Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4

Implementation Guide

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OXFORD

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS

Great Clarendon Street, Oxford, OX2 6DP, United Kingdom

Oxford University Press is a department of the University of Oxford. It furthers the University's objective of excellence in research, scholarship, and education by publishing worldwide. Oxford is a registered trade mark of Oxford University Press in the UK and in certain other countries.

First Edition published in 2014

ISBN 978-0-19-838987-3

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Typeset by Tech-Set Ltd, Gateshead

Paper used in the production of this book is a natural, recyclable product made from wood grown in sustainable forests. The manufacturing process conforms to the environmental regulations of the country of origin.

Printed in Great Britain by Ashford Colour Press Ltd, Gosport.

Acknowledgements
Written and developed by Simon d'Angelo, Elizabeth Gibbs, Andrew Jeffrey, Sue Lowndes and Dr Tony Wing

Cover photograph by Damian Richardson

Photographs by Damian Richardson, except: p.5, p.6, p.7: Chris King; p.15, p.25: Jonty Tacon; p.30: Suzy Prior

Technical artwork by Tech-Set Ltd, Gateshead

With special thanks to: Braunston Church of England Primary School, Northamptonshire; Francis Askew Primary School, Kingston-upon-Hull; Georgian Gardens Primary School, Rustington; Mill Lane Community Primary School, Oxfordshire; New End Primary School, Camden; Peacehaven Infant School, Brighton; Telscombe Cliffs Community Primary School, Peacehaven; Sonning Common Primary School, Banbury; St Bartholomew's Church of England Primary School, Brighton; St Michaels Church of England Primary School, Oxford; Tetsworth Primary School, Oxfordshire; Wheatley Church of England Primary School, Oxfordshire; Yewtree Primary School, Hertfordshire

The authors and publisher would like to thank all schools and individuals who have helped to trial and review Numicon resources.

www.oxfordprimary.co.uk/numicon

About Numicon

Numicon is a distinctive multi-sensory approach to children's mathematical learning that emphasizes three key aspects of doing mathematics: communicating mathematically, exploring relationships, and generalizing.

Numicon was founded in the daily experience of intelligent children having real difficulty with maths, the frequent underestimation of the complexity of the ideas that young children are asked to face when doing maths and recognition of the importance of maths to them and to society as a whole.

Numicon aims to facilitate children's understanding and enjoyment of maths by using structured imagery that plays to children's strong sense of pattern. This is done through research-based, multi-sensory teaching activities.

Numicon takes into account the complexity of abstract number ideas and seeks to foster the self-belief necessary to achieve in the face of challenge or difficulty.

Through the combination of communicating mathematically (being active, talking and illustrating), exploring relationships and generalizing, children are given the support to structure their experiences: a vital skill for both their mathematical and their overall development.

A multi-sensory approach, particularly one that makes use of structured imagery, provides learners with the opportunity to play to their strengths, thereby releasing their potential to enjoy, understand and achieve in maths. By watching and listening to what children do and say, this enjoyment in achievement is also shared by teachers and parents.

Numicon strives to support teachers' subject knowledge and pedagogy by providing teaching materials, Professional Development and on-going support that will help develop a better understanding of how to encourage all learners in the vital early stages of their own mathematical journey.

Contents

Welcome to Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4

Before you start teaching, we recommend you take some time to familiarize yourself with the Numicon starter apparatus pack B, the teaching resources and the pupil materials to help you and the children get the most out of using Numicon.

Use this Implementation Guide:

- to find out more about what Numicon is
- to find out how using Numicon might affect your teaching of geometry, measurement and statistics
- to learn about the key mathematical ideas children face in the Geometry and Measurement activity groups.

You will find more information, videos, ideas and free resources on the Numicon website: www.oxfordprimary.co.uk/numicon. Here, you can sign up for our newsletter, which includes suggestions for topical mathematics and updates on Numicon.

What's in the Numicon starter apparatus pack B?

The following list of apparatus supports the teaching of Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4. These resources should be used in conjunction with the focus and independent practice activities described in the activity groups.

