Progressions for the Common Core State Standards in Mathematics (draft)

29 May 2011

K, Counting and Cardinality; K–5, Operations and Algebraic Thinking

Counting and Cardinality and Operations and Algebraic Thinking are about understanding and using numbers. Counting and Cardinality underlies Operations and Algebraic Thinking as well as Number and Operations in Base Ten. It begins with early counting and telling how many in one group of objects. Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division grow from these early roots. From its very beginnings, this Progression involves important ideas that are neither trivial nor obvious; these ideas need to be taught, in ways that are interesting and engaging to young students.

The Progression in Operations and Algebraic Thinking deals with the basic operations—the kinds of quantitative relationships they model and consequently the kinds of problems they can be used to solve as well as their mathematical properties and relationships. Although most of the standards organized under the OA heading involve whole numbers, the importance of the Progression is much more general because it describes concepts, properties, and representations that extend to other number systems, to measures, and to algebra. For example, if the mass of the sun is x kilograms, and the mass of the rest of the solar system is y kilograms, then the mass of the solar system as a whole is the sum $x + y$ kilograms. In this example of additive reasoning, it doesn't matter whether x and y are whole numbers, fractions, decimals, or even variables. Likewise, a property such as distributivity holds for all the number systems that students will study in K–12, including complex numbers.

The generality of the concepts involved in Operations and Algebraic Thinking means that students' work in this area should be designed to help them extend arithmetic beyond whole numbers (see the NF and NBT Progressions) and understand and apply expressions and equations in later grades (see the EE Progression).

Addition and subtraction are the first operations studied. Initially, the meaning of addition is separate from the meaning of subtraction, and students build relationships between addition and subtraction over time. Subtraction comes to be understood as reversing the actions involved in addition and as finding an unknown addend. Likewise, the meaning of multiplication is initially separate from the meaning of division, and students gradually perceive relationships between division and multiplication analogous to those between addition and subtraction, understanding division as reversing the actions involved in multiplication and finding an unknown product.

Over time, students build their understanding of the properties of arithmetic: commutativity and associativity of addition and multiplication, and distributivity of multiplication over addition. Initially, they build intuitive understandings of these properties, and they use these intuitive understandings in strategies to solve real-world and mathematical problems. Later, these understandings become more explicit and allow students to extend operations into the system of rational numbers.

As the meanings and properties of operations develop, students develop computational methods in tandem. The OA Progression in Kindergarten and Grade 1 describes this development for single-digit addition and subtraction, culminating in methods that rely on properties of operations. The NBT Progression describes how these methods combine with place value reasoning to extend computation to multi-digit numbers. The NF Progression describes how the meanings of operations combine with fraction concepts to extend computation to fractions.

Students engage in the Standards for Mathematical Practice in grade-appropriate ways from Kindergarten to Grade 5. Pervasive classroom use of these mathematical practices in each grade affords students opportunities to develop understanding of operations and algebraic thinking.

Counting and Cardinality

Several progressions originate in knowing number names and the count sequence:[K.CC.1]

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

From saying the counting words to counting out objects Students usually know or can learn to say the counting words up to a given number before they can use these numbers to count objects or to tell the number of objects. Students become fluent in saying the count sequence so that they have enough attention to focus on the pairings involved in counting objects. To count a group of objects, they pair each word said with one object.[K.CC.4a] This is usually facilitated by an indicating act (such as pointing to objects or moving them) that keeps each word said in time paired to one and only one object located in space. Counting objects arranged in a line is easiest; with more practice, students learn to count objects in more difficult arrangements, such as rectangular arrays (they need to ensure they reach every row or column and do not repeat rows or columns); circles (they need to stop just before the object they started with); and scattered configurations (they need to make a single path through all of the objects).[K.CC.5] Later, students can count out a given number of objects,[K.CC.5] which is more difficult than just counting that many objects, because counting must be fluent enough for the student to have enough attention to remember the number of objects that is being counted out.

K.CC.4a Understand the relationship between numbers and quantities; connect counting to cardinality.

a When counting objects, say 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.

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.

From subitizing to single-digit arithmetic fluency Students come to quickly recognize the cardinalities of small groups without having to count the objects; this is called *perceptual subitizing*. Perceptual subitizing develops into *conceptual subitizing*—recognizing that a collection of objects is composed of two subcollections and quickly combining their cardinalities to find the cardinality of the collection (e.g., seeing a set as two subsets of cardinality 2 and saying "four"). Use of conceptual subitizing in adding and subtracting small numbers progresses to supporting steps of more advanced methods for adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing single-digit numbers (in several OA standards from Grade 1 to 3 that culminate in single-digit fluency).

From counting to counting on Students understand that the last number name said in counting tells the number of objects counted.[K.CC.4b] Prior to reaching this understanding, a student who is asked "How many kittens?" may regard the counting performance itself as the answer, instead of answering with the cardinality of the set. Experience with counting allows students to discuss and come to understand the second part of K.CC.4b—that the number of objects is the same regardless of their arrangement or the order in which they were counted. This connection will continue in Grade 1 with the

K.CC.4b Understand the relationship between numbers and quantities; connect counting to cardinality.

b Understand that the last number name said tells the number of objects counted. The number of objects is the same regardless of their arrangement or the order in which they were counted.

more advanced counting-on methods in which a counting word represents a group of objects that are added or subtracted and addends become embedded within the total[1.OA.6] (see page 14). Being able to count forward, beginning from a given number within the known sequence,[K.CC.2] is a prerequisite for such counting on. Finally, understanding that each successive number name refers to a quantity that is one larger[K.CC.4c] is the conceptual start for Grade 1 counting on. Prior to reaching this understanding, a student might have to recount entirely a collection of known cardinality to which a single object has been added.

1.OA.6 Add and subtract within 20, demonstrating fluency for addition and subtraction within 10. Use strategies such as 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 $6+6+1=12+1=13$).

K.CC.2 Count forward beginning from a given number within the known sequence (instead of having to begin at 1).

K.CC.4c Understand the relationship between numbers and quantities; connect counting to cardinality.

c Understand that each successive number name refers to a quantity that is one larger.

From spoken number words to written base-ten numerals to base-ten system understanding The NBT Progression discusses the special role of 10 and the difficulties that English speakers face because the base-ten structure is not evident in all the English number words.

From comparison by matching to comparison by numbers to comparison involving adding and subtracting The standards about comparing numbers[K.CC.6,K.CC.7] focus on students identifying which of two groups has more than (or fewer than, or the same amount as) the other. Students first learn to match the objects in the two groups to see if there are any extra and then to count the objects in each group and use their knowledge of the count sequence to decide which number is greater than the other (the number farther along in the count sequence). Students learn that even if one group looks as if it has more objects (e.g., has some extra sticking out), matching or counting may reveal a different result. Comparing numbers progresses in Grade 1 to adding and subtracting in comparing situations (finding out "how many more" or "how many less"[1.OA.1] and not just "which is more" or "which is less").

K.CC.6 Identify whether the number of objects in one group is greater than, less than, or equal to the number of objects in another group, e.g., by using matching and counting strategies.

K.CC.7 Compare two numbers between 1 and 10 presented as written numerals.

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.

Operations and Algebraic Thinking

Overview of Grades K–2

Students develop meanings for addition and subtraction as they encounter problem situations in Kindergarten, and they extend these meanings as they encounter increasingly difficult problem situations in Grade 1. They represent these problems in increasingly sophisticated ways. And they learn and use increasingly sophisticated computation methods to find answers. In each grade, the situations, representations, and methods are calibrated to be coherent and to foster growth from one grade to the next.

The main addition and subtraction situations students work with are listed in Table 1. The computation methods they learn to use are summarized in the margin and described in more detail in the Appendix.

Methods used for solving single-digit addition and subtraction problems

Level 1. Direct Modeling by Counting All or Taking Away. Represent situation or numerical problem with groups of objects, a drawing, or fingers. Model the situation by composing two addend groups or decomposing a total group. Count the resulting total or addend.

Level 2. Counting On. Embed an addend within the total (the addend is perceived simultaneously as an addend and as part of the total). Count this total but abbreviate the counting by omitting the count of this addend; instead, begin with the number word of this addend. Some method of keeping track (fingers, objects, mentally imaged objects, body motions, other count words) is used to monitor the count.

For addition, the count is stopped when the amount of the remaining addend has been counted. The last number word is the total. For subtraction, the count is stopped when the total occurs in the count. The tracking method indicates the difference (seen as an unknown addend).

Level 3. Convert to an Easier Problem. Decompose an addend and compose a part with another addend.

See Appendix for examples and further details.

Table 1: Addition and subtraction situations

	Result Unknown	Change Unknown	Start Unknown
Add To	A bunnies sat on the grass. B more bunnies hopped there. How many bunnies are on the grass now? $A + B = \square$	A bunnies were sitting on the grass. Some more bunnies hopped there. Then there were C bunnies. How many bunnies hopped over to the first A bunnies? $A + \square = C$	Some bunnies were sitting on the grass. B more bunnies hopped there. Then there were C bunnies. How many bunnies were on the grass before? $\square + B = C$
Take From	C apples were on the table. I ate B apples. How many apples are on the table now? $C - B = \square$	C apples were on the table. I ate some apples. Then there were A apples. How many apples did I eat? $C - \square = A$	Some apples were on the table. I ate B apples. Then there were A apples. How many apples were on the table before? $\square - B = A$
	Total Unknown	**Both Addends Unknown[1]**	**Addend Unknown[2]**
Put Together /Take Apart	A red apples and B green apples are on the table. How many apples are on the table? $A + B = \square$	Grandma has C flowers. How many can she put in her red vase and how many in her blue vase? $C = \square + \square$	C apples are on the table. A are red and the rest are green. How many apples are green? $A + \square = C$ $C - A = \square$
	Difference Unknown	**Bigger Unknown**	**Smaller Unknown**
Compare	*"How many more?" version.* Lucy has A apples. Julie has C apples. How many more apples does Julie have than Lucy? *"How many fewer?" version.* Lucy has A apples. Julie has C apples. How many fewer apples does Lucy have than Julie? $A + \square = C$ $C - A = \square$	*"More" version suggests operation.* Julie has B more apples than Lucy. Lucy has A apples. How many apples does Julie have? *"Fewer" version suggests wrong operation.* Lucy has B fewer apples than Julie. Lucy has A apples. How many apples does Julie have? $A + B = \square$	*"Fewer" version suggests operation.* Lucy has B fewer apples than Julie. Julie has C apples. How many apples does Lucy have? *"More" suggests wrong operation.* Julie has B more apples than Lucy. Julie has C apples. How many apples does Lucy have? $C - B = \square$ $\square + B = C$

In each type (shown as a row), any one of the three quantities in the situation can be unknown, leading to the subtypes shown in each cell of the table. The table also shows some important language variants which, while mathematically the same, require separate attention. Other descriptions of the situations may use somewhat different names. Adapted from CCSS, p. 88, which is based on *Mathematics Learning in Early Childhood: Paths Toward Excellence and Equity*, National Research Council, 2009, pp. 32–33.

[1] This can be used to show all decompositions of a given number, especially important for numbers within 10. Equations with totals on the left help children understand that = does not always mean "makes" or "results in" but always means "is the same number as." Such problems are not a problem subtype with one unknown, as is the Addend Unknown subtype to the right. These problems are a productive variation with two unknowns that give experience with finding all of the decompositions of a number and reflecting on the patterns involved.

