12$), 7 of one color and 5 of another ($7 + 5 = 12$), etc.

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.

Continued on next page

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

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.

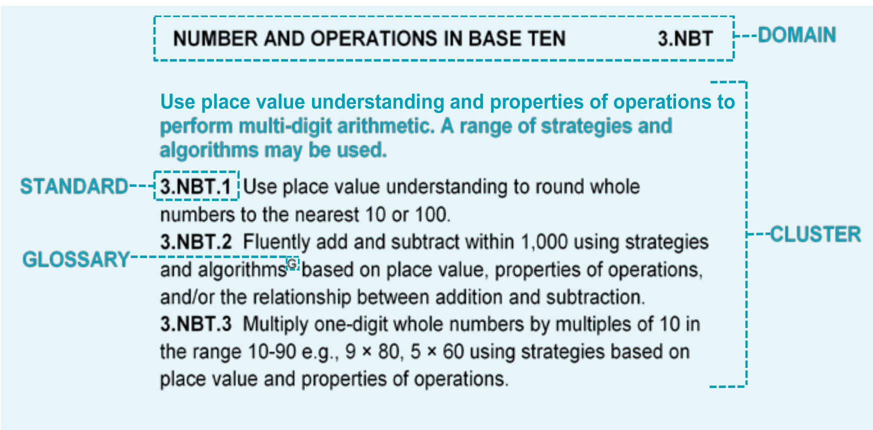
How to Read the Grade Level Standards

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.



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.

Grade 1

In Grade 1, instructional time should focus on four critical areas:

Critical Area 1: Developing understanding of addition, subtraction, and strategies for addition and subtraction within 20
Students develop strategies for adding and subtracting whole numbers based on their prior work with small numbers. They use a variety of models, including discrete objects and length-based models, e.g., cubes connected to form lengths, to model add-to, take-from, put-together, take-apart, and compare situations to develop meaning for the operations of addition and subtraction, and to develop strategies to solve arithmetic problems with these operations. Students understand connections between counting and addition and subtraction, e.g., adding two is the same as counting on two. They use properties of addition to add whole numbers and to create and use increasingly sophisticated strategies based on these properties, e.g., "making tens", to solve addition and subtraction problems within 20. By comparing a variety of solution strategies, children build their understanding of the relationship between addition and subtraction.

Critical Area 2: Developing understanding of whole number relationships and place value, including grouping in tens and ones
Students develop, discuss, and use efficient, accurate, and generalizable methods to add within 100 and subtract multiples of 10. They compare whole numbers (at least to 100) to develop understanding of and solve problems involving their relative sizes. They think of whole numbers between 10 and 100 in terms of tens and ones (especially recognizing the numbers 11 to 19 as composed of a ten and some ones). Through activities that build number sense, they understand the order of the counting numbers and their relative magnitudes. Students use money as a tool to reinforce concepts of place value using pennies (ones) and dimes (tens).

Critical Area 3: Developing understanding of linear measurement and measuring lengths as iterating length units
Students develop an understanding of the meaning and processes of measurement, including underlying concepts such as iterating (the mental activity of building up the length of an object with equal-sized units) and the transitivity principle for indirect measurement.

Critical Area 4: Reasoning about attributes of, and composing and decomposing geometric shapes
Students compose and decompose plane or solid figures, e.g., put two triangles together to make a quadrilateral, and build understanding of part-whole relationships as well as the properties of the original and composite shapes. As they combine shapes, they recognize them from different perspectives and orientations, describe their geometric attributes, and determine how they are alike and different, to develop the background for measurement and for initial understandings of properties such as congruence and symmetry.

GRADE 1 OVERVIEW

OPERATIONS AND ALGEBRAIC THINKING

- Represent and solve problems involving addition and subtraction.
- Understand and apply properties of operations and the relationship between addition and subtraction.
- Add and subtract within 20.
- Work with addition and subtraction equations.

NUMBER AND OPERATIONS IN BASE TEN

- Extend the counting sequence.
- Understand place value.
- Use place value understanding and properties of operations to add and subtract.

MEASUREMENT AND DATA

- Measure lengths indirectly and by iterating length units.
- Work with time and money.
- Represent and interpret data.

GEOMETRY

- Reason with shapes and their attributes.

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.

Grade 1

OPERATIONS AND ALGEBRAIC THINKING 1.OA

Represent and solve problems involving addition and subtraction.

1.OA.1 Use addition and subtraction within 20 to solve word problems involving situations of adding to, taking from, putting together, taking apart and comparing, with unknowns in all positions, e.g., by using objects, drawings, and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem. See Table 1, page 16.

1.OA.2 Solve word problems that call for addition of three whole numbers whose sum is less than or equal to 20, e.g., by using objects, drawings, and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem. Drawings need not show details, but should show the mathematics in the problem. (This applies wherever drawings are mentioned in the Standards.)

Understand and apply properties of operations and the relationship between addition and subtraction.

1.OA.3 Apply properties of operations as strategies to add and subtract. *For example, if 8 + 3 = 11 is known, then 3 + 8 = 11 is also known (Commutative Property of Addition); to add 2 + 6 + 4, the second two numbers can be added to make a ten, so 2 + 6 + 4 = 2 + 10 = 12 (Associative Property of Addition).* Students need not use formal terms for these properties.

1.OA.4 Understand subtraction as an unknown-addend problem. *For example, subtract 10 − 8 by finding the number that makes 10 when added to 8.*

Add and subtract within 20.

1.OA.5 Relate counting to addition and subtraction, e.g., by counting on[G] 2 to add 2.