Apparatus pack contents

- Numicon Shapes – box of 80 (× 2)
- Numicon Coloured Pegs – bag of 80
- Numicon Coloured Counters – bag of 200 (× 2)
- Numicon Baseboard Laminate – set of 3 (× 2)
- Numicon Feely Bag (× 2)
- Numicon 10s Number Line (× 4)
- Numicon 0–1001 Number Line
- Numicon Spinner (× 4)
- Number rods – large set
- Numicon 1–100 cm Number Rod Track (× 3)
- Extra Numicon 10-Shapes – bag of 10 (× 3)
- Extra Numicon 1-Shapes – bag of 20 (× 5)

The following apparatus is not specifically listed for use in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 activities, but should be used freely and as needed to support and extend children's work.

- Numicon 0–100 cm Number Line – set of 3 (× 2)
- Numicon 0–100 Numeral Cards
- Numicon Display Number Line
- Numicon 0–41 Number Rod Number Line
- Numicon 1–100 Card Number Track (× 3)
- Magnetic strip

Numicon Shapes 1

These offer a tactile and visual illustration of number ideas, and are used to support work on transformations, time, money and symmetry in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4.

Numicon Coloured Pegs and Counters 2 3

These red, blue, yellow and green Pegs and Counters are useful for making patterns and arrangements and work on position, direction and movement, and symmetry, on a Baseboard or grid.

Numicon Baseboard Laminate 4

A laminated card version of the Numicon Baseboard, with 100 circles in a square array. The Baseboard provides a defined 'field of action' for work on position, direction and movement, money, and symmetry in particular. Uses include: covering the board with Shapes to make a symmetrical pattern; plotting and reading coordinates marked by Shapes, Pegs and Counters; exploring lines of symmetry in different orientations; and combining Shapes representing money amounts.

Numicon Feely Bag 5

The Feely Bag can be used to generate numbers for use in problems and calculations involving measurement, e.g. by choosing from a selection of number rods or coins in the Bag.

Numicon 10s Number Line 6

This number line shows Numicon 10-Shapes laid horizontally end-to-end and marked with multiples of 10 from 0 to 100. It helps children to develop a 'feel' for the cardinal value of numbers to 100 and connect this to place value.

Numicon 0–1001 Number Line 7

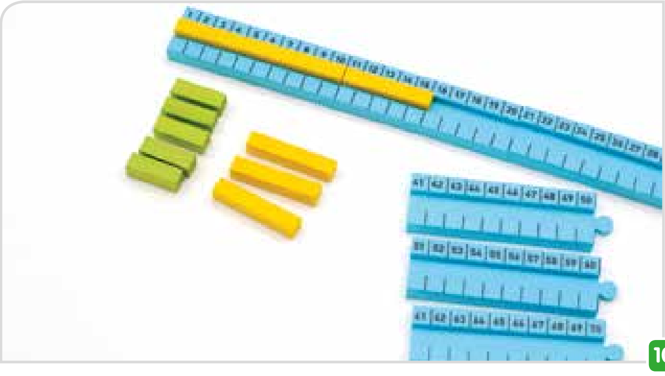
This number line can be used to help support children in making connections between units of measurement where the number 1000 is significant – specifically between millimetres, centimetres and metres; grams and kilograms; and millilitres and litres. It can be displayed as a whole or used in sections.

Numicon 0–100 Numeral Cards 8

The pack of 0–100 Numeral Cards may be used in focus activities, whole-class and independent practice activities and games to generate numbers for children to work with.

Number rods 9

A set of ten coloured rods, 1 cm square in cross-section. The shortest is 1 cm in length, the longest 10 cm. These offer another structured illustration for number. Being centimetre-scaled, they can also be placed along the Numicon 1–100 cm Number Rod Track or 0–100 cm Number Line as a way of measuring length in centimetres.