[2] Either addend can be unknown; both variations should be included.

Kindergarten

Students act out adding and subtracting situations by representing quantities in the situation with objects, their fingers, and math drawings (MP5).K.OA.1 To do this, students must mathematize a real-world situation (MP4), focusing on the quantities and their relationships rather than non-mathematical aspects of the situation. Situations can be acted out and/or presented with pictures or words. Math drawings facilitate reflection and discussion because they remain after the problem is solved. These concrete methods that show all of the objects are called Level 1 methods.

K.OA.1 Represent addition and subtraction with objects, fingers, mental images, drawings, sounds (e.g., claps), acting out situations, verbal explanations, expressions, or equations.

Students learn and use mathematical and non-mathematical language, especially when they make up problems and explain their representation and solution. The teacher can write expressions (e.g., $3-1$) to represent operations, as well as writing equations that represent the whole situation before the solution (e.g., $3 - 1 = \square$) or after (e.g., $3-1 = 2$). Expressions like $3-1$ or $2+1$ show the operation, and it is helpful for students to have experience just with the expression so they can conceptually chunk this part of an equation.

Working within 5 Students work with small numbers first, though many kindergarteners will enter school having learned parts of the Kindergarten standards at home or at a preschool program. Focusing attention on small groups in adding and subtracting situations can help students move from perceptual subitizing to conceptual subitizing in which they see and say the addends and the total,• e.g., "Two and one make three."

• Note on vocabulary: The term "total" is used here instead of the term "sum." "Sum" sounds the same as "some," but has the opposite meaning. "Some" is used to describe problem situations with one or both addends unknown, so it is better in the earlier grades to use "total" rather than "sum." Formal vocabulary for subtraction ("minuend" and "subtrahend") is not needed for Kindergarten, Grade 1, and Grade 2, and may inhibit students seeing and discussing relationships between addition and subtraction. At these grades, the terms "total" and "addend" are sufficient for classroom discussion.

Students will generally use fingers for keeping track of addends and parts of addends for the Level 2 and 3 methods used in later grades, so it is important that students in Kindergarten develop rapid visual and kinesthetic recognition of numbers to 5 on their fingers. Students may bring from home different ways to show numbers with their fingers and to raise (or lower) them when counting. The three major ways used around the world are starting with the thumb, the little finger, or the pointing finger (ending with the thumb in the latter two cases). Each way has advantages physically or mathematically, so students can use whatever is familiar to them. The teacher can use the range of methods present in the classroom, and these methods can be compared by students to expand their understanding of numbers. Using fingers is not a concern unless it remains at the first level of direct modeling in later grades.

Students in Kindergarten work with the following types of addition and subtraction situations: Add To with Result Unknown; Take From with Result Unknown; and Put Together/Take Apart with Total Unknown and Both Addends Unknown (see the dark shaded types in Table 2). Add To/Take From situations are action-oriented; they show changes from an initial state to a final state. These situations are readily modeled by equations because each aspect of the situation has a representation as number, operation (+ or −), or equal sign (=, here with the meaning of "becomes," rather than the more general "equals").

Table 2: Addition and subtraction situations by grade level.

	Result Unknown	Change Unknown	Start Unknown
Add To	A bunnies sat on the grass. B more bunnies hopped there. How many bunnies are on the grass now? $A + B = \square$	A bunnies were sitting on the grass. Some more bunnies hopped there. Then there were C bunnies. How many bunnies hopped over to the first A bunnies? $A + \square = C$	Some bunnies were sitting on the grass. B more bunnies hopped there. Then there were C bunnies. How many bunnies were on the grass before? $\square + B = C$
Take From	C apples were on the table. I ate B apples. How many apples are on the table now? $C - B = \square$	C apples were on the table. I ate some apples. Then there were A apples. How many apples did I eat? $C - \square = A$	Some apples were on the table. I ate B apples. Then there were A apples. How many apples were on the table before? $\square - B = A$

	Total Unknown	Both Addends Unknown[1]	Addend Unknown[2]
Put Together /Take Apart	A red apples and B green apples are on the table. How many apples are on the table? $A + B = \square$	Grandma has C flowers. How many can she put in her red vase and how many in her blue vase? $C = \square + \square$	C apples are on the table. A are red and the rest are green. How many apples are green? $A + \square = C$ $C - A = \square$

	Difference Unknown	Bigger Unknown	Smaller Unknown
Compare	*"How many more?" version.* Lucy has A apples. Julie has C apples. How many more apples does Julie have than Lucy? *"How many fewer?" version.* Lucy has A apples. Julie has C apples. How many fewer apples does Lucy have than Julie? $A + \square = C$ $C - A = \square$	*"More" version suggests operation.* Julie has B more apples than Lucy. Lucy has A apples. How many apples does Julie have? *"Fewer" version suggests wrong operation.* Lucy has B fewer apples than Julie. Lucy has A apples. How many apples does Julie have? $A + B = \square$	*"Fewer" version suggests operation.* Lucy has B fewer apples than Julie. Julie has C apples. How many apples does Lucy have? *"More" version suggests wrong operation.* Julie has B more apples than Lucy. Julie has C apples. How many apples does Lucy have? $C - B = \square$ $\square + B = C$

Darker shading indicates the four Kindergarten problem subtypes. Grade 1 and 2 students work with all subtypes and variants. Unshaded (white) problems are the four difficult subtypes or variants that students should work with in Grade 1 but need not master until Grade 2. Adapted from CCSS, p. 88, which is based on *Mathematics Learning in Early Childhood: Paths Toward Excellence and Equity*, National Research Council, 2009, pp. 32–33.

[1] This can be used to show all decompositions of a given number, especially important for numbers within 10. Equations with totals on the left help children understand that = does not always mean "makes" or "results in" but always means "is the same number as." Such problems are not a problem subtype with one unknown, as is the Addend Unknown subtype to the right. These problems are a productive variation with two unknowns that give experience with finding all of the decompositions of a number and reflecting on the patterns involved.

[2] Either addend can be unknown; both variations should be included.

In Put Together/Take Apart situations, two quantities jointly compose a third quantity (the total), or a quantity can be decomposed into two quantities (the addends). This composition/decomposition may be physical or conceptual. These situations are acted out with objects initially and later children begin to move to conceptual mental actions of shifting between seeing the addends and seeing the total (e.g., seeing children or seeing boys and girls, or seeing red and green apples or all the apples).

The relationship between addition and subtraction in the Add To/Take From and the Put Together/Take Apart action situations is that of reversibility of actions: an Add To situation undoes a Take From situation and vice versa and a composition (Put Together) undoes a decomposition (Take Apart) and vice versa.

Put Together/Take Apart situations with Both Addends Unknown play an important role in Kindergarten because they allow students to explore various compositions that make each number.[K.OA.3] This will help students to build the Level 2 embedded number representations used to solve more advanced problem subtypes. As students decompose a given number to find all of the partners• that compose the number, the teacher can record each decomposition with an equation such as $5 = 4 + 1$, showing the total on the left and the two addends on the right.• Students can find patterns in all of the decompositions of a given number and eventually summarize these patterns for several numbers.

K.OA.3 Decompose numbers less than or equal to 10 into pairs in more than one way, e.g., by using objects or drawings, and record each decomposition by a drawing or equation (e.g., $5 = 2+3$ and $5 = 4 + 1$).

• The two addends that make a total can also be called partners in Kindergarten and Grade 1 to help children understand that they are the two numbers that go together to make the total.

• For each total, two equations involving 0 can be written, e.g., $5 = 5 + 0$ and $5 = 0 + 5$. Once students are aware that such equations can be written, practice in decomposing is best done without such 0 cases.

Equations with one number on the left and an operation on the right (e.g., $5 = 2 + 3$ to record a group of 5 things decomposed as a group of 2 things and a group of 3 things) allow students to understand equations as showing in various ways that the quantities on both sides have the same value.[MP6]

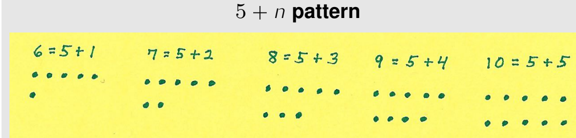
MP6 Working toward "using the equal sign consistently and appropriately."

Working within 10 Students expand their work in addition and subtraction from within 5 to within 10. They use the Level 1 methods developed for smaller totals as they represent and solve problems with objects, their fingers, and math drawings. Patterns such as "adding one is just the next counting word"[K.CC.4c] and "adding zero gives the same number" become more visible and useful for all of the numbers from 1 to 9. Patterns such as the $5 + n$ pattern used widely around the world play an important role in learning particular additions and subtractions, and later as patterns in steps in the Level 2 and 3 methods. Fingers can be used to show the same 5-patterns, but students should be asked to explain these relationships explicitly because they may not be obvious to all students.[MP3] As the school year progresses, students internalize their external representations and solution actions, and mental images become important in problem representation and solution.

K.CC.4c Understand the relationship between numbers and quantities; connect counting to cardinality.

c Understand that each successive number name refers to a quantity that is one larger.

$5 + n$ **pattern**



MP3 Students explain their conclusions to others.

Student drawings show the relationships in addition and subtraction situations for larger numbers (6 to 9) in various ways, such as groupings, things crossed out, numbers labeling parts or totals, and letters or words labeling aspects of the situation. The symbols $+$, $-$, or $=$ may be in the drawing. Students should be encouraged to explain their drawings and discuss how different drawings are the same and different.[MP1]

[MP1] Understand the approaches of others and identify correspondences

Later in the year, students solve addition and subtraction equations for numbers within 5, for example, $2 + 1 = \square$ or $3 - 1 = \square$, while still connecting these equations to situations verbally or with drawings. Experience with decompositions of numbers and with Add To and Take From situations enables students to begin to fluently add and subtract within 5.[K.OA.5]

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

Finally, composing and decomposing numbers from 11 to 19 into ten ones and some further ones builds from all this work.[K.NBT.1] This is a vital first step kindergarteners must take toward understanding base-ten notation for numbers greater than 9. (See the NBT Progression.)

[K.NBT.1] Compose and decompose numbers from 11 to 19 into ten ones and some further ones, e.g., by using objects or drawings, and record each composition or decomposition by a drawing or equation (e.g., 18 = 10 + 8); understand that these numbers are composed of ten ones and one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, or nine ones.

The Kindergarten standards can be stated succinctly, but they represent a great deal of focused and rich interactions in the classroom. This is necessary in order to enable all students to understand all of the numbers and concepts involved. Students who enter Kindergarten without knowledge of small numbers or of counting to ten will require extra teaching time in Kindergarten to meet the standards. Such time and support are vital for enabling all students to master the Grade 1 standards in Grade 1.

Grade 1

Students extend their work in three major and interrelated ways, by:

- Representing and solving a new type of problem situation (Compare);
- Representing and solving the subtypes for all unknowns in all three types;
- Using Level 2 and Level 3 methods to extend addition and subtraction problem solving beyond 10, to problems within 20. In particular, the OA progression in Grade 1 deals with adding two single-digit addends, and related subtractions.•

• Other Grade 1 problems within 20, such as $14 + 5$, are best viewed in the context of place value, i.e., associated with 1.NBT.4. See the NBT Progression.