1.OA.6 Add and subtract within 20, demonstrating fluency[G] with various strategies for addition and subtraction within 10. Strategies may include counting on; making ten, e.g., 8 + 6 = 8 + 2 + 4 = 10 + 4 = 14; decomposing a number leading to a ten, e.g., 13 − 4 = 13 − 3 − 1 = 10 − 1 = 9; using the relationship between addition and subtraction, e.g., knowing that 8 + 4 = 12, one knows 12 − 8 = 4; and creating equivalent but easier or known sums, e.g., adding 6 + 7 by creating the known equivalent 6 + 6 + 1 = 12 + 1 = 13.

Work with addition and subtraction equations.

1.OA.7 Understand the meaning of the equal sign, and determine if equations involving addition and subtraction are true or false. *For example, which of the following equations are true and which are false? 6 = 6; 7 = 8 – 1; 5 + 2 = 2 + 5; 4 + 1 = 5 + 2.*

1.OA.8 Determine the unknown whole number in an addition or subtraction equation relating three whole numbers. *For example, determine the unknown number that makes the equation true in each of the equations:* $8 + \boxed{} = 11$; $5 = \boxed{} - 3$; $6 + 6 = \boxed{}$.

NUMBER AND OPERATIONS IN BASE TEN 1.NBT

Extend the counting sequence.

1.NBT.1 Count to 120, starting at any number less than 120. In this range, read and write numerals and represent a number of objects with a written numeral.

Understand place value.

1.NBT.2 Understand that the two digits of a two-digit number represent amounts of tens and ones. Understand the following as special cases: 10 can be thought of as a bundle of ten ones — called a "ten;" the numbers from 11 to 19 are composed of a ten and one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, or nine ones; and the numbers 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90 refer to one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, or nine tens (and 0 ones).

NUMBER AND OPERATIONS IN BASE TEN, continued

Understand place value. (continued)

1.NBT.3 Compare two two-digit numbers based on meanings of the tens and ones digits, recording the results of comparisons with the symbols >, =, and <.

Use place value understanding and properties of operations to add and subtract.

1.NBT.4 Add within 100, including adding a two-digit number and a one-digit number and adding a two-digit number and a multiple of 10, using concrete models or drawings and strategies based on place value, properties of operations, and/or the relationship between addition and subtraction; record the strategy with a written numerical method (drawings and, when appropriate, equations) and explain the reasoning used. Understand that when adding two-digit numbers, tens are added to tens; ones are added to ones; and sometimes it is necessary to compose a ten.

1.NBT.5 Given a two-digit number, mentally find 10 more or 10 less than the number, without having to count; explain the reasoning used.

1.NBT.6 Subtract multiples of 10 in the range 10-90 from multiples of 10 in the range 10-90 (positive or zero differences), using concrete models or drawings and strategies based on place value, properties of operations, and/or the relationship between addition and subtraction; relate the strategy to a written method and explain the reasoning used.

MEASUREMENT AND DATA 1.MD

Measure lengths indirectly and by iterating length units.

1.MD.1 Order three objects by length; compare the lengths of two objects indirectly by using a third object.

1.MD.2 Express the length of an object as a whole number of length units by laying multiple copies of a shorter object (the length unit) end to end; understand that the length measurement of an object is the number of same-size length units that span it with no gaps or overlaps. *Limit to contexts where the object being measured is spanned by a whole number of length units with no gaps or overlaps.*

Work with time and money.

1.MD.3 Work with time and money.

- **a.** Tell and write time in hours and half-hours using analog and digital clocks.
- **b.** Identify pennies and dimes by name and value.

Represent and interpret data.

1.MD.4 Organize, represent, and interpret data with up to three categories; ask and answer questions about the total number of data points, how many in each category, and how many more or less are in one category than in another.

GEOMETRY 1.G

Reason with shapes and their attributes.

1.G.1 Distinguish between defining attributes, e.g., triangles are closed and three-sided, versus non-defining attributes, e.g., color, orientation, overall size; build and draw shapes that possess defining attributes.

1.G.2 Compose two-dimensional shapes (rectangles, squares, trapezoids, triangles, half-circles, and quarter-circles) or three-dimensional shapes (cubes, right rectangular prisms, right circular cones, and right circular cylinders) to create a composite shape, and compose new shapes from the composite shape. Students do not need to learn formal names such as "right rectangular prism."

1.G.3 Partition circles and rectangles into two and four equal shares, describe the shares using the words *halves, fourths,* and *quarters*, and use the phrases *half of, fourth of,* and *quarter of.* Describe the whole as two of or four of the shares in real-world contexts. Understand for these examples that decomposing into more equal shares creates smaller shares.

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: $\frac{3}{4}$ and $-\frac{3}{4}$ are additive inverses of one another because $\frac{3}{4} + (-\frac{3}{4}) = (-\frac{3}{4}) + \frac{3}{4} = 0$.

Algorithm. *See also:* computation algorithm.

Associative property of addition. See Table 3, page 17.

Associative property of multiplication. See Table 3, page 17.

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 17.

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 17.

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: $72 \div 8 = 9$.

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 17.

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.

Table 3. Properties of Operations.

Here *a*, *b* and *c* stand for arbitrary numbers in a given number system. The properties of operations apply to the rational number system, the real number system and the complex number sytem.

ASSOCIATIVE PROPERTY OF ADDITION	$(a+b)+c=a+(b+c)$
COMMUTATIVE PROPERTY OF ADDITION	$a+b=b+a$
ADDITIVE IDENTITY PROPERTY OF 0	$a+0=0+a=a$

* Students need not use formal terms for these properties.

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