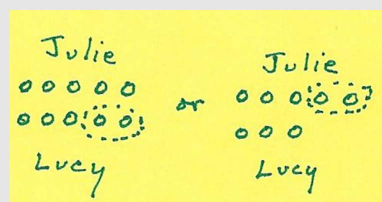
Representing and solving a new type of problem situation (Compare) In a Compare situation, two quantities are compared to find "How many more" or "How many less."•[K.CC.6,K.CC.7] One reason Compare problems are more advanced than the other two major types is that in Compare problems, one of the quantities (the difference) is not present in the situation physically, and must be conceptualized and constructed in a representation, by showing the "extra" that when added to the smaller unknown makes the total equal to the bigger unknown or by finding this quantity embedded within the bigger unknown.

• Compare problems build upon Kindergarten comparisons, in which students identified "Which is more?" or "Which is less?" without ascertaining the difference between the numbers.

K.CC.6 Identify whether the number of objects in one group is greater than, less than, or equal to the number of objects in another group, e.g., by using matching and counting strategies.

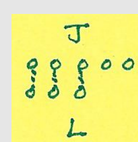
K.CC.7 Compare two numbers between 1 and 10 presented as written numerals.

Representing the difference in a Compare problem

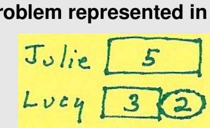


The language of comparisons is also difficult. For example, "Julie has three more apples than Lucy" tells both that Julie has more apples and that the difference is three. Many students "hear" the part of the sentence about who has more, but do not initially hear the part about how many more; they need experience hearing and saying a separate sentence for each of the two parts in order to comprehend and say the one-sentence form. Another language issue is that the comparing sentence might be stated in either of two related ways, using "more" or "less." Students need considerable experience with "less" to differentiate it from "more"; some children think that "less" means "more." Finally, as well as the basic "How many more/less" question form, the comparing sentence might take an active, equalizing and counterfactual form (e.g., "How many more apples does Lucy need to have as many as Julie?") or might be stated in a static and factual way as a question about how many things are unmatched (e.g., "If there are 8 trucks and 5 drivers, how many trucks do not have a driver?"). Extensive experience with a variety of contexts is needed to master these linguistic and situational complexities. Matching with objects and with drawings, and labeling each quantity (e.g., J or Julie and L or Lucy) is helpful. Later in Grade 1, a tape diagram can be used. These comparing diagrams can continue to be used for multi-digit numbers, fractions, decimals, and variables, thus connecting understandings of these numbers in

Compare problem solved by matching



Compare problem represented in tape diagram



comparing situations with such situations for single-digit numbers. The labels can get more detailed in later grades.

Some textbooks represent all Compare problems with a subtraction equation, but that is not how many students think of the subtypes. Students represent Compare situations in different ways, often as an unknown addend problem (see Table 1). If textbooks and teachers model representations of or solution methods for Compare problems, these should reflect the variability students show. In all mathematical problem solving, what matters is the explanation a student gives to relate a representation to a context, and not the representation separated from its context.

Representing and solving the subtypes for all unknowns in all three types In Grade 1, students solve problems of all twelve subtypes (see Table 2) including both language variants of Compare problems. Initially, the numbers in such problems are small enough that students can make math drawings showing all the objects in order to solve the problem. Students then represent problems with equations, called situation equations. For example, a situation equation for a Take From problem with Result Unknown might read $14 - 8 = \square$.

Put Together/Take Apart problems with Addend Unknown afford students the opportunity to see subtraction as the opposite of addition in a different way than as reversing the action, namely as finding an unknown addend.[1.OA.4] The meaning of subtraction as an unknown-addend addition problem is one of the essential understandings students will need in middle school in order to extend arithmetic to negative rational numbers.

[1.OA.4] Understand subtraction as an unknown-addend problem.

Students next gain experience with the more difficult and more "algebraic" problem subtypes in which a situation equation does not immediately lead to the answer. For example, a student analyzing a Take From problem with Change Unknown might write the situation equation $14 - \square = 8$. This equation does not immediately lead to the answer. To make progress, the student can write a related equation called a solution equation—in this case, either $8 + \square = 14$ or $14 - 8 = \square$. These equations both lead to the answer by Level 2 or Level 3 strategies (see discussion in the next section).

Students thus begin developing an algebraic perspective many years before they will use formal algebraic symbols and methods. They read to understand the problem situation, represent the situation and its quantitative relationships with expressions and equations, and then manipulate that representation if necessary, using properties of operations and/or relationships between operations. Linking equations to concrete materials, drawings, and other representations of problem situations affords deep and flexible understandings of these building blocks of algebra. Learning where the total is in addition equations (alone on one side of the equal sign) and in subtraction equations (to the left of the minus sign) helps students move from a situation equation to a related solution equation.

Because the language and conceptual demands are high, some students in Grade 1 may not master the most difficult subtypes of word problems, such as Compare problems that use language opposite to the operation required for solving (see the unshaded subtypes and variants in Table 2). Some students may also still have difficulty with the conceptual demands of Start Unknown problems. Grade 1 children should have an opportunity to solve and discuss such problems, but proficiency on grade level tests with these most difficult subtypes should wait until Grade 2 along with the other extensions of problem solving.

Using Level 2 and Level 3 strategies to extend addition and subtraction problem solving beyond 10, to problems within 20 As Grade 1 students are extending the range of problem types and subtypes they can solve, they are also extending the range of numbers they deal with[1.OA.6] and the sophistication of the methods they use to add and subtract within this larger range.[1.OA.1,1.OA.8]

The advance from Level 1 methods to Level 2 methods can be clearly seen in the context of situations with unknown addends.[1] These are the situations that can be represented by an addition equation with one unknown addend, e.g., $9 + \square = 13$. Students can solve some unknown addend problems by trial and error or by knowing the relevant decomposition of the total. But a Level 2 counting on solution involves seeing the 9 as part of 13, and understanding that counting the 9 things can be "taken as done" if we begin the count from 9: thus the student may say,

"Niiiiine,	ten,	eleven,	twelve,	thirteen."
	1	2	3	4

Students keep track of how many they counted on (here, 4) with fingers, mental images, or physical actions such as head bobs. Elongating the first counting word ("Niiiiine...") is natural and indicates that the student differentiates between the first addend and the counts for the second addend. Counting on enables students to add and subtract easily within 20 because they do not have to use fingers to show totals of more than 10 which is difficult. Students might also use the commutative property to shorten tasks, by counting on from the larger addend even if it is second (e.g., for $4 + 9$, counting on from 9 instead of from 4).

Counting on should be seen as a thinking strategy, not a rote method. It involves seeing the first addend as embedded in the total, and it involves a conceptual interplay between counting and the cardinality in the first addend (shifting from the cardinal meaning of the first addend to the counting meaning). Finally, there is a level of abstraction involved in counting on, because students are counting

[1] Grade 1 students also solve the easy Kindergarten problem subtypes by counting on.

1.OA.6 Add and subtract within 20, demonstrating fluency for addition and subtraction within 10. Use strategies such as 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 $6 + 6 + 1 = 12 + 1 = 13$).

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.

1.OA.8 Determine the unknown whole number in an addition or subtraction equation relating three whole numbers.

the words rather than objects. Number words have become objects to students.

Counting on can be used to add (find a total) or subtract (find an unknown addend). To an observer watching the student, adding and subtracting look the same. Whether the problem is $9+4$ or $13-9$, we will hear the student say the same thing: "Niiiiine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen" with four head bobs or four fingers unfolding. The differences are in what is being monitored to know when to stop, and what gives the answer.

Counting on to add and subtract

$9+4$

"Niiiine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen."

$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4$

$13-9$

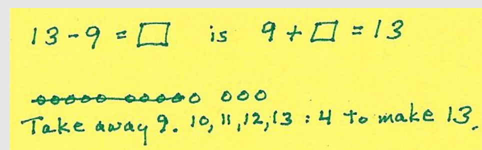
"Niiiine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen."

$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4$

When counting on to add $9+4$, the student is counting the fingers or head bobs to know when to stop counting aloud, and the last counting word said gives the answer. For counting on to subtract $13-9$, the opposite is true: the student is listening to counting words to know when to stop, and the accumulated fingers or head bobs give the answer.

Students in many countries learn counting forward methods of subtracting, including counting on. Counting on for subtraction is easier than counting down. Also, unlike counting down, counting on reinforces that subtraction is an unknown-addend problem. Learning to think of and solve subtractions as unknown addend problems makes subtraction as easy as addition (or even easier), and it emphasizes the relationship between addition and subtraction. The taking away meaning of subtraction can be emphasized within counting on by showing the total and then taking away the objects that are at the *beginning*. In a drawing this taking away can be shown with a horizontal line segment suggesting a minus sign. So one can think of the $9+\square=13$ situation as "I took away 9. I now have 10, 11, 12, 13 [stop when I hear 13], so 4 are left because I counted on 4 from 9 to get to 13." Taking away objects at the end suggests counting down, which is more difficult than counting on. Showing 13 decomposed in groups of five as in the illustration to the right also supports students seeing how to use the Level 3 make-a-ten method; 9 needs 1 more to make 10 and there are 3 more in 13, so 4 from 9 to 13.

"Taking away" indicated with horizontal line segment and solving by counting on to 13



Level 3 methods involve decomposing an addend and composing it with the other addend to form an equivalent but easier problem. This relies on properties of operations.[1.OA.3] Students do not necessarily have to justify their representations or solution using properties, but they can begin to learn to recognize these properties in action and discuss their use after solving.

[1.OA.3] Apply properties of operations as strategies to add and subtract.

There are a variety of methods to change to an easier problem. These draw on addition of three whole numbers.[1.OA.2] A known addition or subtraction can be used to solve a related addition or subtraction by decomposing one addend and composing it with the other addend. For example, a student can change $8+6$ to the easier $10+4$ by decomposing $6=2+4$ and composing the 2 with the 8 to make 10: $8+6=8+2+4=10+4=14$.

[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.

This method can also be used to subtract by finding an unknown addend: $14-8=\square$, so $8+\square=14$, so $14=8+2+4=8+6$, that is $14-8=6$. Students can think as for adding above (stopping when they reach 14), or they can think of taking 8 from 10, leaving 2 with the 4, which makes 6. One can also decompose with respect to ten: $13-4=13-3-1=10-1=9$, but this can be more difficult than the forward methods.

These make-a-ten methods• have three prerequisites reaching

• Computing 8 + 6 by making a ten

a. 8's partner to 10 is 2, so decompose 6 as 2 and its partner.

b. 2's partner to 6 is 4.

c. 10 + 4 is 14.

back to Kindergarten:

a. knowing the partner that makes 10 for any number (K.OA.4 sets the stage for this),

b. knowing all decompositions for any number below 10 (K.OA.3 sets the stage for this), and

c. knowing all teen numbers as $10 + n$ (e.g., $12 = 10 + 2$, $15 = 10 + 5$, see K.NBT.1 and 1.NBT.2b).

The make-a-ten methods are more difficult in English than in East Asian languages in which teen numbers are spoken as *ten, ten one, ten two, ten three*, etc. In particular, prerequisite c is harder in English because of the irregularities and reversals in the teen number words.•

Another Level 3 method that works for certain numbers is a doubles ± 1 or ± 2 method: $6+7 = 6+(6+1) = (6+6)+1 = 12+1 = 13$. These methods do not connect with place value the way make-a-ten methods do.

The Add To and Take From Start Unknown situations are particularly challenging with the larger numbers students encounter in Grade 1. The situation equation $\square + 6 = 15$ or $\square - 6 = 9$ can be rewritten to provide a solution. Students might use the commutative property of addition to change $\square + 6 = 15$ to $6 + \square = 15$, then count on or use Level 3 methods to compose 4 (to make ten) plus 5 (ones in the 15) to find 9. Students might reverse the action in the situation represented by $\square - 6 = 9$ so that it becomes $9 + 6 = \square$. Or they might use their knowledge that the total is the first number in a subtraction equation and the last number in an addition equation to rewrite the situation equation as a solution equation: $\square - 6 = 9$ becomes $9 + 6 = \square$ or $6 + 9 = \square$.

The difficulty levels in Compare problems differ from those in Put Together/Take Apart and Add To and Take From problems. Difficulties arise from the language issues mentioned before and especially from the opposite language variants where the comparing sentence suggests an operation opposite to that needed for the solution.•

As students progress to Level 2 and Level 3 methods, they no longer need representations that show each quantity as a group of objects. Students now move on to diagrams that use numbers and show relationships between these numbers. These can be extensions of drawings made earlier that did show each quantity as a group of objects. Add To/Take From situations at this point can continue to be represented by equations. Put Together/Take Apart situations can be represented by the example drawings shown in the margin. Compare situations can be represented with tape diagrams showing the compared quantities (one smaller and one larger) and the difference. Other diagrams showing two numbers and the unknown can also be used. Such diagrams are a major step forward because the same diagrams can represent the adding and subtracting situations

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 equation.

K.OA.3 Decompose numbers less than or equal to 10 into pairs in more than one way, e.g., by using objects or drawings, and record each decomposition by a drawing or equation (e.g., $5 = 2+3$ and $5 = 4+1$).

K.NBT.1 Compose and decompose numbers from 11 to 19 into ten ones and some further ones, e.g., by using objects or drawings, and record each composition or decomposition by a drawing or equation (e.g., 18 = 10 + 8); understand that these numbers are composed of ten ones and one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, or nine ones.

1.NBT.2b Understand that the two digits of a two-digit number represent amounts of tens and ones. Understand the following as special cases:

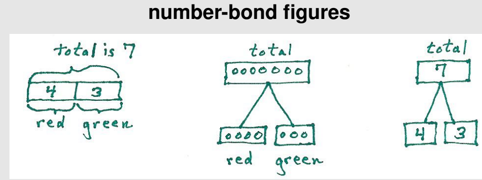
b The numbers from 11 to 19 are composed of a ten and one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, or nine ones.

• For example, "four" is spoken first in "fourteen," but this order is reversed in the numeral 14.

• Bigger Unknown: *"Fewer" version suggests wrong operation.* Lucy has *B* fewer apples than Julie. Lucy has *A* apples. How many apples does Julie have?

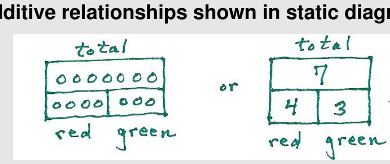
Smaller Unknown. *"More" version suggests wrong operation.* Julie has *B* more apples than Lucy. Julie has *C* apples. How many apples does Lucy have?

Additive relationship shown in tape, part-whole, and number-bond figures



The tape diagram shows the addends as the tapes and the total (indicated by a bracket) as a composition of those tapes. The part-whole diagram and number-bond diagram capture the composing-decomposing action to allow the representation of the total at the top and the addends at the bottom either as drawn quantities or as numbers.

Additive relationships shown in static diagrams



Students sometimes have trouble with static part-whole diagrams because these display a double representation of the total and the addends (the total 7 above and the addends 4 and 3 below), but at a given time in the addition or subtraction situation not all three quantities are present. The action of moving from the total to the addends (or from the addends to the total) in the number-bond diagram reduces this conceptual difficulty.

for all of the kinds of numbers students encounter in later grades (multi-digit whole numbers, fractions, decimals, variables). Students can also continue to represent any situation with a situation equation and connect such equations to diagrams.[MP1] Such connections can help students to solve the more difficult problem situation subtypes by understanding where the totals and addends are in the equation and rewriting the equation as needed.

[MP1] By relating equations and diagrams, students work toward this aspect of MP1: Mathematically proficient students can explain correspondences between equations, verbal descriptions, tables, and graphs.

Grade 2

Grade 2 students build upon their work in Grade 1 in two major ways.[2.OA.1] They represent and solve situational problems of all three types which involve addition and subtraction within 100 rather than within 20, and they represent and solve two-step situational problems of all three types.

2.OA.1 Use addition and subtraction within 100 to solve one- and two-step word problems involving situations of adding to, taking from, putting together, taking apart, and comparing, with unknowns in all positions, e.g., by using drawings and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem.

Diagrams used in Grade 1 to show how quantities in the situation are related continue to be useful in Grade 2, and students continue to relate the diagrams to situation equations. Such relating helps students rewrite a situation equation like $\square - 38 = 49$ as $49 + 38 = \square$ because they see that the first number in the subtraction equation is the total. Each addition and subtraction equation has seven related equations. Students can write all of these equations, continuing to connect addition and subtraction, and their experience with equations of various forms.

Related addition and subtraction equations

$87 - 38 = 49$	$87 - 49 = 38$	$38 + 49 = 87$	$49 + 38 = 87$
$49 = 87 - 38$	$38 = 87 - 49$	$87 = 38 + 49$	$87 = 49 + 38$

Because there are so many problem situation subtypes, there are many possible ways to combine such subtypes to devise two-step problems. Because some Grade 2 students are still developing proficiency with the most difficult subtypes, two-step problems should not involve these subtypes. Most work with two-step problems should involve single-digit addends.

Most two-step problems made from two easy subtypes are easy to represent with an equation, as shown in the first two examples to the right. But problems involving a comparison or two middle difficulty subtypes may be difficult to represent with a single equation and may be better represented by successive drawings or some combination of a diagram for one step and an equation for the other (see the last three examples). Students can make up any kinds of two-step problems and share them for solving.

Examples of two-step Grade 2 word problems

Two easy subtypes with the same operation, resulting in problems represented as, for example, $9 + 5 + 7 = \square$ or $16 - 8 - 5 = \square$ and perhaps by drawings showing these steps:

> Example for $9 + 5 + 7$: There were 9 blue balls and 5 red balls in the bag. Aki put in 7 more balls. How many balls are in the bag altogether?

Two easy subtypes with opposite operations, resulting in problems represented as, for example, $9 - 5 + 7 = \square$ or $16 + 8 - 5 = \square$ and perhaps by drawings showing these steps:

> Example for $9 - 5 + 7$: There were 9 carrots on the plate. The girls ate 5 carrots. Mother put 7 more carrots on the plate. How many carrots are there now?

One easy and one middle difficulty subtype:

> For example: Maria has 9 apples. Corey has 4 fewer apples than Maria. How many apples do they have in all?

> For example: The zoo had 7 cows and some horses in the big pen. There were 15 animals in the big pen. Then 4 more horses ran into the big pen. How many horses are there now?

Two middle difficulty subtypes:

> For example: There were 9 boys and some girls in the park. In all, 15 children were in the park. Then some more girls came. Now there are 14 girls in the park. How many more girls came to the park?

The deep extended experiences students have with addition and subtraction in Kindergarten and Grade 1 culminate in Grade 2 with students becoming fluent in single-digit additions and the related subtractions using the mental Level 2 and 3 strategies as needed.[2.OA.2] So fluency in adding and subtracting single-digit numbers has progressed from numbers within 5 in Kindergarten to within 10 in Grade 1 to within 20 in Grade 2. The methods have also become more advanced.

2.OA.2 Fluently add and subtract within 20 using mental strategies. By end of Grade 2, know from memory all sums of two one-digit numbers.

The word *fluent* is used in the Standards to mean "fast and accurate." Fluency in each grade involves a mixture of just knowing some answers, knowing some answers from patterns (e.g., "adding 0 yields the same number"), and knowing some answers from the use of strategies. It is important to push sensitively and encouragingly toward fluency of the designated numbers at each grade level, recognizing that fluency will be a mixture of these kinds of thinking which may differ across students. The extensive work relating addition and subtraction means that subtraction can frequently be solved by thinking of the related addition, especially for smaller numbers. It is also important that these patterns, strategies and decompositions still be available in Grade 3 for use in multiplying and dividing and in distinguishing adding and subtracting from multiplying and dividing. So the important press toward fluency should also allow students to fall back on earlier strategies when needed. By the end of the K–2 grade span, students have sufficient experience with addition and subtraction to know single-digit sums from memory;[2.OA.2] as should be clear from the foregoing, this is not a matter of instilling facts divorced from their meanings, but rather as an outcome of a multi-year process that heavily involves the interplay of practice and reasoning.

Extensions to other standard domains and to higher grades In Grades 2 and 3, students continue and extend their work with adding and subtracting situations to length situations[2.MD.5,2.MD.6] (addition and subtraction of lengths is part of the transition from whole number addition and subtraction to fraction addition and subtraction) and to bar graphs.[2.MD.10,3.MD.3] Students solve two-step[3.OA.8] and multistep[4.OA.3] problems involving all four operations. In Grades 3, 4, and 5, students extend their understandings of addition and subtraction problem types in Table 1 to situations that involve fractions and decimals. Importantly, the situational meanings for addition and subtraction remain the same for fractions and decimals as for whole numbers.

[2.OA.2] Fluently add and subtract within 20 using mental strategies. By end of Grade 2, know from memory all sums of two one-digit numbers.

[2.MD.5] Use addition and subtraction within 100 to solve word problems involving lengths that are given in the same units, e.g., by using drawings (such as drawings of rulers) and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem.

[2.MD.6] Represent whole numbers as lengths from 0 on a number line diagram with equally spaced points corresponding to the numbers 0, 1, 2, . . . , and represent whole-number sums and differences within 100 on a number line diagram.

[2.MD.10] Draw a picture graph and a bar graph (with single-unit scale) to represent a data set with up to four categories. Solve simple put-together, take-apart, and compare problems using information presented in a bar graph.

[3.MD.3] Draw a scaled picture graph and a scaled bar graph to represent a data set with several categories. Solve one- and two-step "how many more" and "how many less" problems using information presented in scaled bar graphs.

[3.OA.8] Solve two-step word problems using the four operations. Represent these problems using equations with a letter standing for the unknown quantity. Assess the reasonableness of answers using mental computation and estimation strategies including rounding.

[4.OA.3] Solve multistep word problems posed with whole numbers and having whole-number answers using the four operations, including problems in which remainders must be interpreted. Represent these problems using equations with a letter standing for the unknown quantity. Assess the reasonableness of answers using mental computation and estimation strategies including rounding.

Summary of K–2 Operations and Algebraic Thinking

Kindergarten Students in Kindergarten work with three kinds of problem situations: Add To with Result Unknown; Take From with Result Unknown; and Put Together/Take Apart with Total Unknown and Both Addends Unknown. The numbers in these problems involve addition and subtraction within 10. Students represent these problems with concrete objects and drawings, and they find the answers by counting (Level 1 method). More specifically,

- For Add To with Result Unknown, they make or draw the starting set of objects and the change set of objects, and then they count the total set of objects to give the answer.
- For Take From with Result Unknown, they make or draw the starting set and "take away" the change set; then they count the remaining objects to give the answer.
- For Put Together/Take Apart with Total Unknown, they make or draw the two addend sets, and then they count the total number of objects to give the answer.

Grade 1 Students in Grade 1 work with all of the problem situations, including all subtypes and language variants. The numbers in these problems involve additions involving single-digit addends, and the related subtractions. Students represent these problems with math drawings and with equations.

Students master the majority of the problem types. They might sometimes use trial and error to find the answer, or they might just know the answer based on previous experience with the given numbers. But as a general method they learn how to find answers to these problems by counting on (a Level 2 method), and they understand and use this method.[1.OA.5,1.OA.6] Students also work with Level 3 methods that change a problem to an easier equivalent problem.[1.OA.3,1.OA.6] The most important of these Level 3 methods involve making a ten, because these methods connect with the place value concepts students are learning in this grade (see the NBT Progression) and work for any numbers. Students also solve the easier problem subtypes with these Level 3 methods.

The four problem subtypes that Grade 1 students should work with, but need not master, are:

- Add To with Start Unknown
- Take From with Start Unknown
- Compare with Bigger Unknown using "fewer" language (misleading language suggesting the wrong operation)
- Compare with Smaller Unknown using "more" language (misleading language suggesting the wrong operation)

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

[1.OA.6] Add and subtract within 20, demonstrating fluency for addition and subtraction within 10. Use strategies such as 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 $6+6+1=12+1=13$).

[1.OA.3] Apply properties of operations as strategies to add and subtract.

[1.OA.6] Add and subtract within 20, demonstrating fluency for addition and subtraction within 10. Use strategies such as 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 $6+6+1=12+1=13$).

Grade 2 Students in Grade 2 master all of the problem situations and all of their subtypes and language variants. The numbers in these problems involve addition and subtraction within 100. They represent these problems with diagrams and/or equations. For problems involving addition and subtraction within 20, more students master Level 3 methods; increasingly for addition problems, students might just know the answer (by end of Grade 2, students know all sums of two-digit numbers from memory[2.OA.2]). For other problems involving numbers to 100, Grade 2 students use their developing place value skills and understandings to find the answer (see the NBT Progression). Students work with two-step problems, especially with single-digit addends, but do not work with two-step problems in which both steps involve the most difficult problem subtypes and variants.

[2.OA.2] Fluently add and subtract within 20 using mental strategies. By end of Grade 2, know from memory all sums of two one-digit numbers.

Grade 3

Students focus on understanding the meaning and properties of multiplication and division and on finding products of single-digit multiplying and related quotients.[3.OA.1–7] These skills and understandings are crucial; students will rely on them for years to come as they learn to multiply and divide with multi-digit whole number and to add, subtract, multiply and divide with fractions and with decimals. Note that mastering this material, and reaching fluency in single-digit multiplications and related divisions with understanding,[3.OA.7] may be quite time consuming because there are no general strategies for multiplying or dividing all single-digit numbers as there are for addition and subtraction. Instead, there are many patterns and strategies dependent upon specific numbers. So it is imperative that extra time and support be provided if needed.

Common types of multiplication and division situations. Common multiplication and division situations are shown in Table 3. There are three major types, shown as rows of Table 3. The Grade 3 standards focus on Equal Groups and on Arrays.• As with addition and subtraction, each multiplication or division situation involves three quantities, each of which can be the unknown. Because there are two factors and one product in each situation (product = factor × factor), each type has one subtype solved by multiplication (Unknown Product) and two unknown factor subtypes solved by division.

[3.OA.1] Interpret products of whole numbers, e.g., interpret 5×7 as the total number of objects in 5 groups of 7 objects each.

[3.OA.2] Interpret whole-number quotients of whole numbers, e.g., interpret $56 \div 8$ as the number of objects in each share when 56 objects are partitioned equally into 8 shares, or as a number of shares when 56 objects are partitioned into equal shares of 8 objects each.

[3.OA.3] Use multiplication and division within 100 to solve word problems in situations involving equal groups, arrays, and measurement quantities, e.g., by using drawings and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem.

[3.OA.4] Determine the unknown whole number in a multiplication or division equation relating three whole numbers.

[3.OA.5] Apply properties of operations as strategies to multiply and divide.

[3.OA.6] Understand division as an unknown-factor problem.

[3.OA.7] Fluently multiply and divide within 100, using strategies such as the relationship between multiplication and division (e.g., knowing that $8 \times 5 = 40$, one knows $40 \div 5 = 8$) or properties of operations. By the end of Grade 3, know from memory all products of two one-digit numbers.

• Multiplicative Compare situations are more complex than Equal Groups and Arrays, and must be carefully distinguished from additive Compare problems. Multiplicative comparison first enters the Standards at Grade 4.[4.OA.1] For more information on multiplicative Compare problems, see the Grade 4 section of this progression.

[4.OA.1] Interpret a multiplication equation as a comparison, e.g., interpret $35 = 5 \times 7$ as a statement that 35 is 5 times as many as 7 and 7 times as many as 5. Represent verbal statements of multiplicative comparisons as multiplication equations.

Table 3: Multiplication and division situations

	$A \times B = \square$	$A \times \square = C$ and $C \div A = \square$	$\square \times B = C$ and $C \div B = \square$
Equal Groups of Objects	Unknown Product There are A bags with B plums in each bag. How many plums are there in all?	Group Size Unknown If C plums are shared equally into A bags, then how many plums will be in each bag?	Number of Groups Unknown If C plums are to be packed B to a bag, then how many bags are needed?
Arrays of Objects		*Equal groups language*	
	Unknown Product There are A rows of apples with B apples in each row. How many apples are there?	Unknown Factor If C apples are arranged into A equal rows, how many apples will be in each row?	Unknown Factor If C apples are arranged into equal rows of B apples, how many rows will there be?
		Row and column language	
	Unknown Product The apples in the grocery window are in A rows and B columns. How many apples are there?	Unknown Factor If C apples are arranged into an array with A rows, how many columns of apples are there?	Unknown Factor If C apples are arranged into an array with B columns, how many rows are there?
Compare		$A > 1$	
	Larger Unknown A blue hat costs \$$B$. A red hat costs A times as much as the blue hat. How much does the red hat cost?	Smaller Unknown A red hat costs \$$C$ and that is A times as much as a blue hat costs. How much does a blue hat cost?	Multiplier Unknown A red hat costs \$$C$ and a blue hat costs \$$B$. How many times as much does the red hat cost as the blue hat?
		$A < 1$	
	Smaller Unknown A blue hat costs \$$B$. A red hat costs A as much as the blue hat. How much does the red hat cost?	Larger Unknown A red hat costs \$$C$ and that is A of the cost of a blue hat. How much does a blue hat cost?	Multiplier Unknown A red hat costs \$$C$ and a blue hat costs \$$B$. What fraction of the cost of the blue hat is the cost of the red hat?

Adapted from box 2–4 of *Mathematics Learning in Early Childhood: Paths Toward Excellence and Equity*, National Research Council, 2009, pp. 32–33.

Notes

Equal groups problems can also be stated in terms of columns, exchanging the order of A and B, so that the same array is described. For example: There are B columns of apples with A apples in each column. How many apples are there?

In the row and column situations (as with their area analogues), number of groups and group size are not distinguished.

Multiplicative Compare problems appear first in Grade 4, with whole-number values for A, B, and C, and with the "times as much" language in the table. In Grade 5, unit fractions language such as "one third as much" may be used. Multiplying and unit fraction language change the subject of the comparing sentence, e.g., "A red hat costs A times as much as the blue hat" results in the same comparison as "A blue hat costs $1/A$ times as much as the red hat," but has a different subject.

In Equal Groups, the roles of the factors differ. One factor is the number of objects in a group (like any quantity in addition and subtraction situations), and the other is a multiplier that indicates the number of groups. So, for example, 4 groups of 3 objects is arranged differently than 3 groups of 4 objects. Thus there are two kinds of division situations depending on which factor is the unknown (the number of objects in each group or the number of groups). In the Array situations, the roles of the factors do not differ. One factor tells the number of rows in the array, and the other factor tells the number of columns in the situation. But rows and columns depend on the orientation of the array. If an array is rotated 90°, the rows become columns and the columns become rows. This is useful for seeing the commutative property for multiplication[3.OA.5] in rectangular arrays and areas. This property can be seen to extend to Equal Group situations when Equal Group situations are related to arrays by arranging each group in a row and putting the groups under each other to form an array. Array situations can be seen as Equal Group situations if each row or column is considered as a group. Relating Equal Group situations to Arrays, and indicating rows or columns within arrays, can help students see that a corner object in an array (or a corner square in an area model) is not double counted: at a given time, it is counted as part of a row or as a part of a column but not both.

As noted in Table 3, row and column language can be difficult. The Array problems given in the table are of the simplest form in which a row is a group and Equal Groups language is used ("with 6 apples in each row"). Such problems are a good transition between the Equal Groups and array situations and can support the generalization of the commutative property discussed above. Problems in terms of "rows" and "columns," e.g., "The apples in the grocery window are in 3 rows and 6 columns," are difficult because of the distinction between the number of things *in a* row and the number *of* rows. There are 3 rows but the number of columns (6) tells how many are in each row. There are 6 columns but the number of rows (3) tells how many are in each column. Students do need to be able to use and understand these words, but this understanding can grow over time while students also learn and use the language in the other multiplication and division situations.

Variations of each type that use measurements instead of discrete objects are given in the Measurement and Data Progression. Grade 2 standards focus on length measurement[2.MD.1–4] and Grade 3 standards focus on area measurement.[3.MD.5–7] The measurement examples are more difficult than are the examples about discrete objects, so these should follow problems about discrete objects. Area problems where regions are partitioned by unit squares are foundational for Grade 3 standards because area is used as a model for single-digit multiplication and division strategies,[3.MD.7] in Grade 4 as a model for multi-digit multiplication and division and in Grade 5 and Grade 6 as a model for multiplication and division of decimals

3.OA.5 Apply properties of operations as strategies to multiply and divide.

2.MD.1 Measure the length of an object by selecting and using appropriate tools such as rulers, yardsticks, meter sticks, and measuring tapes.

2.MD.2 Measure the length of an object twice, using length units of different lengths for the two measurements; describe how the two measurements relate to the size of the unit chosen.

2.MD.3 Estimate lengths using units of inches, feet, centimeters, and meters.

2.MD.4 Measure to determine how much longer one object is than another, expressing the length difference in terms of a standard length unit.

3.MD.5 Recognize area as an attribute of plane figures and understand concepts of area measurement.

3.MD.6 Measure areas by counting unit squares (square cm, square m, square in, square ft, and improvised units).

3.MD.7 Relate area to the operations of multiplication and addition.

and of fractions.[5.NBT.6] The distributive property is central to all of these uses and will be discussed later.

The top row of Table 3 shows the usual order of writing multiplications of Equal Groups in the United States. The equation $3 \times 6 = \square$ means how many are in 3 groups of 6 things each: three sixes. But in many other countries the equation $3 \times 6 = \square$ means how many are 3 things taken 6 times (6 groups of 3 things each): six threes. Some students bring this interpretation of multiplication equations into the classroom. So it is useful to discuss the different interpretations and allow students to use whichever is used in their home. This is a kind of linguistic commutativity that precedes the reasoning discussed above arising from rotating an array. These two sources of commutativity can be related when the rotation discussion occurs.

5.NBT.6 Find whole-number quotients of whole numbers with up to four-digit dividends and two-digit divisors, using strategies based on place value, the properties of operations, and/or the relationship between multiplication and division. Illustrate and explain the calculation by using equations, rectangular arrays, and/or area models.

Levels in problem representation and solution Multiplication and division problem representations and solution methods can be considered as falling within three levels related to the levels for addition and subtraction (see Appendix). Level 1 is making and counting all of the quantities involved in a multiplication or division. As before, the quantities can be represented by objects or with a diagram, but a diagram affords reflection and sharing when it is drawn on the board and explained by a student. The Grade 2 standards 2.OA.3 and 2.OA.4 are at this level but set the stage for Level 2. Standard 2.OA.3 relates doubles additions up to 20 to the concept of odd and even numbers and to counting by 2s (the easiest count-by in Level 2) by pairing and counting by 2s the things in each addend. 2.OA.4 focuses on using addition to find the total number of objects arranged in rectangular arrays (up to 5 by 5).

2.OA.3 Determine whether a group of objects (up to 20) has an odd or even number of members, e.g., by pairing objects or counting them by 2s; write an equation to express an even number as a sum of two equal addends.

2.OA.4 Use addition to find the total number of objects arranged in rectangular arrays with up to 5 rows and up to 5 columns; write an equation to express the total as a sum of equal addends.

Level 2 is repeated counting on by a given number, such as for 3: $3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18, 21, 24, 27, 30$. The count-bys give the running total. The number of 3s said is tracked with fingers or a visual or physical (e.g., head bobs) pattern. For 8×3, you know the number of 3s and count by 3 until you reach 8 of them. For $24 \div 3$, you count by 3 until you hear 24, then look at your tracking method to see how many 3s you have. Because listening for 24 is easier than monitoring the tracking method for 8 3s to stop at 8, dividing can be easier than multiplying.

Supporting Level 2 methods with arrays

Small arrays (up to 5×5) support seeing and beginning to learn the Level 2 count-bys for the first five equal groups of the small numbers 2 through 5 if the running total is written to the right of each row (e.g., $3, 6, 9, 12, 15$). Students may write repeated additions and then count by ones without the objects, often emphasizing each last number said for each group. Grade 3 students can be encouraged to move as early as possible from equal grouping or array models that show all of the quantities to similar representations using diagrams that show relationships of numbers because diagrams are faster and less error-prone and support methods at Level 2 and Level 3. Some demonstrations of methods or of properties may need to fall back to initially showing all quantities along with a diagram.

The difficulty of saying and remembering the count-by for a given number depends on how closely related it is to 10, the base for our written and spoken numbers. For example, the count-by sequence for 5 is easy, but the count-by sequence for 7 is difficult. Decomposing with respect to a ten can be useful in going over a decade within a count-by. For example in the count-by for 7, students might use the following mental decompositions of 7 to compose up to and then go over the next decade, e.g., $14 + 7 = 14 + 6 + 1 = 20 + 1 = 21$. The count-by sequence can also be said with the factors, such as "one times three is *three*, two times three is *six*, three times three is *nine*, etc." Seeing as well as hearing the count-bys and the equations for

Composing up to, then over the next decade

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccc} 7 & 14 & 21 & 28 & 35 & 42 & 49 & 56 & 63 & 70 \\ & \multicolumn{2}{c}{6+1} & & \multicolumn{2}{c}{2+5 \quad 5+2} & & \multicolumn{2}{c}{1+6 \quad 4+3} & \end{array}$$

There is an initial $3+4$ for $7+7$ that completes the reversing pattern of the partners of 7 involved in these mental decompositions with respect to the decades.

the multiplications or divisions can be helpful.

Level 3 methods use the associative property or the distributive property to compose and decompose. These compositions and decompositions may be additive (as for addition and subtraction) or multiplicative. For example, students multiplicatively compose or decompose:

> 4×6 is easier to count by 3 eight times:
>
> $$4 \times 6 = 4 \times (2 \times 3) = (4 \times 2) \times 3 = 8 \times 3.$$

Students may know a product 1 or 2 ahead of or behind a given product and say:

> I know 6×5 is 30, so 7×5 is $30 + 5$ more which is 35.
> This implicitly uses the distributive property:
>
> $$7 \times 5 = (6+1) \times 5 = 6 \times 5 + 1 \times 3 = 30 + 5 = 35.$$

Students may decompose a product that they do not know in terms of two products they know (for example, 4×7 shown in the margin).

Students may not use the properties explicitly (for example, they might omit the second two steps), but classroom discussion can identify and record properties in student reasoning. An area diagram can support such reasoning.

The $5 + n$ pattern students used earlier for additions can now be extended to show how 6, 7, 8, and 9 times a number are $5+1$, $5+2$, $5+3$, and $5+4$ times that number. These patterns are particularly easy to do mentally for the numbers 4, 6, and 8. The 9s have particularly rich patterns based on $9 = 10 - 1$. The pattern of the tens digit in the product being 1 less than the multiplier, the ones digit in the product being 10 minus the multiplier, and that the digits in nines products sum to 9 all come from this pattern.

There are many opportunities to describe and reason about the many patterns involved in the Level 2 count-bys and in the Level 3 composing and decomposing methods. There are also patterns in multiplying by 0 and by 1. These need to be differentiated from the patterns for adding 0 and adding 1 because students often confuse these three patterns: $n + 0 = n$ but $n \times 0 = 0$, and $n \times 1$ is the pattern that does not change n (because $n \times 1 = n$). Patterns make multiplication by some numbers easier to learn than multiplication by others, so approaches may teach multiplications and divisions in various orders depending on what numbers are seen as or are supported to be easiest.

Multiplications and divisions can be learned at the same time and can reinforce each other. Level 2 methods can be particularly easy for division, as discussed above. Level 3 methods may be more difficult for division than for multiplication.

Throughout multiplication and division learning, students gain fluency and begin to know certain products and unknown factors.

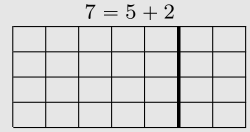
Decomposing 4×7

$$\begin{aligned} 4 \times 7 &= 4 \times (5+2) \\ &= (4 \times 5) + (4 \times 2) \\ &= 20 + 8 \\ &= 28 \end{aligned}$$

Supporting reasoning with area diagram

$7 = 5 + 2$

4



$20 + 8 = 28$

$4 \times 5 + 4 \times 2 = 4 \times 7$

The $5 + n$ pattern for multiplying the numbers 4, 6, and 8

n		$4 \times n$		$6 \times n$		$8 \times n$	
1	$5+1$	4	24	6	36	8	48
2	$5+2$	8	28	12	42	16	56
3	$5+3$	12	32	18	48	24	64
4	$5+4$	16	36	24	54	32	72
5	$5+5$	20	40	30	60	40	80

Patterns in multiples of 9

$1 \times 9 = 9$

$2 \times 9 = 2 \times (10-1) = (2 \times 10) - (2 \times 1) = 20 - 2 = 18$

$3 \times 9 = 3 \times (10-1) = (3 \times 10) - (3 \times 1) = 30 - 3 = 27,$ etc

All of the understandings of multiplication and division situations, of the levels of representation and solving, and of patterns need to culminate by the end of Grade 3 in fluent multiplying and dividing of all single-digit numbers and 10.[3.OA.7] Such fluency may be reached by becoming fluent for each number (e.g., the 2s, the 5s, etc.) and then extending the fluency to several, then all numbers mixed together. Organizing practice so that it focuses most heavily on understood but not yet fluent products and unknown factors can speed learning. To achieve this by the end of Grade 3, students must begin working toward fluency for the easy numbers as early as possible. Because an unknown factor (a division) can be found from the related multiplication, the emphasis at the end of the year is on knowing from memory all products of two one-digit numbers. As should be clear from the foregoing, this isn't a matter of instilling facts divorced from their meanings, but rather the outcome of a carefully designed learning process that heavily involves the interplay of practice and reasoning. All of the work on how different numbers fit with the base-ten numbers culminates in these "just know" products and is necessary for learning products. Fluent dividing for all single-digit numbers, which will combine just knows, knowing from a multiplication, patterns, and best strategy, is also part of this vital standard.

3.OA.7 Fluently multiply and divide within 100, using strategies such as the relationship between multiplication and division (e.g., knowing that $8 \times 5 = 40$, one knows $40 \div 5 = 8$) or properties of operations. By the end of Grade 3, know from memory all products of two one-digit numbers.

Using a letter for the unknown quantity, the order of operations, and two-step word problems with all four operations Students in Grade 3 begin the step to formal algebraic language by using a letter for the unknown quantity in expressions or equations for one- and two-step problems.[3.OA.8] But the symbols of arithmetic, $\times$ or $\cdot$ or $*$ for multiplication and $\div$ or / for division, continue to be used in Grades 3, 4, and 5.

3.OA.8 Solve two-step word problems using the four operations. Represent these problems using equations with a letter standing for the unknown quantity. Assess the reasonableness of answers using mental computation and estimation strategies including rounding.

Understanding and using the associative and distributive properties (as discussed above) requires students to know two conventions for reading an expression that has more than one operation:

1. Do the operation inside the parentheses before an operation outside the parentheses (the parentheses can be thought of as hands curved around the symbols and grouping them).

2. If a multiplication or division is written next to an addition or subtraction, imagine parentheses around the multiplication or division (it is done before these operations). At Grades 3 through 5, parentheses can usually be used for such cases so that fluency with this rule can wait until Grade 6.

MP7 Making use of structure to make computation easier:

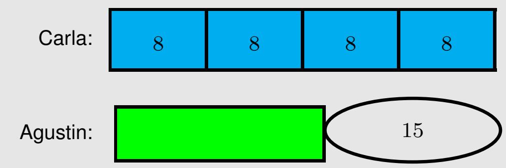
$$13 + 29 + 77 + 11 = (13 + 77) + (29 + 11)$$

These conventions are often called the Order of Operations and can seem to be a central aspect of algebra. But actually they are just simple "rules of the road" that allow expressions involving more than one operation to be interpreted unambiguously and thus are connected with the mathematical practice of communicating precisely.[MP6] Use of parentheses is important in displaying structure and thus is connected with the mathematical practice of making use of structure.[MP7] Parentheses are important in expressing the associative and especially the distributive properties. These properties are at the heart of Grades 3 to 5 because they are used in the Level 3 multiplication and division strategies, in multi-digit and decimal multiplication and division, and in all operations with fractions.

As with two-step problems at Grade 2,[2.OA.1, 2.MD.5] which involve only addition and subtraction, the Grade 3 two-step word problems vary greatly in difficulty and ease of representation. More difficult problems may require two steps of representation and solution rather than one. Use of two-step problems involving easy or middle difficulty adding and subtracting within 1,000 or one such adding or subtracting with one step of multiplication or division can help to maintain fluency with addition and subtraction while giving the needed time to the major Grade 3 multiplication and division standards.

A two-step problem with diagram showing problem situation and equations showing the two parts

Carla has 4 packages of silly bands. Each package has 8 silly bands in it. Agustin is supposed to get 15 fewer silly bands than Carla. How many silly bands should Agustin get?



C = number of Carla's silly bands
A = number of Agustin's silly bands

$$C = 4 \times 8 = 32$$

$$A + 15 = C$$
$$A + 15 = 32$$
$$A = 17$$

Students may be able to solve this problem without writing such equations.

Grade 4

Multiplication Compare Consider two diving boards, one 40 feet high, the other 8 feet high. Students in earlier grades learned to compare these heights in an additive sense—"This one is 32 feet higher than that one"—by solving additive Compare problems[2.OA.1] and using addition and subtraction to solve word problems involving length.[2.MD.5] Students in Grade 4 learn to compare these quantities multiplicatively as well: "This one is 5 times as high as that one."[4.OA.1,4.OA.2,4.MD.1,4.MD.2] In an additive comparison, the underlying question is *what amount would be added to one quantity* in order to result in the other. In a multiplicative comparison, the underlying question is *what factor would multiply one quantity* in order to result in the other. Multiplication Compare situations are shown in Table 3.

Language can be difficult in Multiplication Compare problems. The language used in the three examples in Table 3 is fairly simple, e.g., "A red hat costs 3 times as much as the blue hat." Saying the comparing sentence in the opposite way is more difficult. It could be said using division, e.g., "The cost of a red hat divided by 3 is the cost of a blue hat." It could also be said using a unit fraction, e.g., "A blue hat costs one-third as much as a red hat"; note however that multiplying by a fraction in not an expectation of the Standards in Grade 4. In any case, many languages do not use either of these options for saying the opposite comparison. They use the terms *three times more than* and *three times less than* to describe opposite multiplicative comparisons. These did not used to be acceptable usages in English because they mix the multiplicative and additive comparisons and are ambiguous. If the cost of a red hat is three times more than a blue hat that costs $5, does a red hat cost $15 (three times as much) or $20 (three times more than: a difference that is three times as much)? However, the terms *three times more than* and *three times less than* are now appearing frequently in newspapers and other written materials. It is recommended to discuss these complexities with Grade 4 students while confining problems that appear on tests or in multi-step problems to the well-defined multiplication language in Table 3. The tape diagram for the additive Compare situation that shows a smaller and a larger tape can be extended to the multiplication Compare situation.

Fourth graders extend problem solving to multi-step word problems using the four operations posed with whole numbers. The same limitations discussed for two-step problems concerning representing such problems using equations apply here. Some problems might easily be represented with a single equation, and others will be more sensibly represented by more than one equation or a diagram and one or more equations. Numbers can be those in the Grade 4 standards, but the number of steps should be no more than three and involve only easy and medium difficulty addition and subtraction problems.

2.OA.1 Use addition and subtraction within 100 to solve one- and two-step word problems involving situations of adding to, taking from, putting together, taking apart, and comparing, with unknowns in all positions, e.g., by using drawings and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem.

2.MD.5 Use addition and subtraction within 100 to solve word problems involving lengths that are given in the same units, e.g., by using drawings (such as drawings of rulers) and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem.

4.OA.1 Interpret a multiplication equation as a comparison, e.g., interpret $35 = 5 \times 7$ as a statement that 35 is 5 times as many as 7 and 7 times as many as 5. Represent verbal statements of multiplicative comparisons as multiplication equations.

4.OA.2 Multiply or divide to solve word problems involving multiplicative comparison, e.g., by using drawings and equations with a symbol for the unknown number to represent the problem, distinguishing multiplicative comparison from additive comparison.

4.MD.1 Know relative sizes of measurement units within one system of units including km, m, cm; kg, g; lb, oz.; l, ml; hr, min, sec. Within a single system of measurement, express measurements in a larger unit in terms of a smaller unit. Record measurement equivalents in a two-column table.

4.MD.2 Use the four operations to solve word problems involving distances, intervals of time, liquid volumes, masses of objects, and money, including problems involving simple fractions or decimals, and problems that require expressing measurements given in a larger unit in terms of a smaller unit. Represent measurement quantities using diagrams such as number line diagrams that feature a measurement scale.

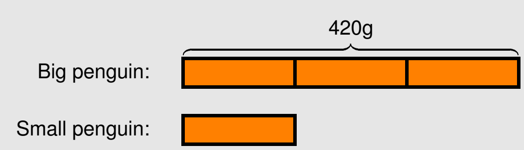
Tape diagram used to solve the Compare problem in Table 3

B is the cost of a blue hat in dollars
R is the cost of a red hat in dollars

$6			$3 \times B = R$
$6	$6	$6	$3 \times \$6 = \$18$

A tape diagram used to solve a Compare problem

A big penguin will eat 3 times as much fish as a small penguin. The big penguin will eat 420 grams of fish. All together, how much will the two penguins eat?



B = number of grams the big penguin eats
S = number of grams the small penguin eats

$$3 \cdot S = B$$
$$3 \cdot S = 420$$
$$S = 140$$

$$S + B = 140 + 420$$
$$= 560$$

Remainders In problem situations, students must interpret and use remainders with respect to context.4.OA.3 For example, what is the smallest number of busses that can carry 250 students, if each bus holds 36 students? The whole number quotient in this case is 6 and the remainder is 34; the equation $250 = 6 \times 36 + 34$ expresses this result and corresponds to a picture in which 6 busses are completely filled while a seventh bus carries 34 students. Notice that the answer to the stated question (7) differs from the whole number quotient.

On the other hand, suppose 250 pencils were distributed among 36 students, with each student receiving the same number of pencils. What is the largest number of pencils each student could have received? In this case, the answer to the stated question (6) is the same as the whole number quotient. If the problem had said that the teacher got the remaining pencils and asked how many pencils the teacher got, then the remainder would have been the answer to the problem.

4.OA.3 Solve multistep word problems posed with whole numbers and having whole-number answers using the four operations, including problems in which remainders must be interpreted. Represent these problems using equations with a letter standing for the unknown quantity. Assess the reasonableness of answers using mental computation and estimation strategies including rounding.

Factors, multiples, and prime and composite numbers Students extend the idea of decomposition to multiplication and learn to use the term *multiple*.4.OA.4 Any whole number is a multiple of each of its factors, so for example, 21 is a multiple of 3 and a multiple of 7 because $21 = 3 \cdot 7$. A number can be multiplicatively decomposed into equal groups and expressed as a product of these two factors (called factor pairs). A prime number has only one and itself as factors. A composite number has two or more factor pairs. Students examine various patterns in factor pairs by finding factor pairs for all numbers 1 to 100 (e.g., no even number other than 2 will be prime because it always will have a factor pair including 2). To find all factor pairs for a given number, students can search systematically, by checking if 2 is a factor, then 3, then 4, and so on, until they start to see a "reversal" in the pairs (for example, after finding the pair 6 and 9 for 54, students will next find the reverse pair, 9 and 6; all subsequent pairs will be reverses of previously found pairs). Students understand and use of the concepts and language in this area, but need not be fluent in finding all factor pairs. Determining whether a given whole number in the range 1 to 100 is a multiple of a given one-digit number is a matter of interpreting prior knowledge of division in terms of the language of multiples and factors.

4.OA.4 Find all factor pairs for a whole number in the range 1–100. Recognize that a whole number is a multiple of each of its factors. Determine whether a given whole number in the range 1–100 is a multiple of a given one-digit number. Determine whether a given whole number in the range 1–100 is prime or composite.

Generating and analyzing patterns This standard4.OA.5 begins a small focus on reasoning about number or shape patterns, connecting a rule for a given pattern with its sequence of numbers or shapes. Patterns that consist of repeated sequences of shapes or growing sequences of designs can be appropriate for the grade. For example, students could examine a sequence of dot designs in which each design has 4 more dots than the previous one and they could reason about how the dots are organized in the design to determine the

4.OA.5 Generate a number or shape pattern that follows a given rule. Identify apparent features of the pattern that were not explicit in the rule itself.

total number of dots in the 100th design. In examining numerical sequences, fourth graders can explore rules of repeatedly adding the same whole number or repeatedly multiplying by the same whole number. Properties of repeating patterns of shapes can be explored with division. For example, to determine the 100th shape in a pattern that consists of repetitions of the sequence "square, circle, triangle," the fact that when we divide 100 by 3 the whole number quotient is 33 with remainder 1 tells us that after 33 full repeats, the 99th shape will be a triangle (the last shape in the repeating pattern), so the 100th shape is the first shape in the pattern, which is a square. Notice that the Standards do not require students to infer or guess the underlying rule for a pattern, but rather ask them to generate a pattern from a given rule and identify features of the given pattern.

Grade 5

As preparation for the Expressions and Equations Progression in the middle grades, students in Grade 5 begin working more formally with expressions.[5.OA.1, 5.OA.2] They write expressions to express a calculation, e.g., writing $2 \times (8 + 7)$ to express the calculation "add 8 and 7, then multiply by 2." They also evaluate and interpret expressions, e.g., using their conceptual understanding of multiplication to interpret $3 \times (18932 + 921)$ as being three times as large as $18932 + 921$, without having to calculate the indicated sum or product. Thus, students in Grade 5 begin to think about numerical expressions in ways that prefigure their later work with variable expressions (e.g., three times an unknown length is $3 \cdot L$). In Grade 5, this work should be viewed as exploratory rather than for attaining mastery; for example, expressions should not contain nested grouping symbols, and they should be no more complex than the expressions one finds in an application of the associative or distributive property, e.g., $(8 + 27) + 2$ or $(6 \times 30) + (6 \times 7)$. Note however that the numbers in expressions need not always be whole numbers.

Students extend their Grade 4 pattern work by working briefly with two numerical patterns that can be related and examining these relationships within sequences of ordered pairs and in the graphs in the first quadrant of the coordinate plane.[5.OA.3] This work prepares students for studying proportional relationships and functions in middle school.

[5.OA.1] Use parentheses, brackets, or braces in numerical expressions, and evaluate expressions with these symbols.

[5.OA.2] Write simple expressions that record calculations with numbers, and interpret numerical expressions without evaluating them.

[5.OA.3] Generate two numerical patterns using two given rules. Identify apparent relationships between corresponding terms. Form ordered pairs consisting of corresponding terms from the two patterns, and graph the ordered pairs on a coordinate plane.

Connections to NF and NBT in Grades 3 through 5

Students extend their whole number work with adding and subtracting and multiplying and dividing situations to decimal numbers and fractions. Each of these extensions can begin with problems that include all of the subtypes of the situations in Tables 1 and 2. The operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division continue to be used in the same way in these problem situations when they are extended to fractions and decimals (although making these extensions is not automatic or easy for all students). The connections described for Kindergarten through Grade 3 among word problem situations, representations for these problems, and use of properties in solution methods are equally relevant for these new kinds of numbers. Students use the new kinds of numbers, fractions and decimals, in geometric measurement and data problems and extend to some two-step and multi-step problems involving all four operations. In order to keep the difficulty level from becoming extreme, there should be a tradeoff between the algebraic or situational complexity of any given problem and its computational difficulty taking into account the kinds of numbers involved.

As students' notions of quantity evolve and generalize from discrete to continuous during Grades 3–5, their notions of multiplication evolves and generalizes. This evolution deserves special attention because it begins in OA but ends in NF. Thus, the concept of multiplication begins in Grade 3 with an entirely discrete notion of "equal groups."[3.OA.1] By Grade 4, students can also interpret a multiplication equation as a statement of comparison involving the notion "times as much."[4.OA.1] This notion has more affinity to continuous quantities, e.g., $3 = 4 \times \frac{3}{4}$ might describe how 3 cups of flour are 4 times as much as $\frac{3}{4}$ cup of flour.[4.NF.4,4.MD.2] By Grade 5, when students multiply fractions in general,[5.NF.4] products can be larger or smaller than either factor, and multiplication can be seen as an operation that "stretches or shrinks" by a scale factor.[5.NF.5] This view of multiplication as scaling is the appropriate notion for reasoning multiplicatively with continuous quantities.

[3.OA.1] Interpret products of whole numbers, e.g., interpret 5×7 as the total number of objects in 5 groups of 7 objects each.

[4.OA.1] Interpret a multiplication equation as a comparison, e.g., interpret $35 = 5 \times 7$ as a statement that 35 is 5 times as many as 7 and 7 times as many as 5. Represent verbal statements of multiplicative comparisons as multiplication equations.

[4.NF.4] Apply and extend previous understandings of multiplication to multiply a fraction by a whole number.

[4.MD.2] Use the four operations to solve word problems involving distances, intervals of time, liquid volumes, masses of objects, and money, including problems involving simple fractions or decimals, and problems that require expressing measurements given in a larger unit in terms of a smaller unit. Represent measurement quantities using diagrams such as number line diagrams that feature a measurement scale.

[5.NF.4] Apply and extend previous understandings of multiplication to multiply a fraction or whole number by a fraction.

[5.NF.5] Interpret multiplication as scaling (resizing), by:

Where the Operations and Algebraic Thinking Progression is heading

Connection to the Number System The properties of and relationships between operations that students worked with in Grades K–5 will become even more prominent in extending arithmetic to systems that include negative numbers; meanwhile the meanings of the operations will continue to evolve, e.g., subtraction will become "adding the opposite."

Connection to Expressions and Equations In Grade 6, students will begin to view expressions not just as calculation recipes but as entities in their own right, which can be described in terms of their parts. For example, students see $8 * (5+2)$ as the product of 8 with the sum $5+2$. In particular, students must use the conventions for order of operations to *interpret* expressions, not just to evaluate them. Viewing expressions as entities created from component parts is essential for seeing the structure of expressions in later grades and using structure to reason about expressions and functions.

As noted above, the foundation for these later competencies is laid in Grade 5 when students write expressions to record a "calculation recipe" without actually evaluating the expression, use parentheses to formulate expressions, and examine patterns and relationships numerically and visually on a coordinate plane graph.[5.OA.1,5.OA.2] Before Grade 5, student thinking that also builds toward the Grade 6 EE work is focusing on the expressions on each side of an equation, relating each expression to the situation, and discussing the situational and mathematical vocabulary involved to deepen the understandings of expressions and equations.

[5.OA.1] Use parentheses, brackets, or braces in numerical expressions, and evaluate expressions with these symbols.

[5.OA.2] Write simple expressions that record calculations with numbers, and interpret numerical expressions without evaluating them.

In Grades 6 and 7, students begin to explore the systematic algebraic methods used for solving algebraic equations. Central to these methods are the relationships between addition and subtraction and between multiplication and division, emphasized in several parts of this Progression and prominent also in the 6–8 Progression for the Number System. Students' varied work throughout elementary school with equations with unknowns in all locations and in writing equations to decompose a given number into many pairs of addends or many pairs of factors are also important foundations for understanding equations and for solving equations with algebraic methods. Of course, any method of solving, whether systematic or not, relies on an understanding of what solving itself is—namely, a process of answering a question: which values from a specified set, if any, make the equation true?[6.EE.5]

[6.EE.5] Understand solving an equation or inequality as a process of answering a question: which values from a specified set, if any, make the equation or inequality true? Use substitution to determine whether a given number in a specified set makes an equation or inequality true.

Students represent and solve word problems with equations involving one unknown quantity in K through 5. The quantity was expressed by a □ or other symbol in K–2 and by a letter in Grades 3 to 5. Grade 6 students continue the K–5 focus on representing a problem situation using an equation (a situation equation) and then (for the more difficult situations) writing an equivalent equation that is easier to solve (a solution equation). Grade 6 students discuss their reasoning more explicitly by focusing on the structures of expressions and using the properties of operations explicitly. Some of the math drawings that students have used in K through 5 to represent problem situations continue to be used in the middle grades. These can help students throughout the grades deepen the connections they make among the situation and problem representations by a drawing and/or by an equation, and support the informal K–5 and increasingly formal 6–8 solution methods arising from understanding the structure of expressions and equations.

Appendix. Methods used for solving single-digit addition and subtraction problems

Level 1. Direct Modeling by Counting All or Taking Away.

Represent situation or numerical problem with groups of objects, a drawing, or fingers. Model the situation by composing two addend groups or decomposing a total group. Count the resulting total or addend.

Adding ($8 + 6 = \square$): Represent each addend by a group of objects. Put the two groups together. Count the total. Use this strategy for Add To/Result Unknown and Put Together/Total Unknown.

Subtracting ($14 - 8 = \square$): Represent the total by a group of objects. Take the known addend number of objects away. Count the resulting group of objects to find the unknown added. Use this strategy for Take From/Result Unknown.

Levels	**8 + 6 = 14**	**14 – 8 = 6**
Level 1: Count all	Count All a 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 b 1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 c	Take Away a 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 1 2 3 4 5 6 b c
Level 2: Count on	Count On 8 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	To solve 14 – 8 I count on 8 + ? = 14 I took away 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 8 to 14 is 6 so 14 – 8 = 6
Level 3: Recompose Make a ten (general): one addend breaks apart to make 10 with the other addend Make a ten (from 5's within each addend)	Recompose: Make a Ten 10 + 4 10 + 4	14 – 8: I make a ten for 8 + ? = 14 8 + 2 + 4 6 8 + 6 = 14
Doubles ± n	6 + 8 = 6 + 6 + 2 = 12 + 2 = 14	

Note: Many children attempt to count down for subtraction, but counting down is difficult and error-prone. Children are much more successful with counting on; it makes subtraction as easy as addition.

Level 2. Counting On.

Embed an addend within the total (the addend is perceived simultaneously as an addend and as part of the total). Count this total but abbreviate the counting by omitting the count of this addend; instead, begin with the number word of this addend. Some method of keeping track (fingers, objects, mentally imaged objects, body motions, other count words) is used to monitor the count.

For addition, the count is stopped when the amount of the remaining addend has been counted. The last number word is the total. For subtraction, the count is stopped when the total occurs in the count. The tracking method indicates the difference (seen as an unknown addend).

Counting on can be used to find the total or to find an addend. These look the same to an observer. The difference is what is monitored: the total or the known addend. Some students count down to solve subtraction problems, but this method is less accurate and more difficult than counting on. Counting on is not a rote method. It requires several connections between cardinal and counting meanings of the number words and extended experience with Level 1 methods in Kindergarten.

> Adding (e. g., $8 + 6 = \square$) uses counting on to find a total: One counts on from the first addend (or the larger number is taken as the first addend). Counting on is monitored so that it stops when the second addend has been counted on. The last number word is the total.
>
> Finding an unknown addend (e.g., $8 + \square = 14$): One counts on from the known addend. The keeping track method is monitored so that counting on stops when the known total has been reached. The keeping track method tells the unknown addend.
>
> Subtracting ($14 - 8 = \square$): One thinks of subtracting as finding the unknown addend, as $8 + \square = 14$ and uses counting on to find an unknown addend (as above).

The problems in Table 2 which are solved by Level 1 methods in Kindergarten can also be solved using Level 2 methods: counting on to find the total (adding) or counting on to find the unknown addend (subtracting).

The middle difficulty (lightly shaded) problem types in Table 2 for Grade 1 are directly accessible with the embedded thinking of Level 2 methods and can be solved by counting on.

> Finding an unknown addend (e.g., $8 + \square = 14$) is used for Add To/Change Unknown, Put Together/Take Apart/Addend Unknown, and Compare/Difference Unknown. It is also used for Take From/Change Unknown ($14 - \square =$

8) after a student has decomposed the total into two addends, which means they can represent the situation as $14 - 8 = \square$.

Adding or subtracting by counting on is used by some students for each of the kinds of Compare problems (see the equations in Table 2). Grade 1 students do not necessarily master the Compare Bigger Unknown or Smaller Unknown problems with the misleading language in the bottom row of Table 2.

Solving an equation such as $6 + 8 = \square$ by counting on from 8 relies on the understanding that $8 + 6$ gives the same total, an implicit use of the commutative property without the accompanying written representation $6 + 8 = 8 + 6$.

Level 3. Convert to an Easier Equivalent Problem.

Decompose an addend and compose a part with another addend.

These methods can be used to add or to find an unknown addend (and thus to subtract). These methods implicitly use the associative property.

Adding

Make a ten. E.g, for $8 + 6 = \square$,

$$8 + \underline{6} = 8 + \underline{2 + 4} = 10 + 4 = 14,$$

so $8 + 6$ becomes $10 + 4$.

Doubles plus or minus 1. E.g., for $6 + 7 = \square$,

$$6 + \underline{7} = 6 + \underline{6 + 1} = 12 + 1 = 13,$$

so $6 + 7$ becomes $12 + 1$.

Finding an unknown addend

Make a ten. E. g., for $8 + \square = 14$,

$$8 + \underline{2} = 10 \text{ and } \underline{4} \text{ more makes } 14. \ \underline{2 + 4} = 6.$$

So $8 + \square = 14$ is done as two steps: how many up to ten and how many over ten (which can be seen in the ones place of 14).

Doubles plus or minus 1. E.g., for $6 + \square = 13$,

$$6 + \underline{6 + 1} = 12 + 1. \ \underline{6 + 1} = 7.$$

So $6 + \square = 13$ is done as two steps: how many up to 12 $(6 + 6)$ and how many from 12 to 13.

Subtracting

Thinking of subtracting as finding an unknown addend. E.g., solve $14-8=\square$ or $13-6=\square$ as $8+\square=14$ or $6+\square=13$ by the above methods (make a ten or doubles plus or minus 1).

Make a ten by going down over ten. E.g., $14-8=\square$ can be done in two steps by going down over ten: $14-4$ (to get to 10) $-\,4=6$.

The Level 1 and Level 2 problem types can be solved using these Level 3 methods.

Level 3 problem types can be solved by representing the situation with an equation or drawing, then re-representing to create a situation solved by adding, subtracting, or finding an unknown addend as shown above by methods at any level, but usually at Level 2 or 3. Many students only show in their writing part of this multi-step process of re-representing the situation.

> Students re-represent Add To/Start Unknown $\square+6=14$ situations as $6+\square=14$ by using the commutative property (formally or informally).
>
> Students re-represent Take From/Start Unknown $\square-8=6$ situations by reversing as $6+8=\square$, which may then be solved by counting on from 8 or using a Level 3 method.

At Level 3, the Compare misleading language situations can be solved by representing the known quantities in a diagram that shows the bigger quantity in relation to the smaller quantity. The diagram allows the student to find a correct solution by representing the difference between quantities and seeing the relationship among the three quantities. Such diagrams are the same diagrams used for the other versions of compare situations; focusing on which quantity is bigger and which is smaller helps to overcome the misleading language.

Some students may solve Level 3 problem types by doing the above re-representing but use Level 2 counting on.

As students move through levels of solution methods, they increasingly use equations to represent problem situations as situation equations and then to re-represent the situation with a solution equation or a solution computation. They relate equations to diagrams, facilitating such re-representing. Labels on diagrams can help connect the parts of the diagram to the corresponding parts of the situation. But students may know and understand things that they may not use for a given solution of a problem as they increasingly do various representing and re-representing steps mentally.