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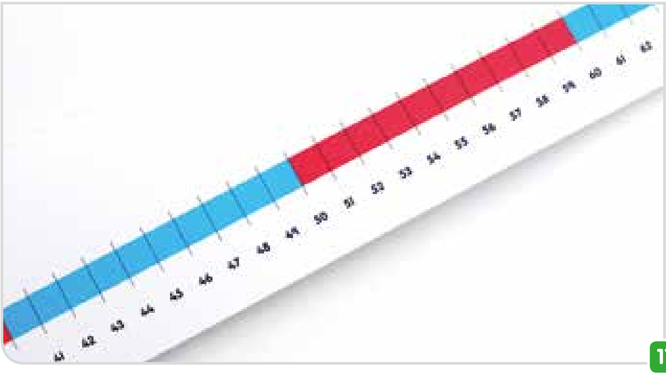

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Numicon 1–100 cm Number Rod Track 10

The 1–100 cm Number Rod Track supports children's use of number rods and measurement work. The decade sections click together into a metre long track, and can also be separated into sections to form an array.

Numicon Spinner

Different overlays (provided as photocopy masters) can be placed on the Numicon Spinner to generate a variety of numbers, coin values, shapes and movement instructions.

Numicon 0–100 cm Number Line 11

The points on this number line are 1 cm apart and are labelled from 0 to 100. The number line is divided into decade sections, distinguished alternately in red and blue, to help children find the '10s' numbers that are such important signposts when they are looking for other numbers. It can also be used with number rods as an alternative to the 1–100 cm Number Rod Track.

Numicon Display Number Line

The Numicon Display Number Line provides a visual reference for children, connecting Numicon Shapes, numerals and number words with the number line.

Numicon 0 – 41 Number Rod Number Line

Similar to the Display Number Line, the Number Rod Number Line supports children in connecting number rods, numerals and number words with the number line.

Numicon 1–100 Card Number Track

This number track is divided into ten strips, numbered 1–10, 11–20, 21–30, and so on. The sections can be arranged end-to-end horizontally or as an array similar to a 100 square. It can be used to support number work in any geometry or measurement context.

Magnetic strip

This self-adhesive magnetic strip can be cut into pieces and stuck onto Numicon Shapes or number rods so that they can be used on a magnetic whiteboard.

Available separately

Numicon Software for the Interactive Whiteboard 12

This rich interactive tool is designed for use with the whole class to introduce key mathematical ideas. It includes: number lines featuring the Numicon Shapes, the Numicon Pan Balance, shapes, coins, Numicon Spinners and much more.

Individual sets of Numicon Shapes 1–10

Designed for multi-sensory, whole-class lessons where each child has their own set of Shapes and is encouraged to engage with them. In Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 children can use them for support in handling numbers as part of measurement work, and they are especially useful for working with money – helping children to link each note or coin with its value in pounds or pence – and on symmetry – helping children to recognize and explain symmetry in terms of 'balance'. They can also be used in conjunction with the *Numicon Software for the Interactive Whiteboard* to help teachers assess children's individual responses.

Numicon Pan Balance 13

Using Numicon Shapes, number rods or other objects in this adjustable Pan Balance (which also features on the *Numicon Software for the Interactive Whiteboard*) enables children to

see equivalent combinations. In particular this helps them to understand that the = symbol means 'is of equal value to' and avoid the misunderstanding that it is an instruction to do something. Children can easily see what is in the transparent pans, making the Pan Balance especially useful for comparing quantities as part of measurement work. It can also be used, in the same way as any bucket balance, to explore mass.

Other equipment recommended for the teaching of geometry and measurement

The activities in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 also make use of other resources which are typically found in classrooms and widely available from suppliers. Resources which are particularly useful for geometry and measurement activities are described in more detail here. Other more generally useful items, such as sorting equipment, base-ten apparatus, interlocking cubes, string, squared paper and so on, are highlighted in the '**Have ready**' sections of the focus and practice activities.

Pattern blocks 14

Pattern blocks are a size-matched set of shapes which children can use flexibly to explore and understand the parts and properties of shapes. They can be used to create patterns and pictures, as well as to investigate, e.g. how shapes can be combined to build other shapes or make tessellations, or to make repeating sequences or symmetrical designs. It is recommended that those with a side length of 2·5 cm are used.

Geo strips and connectors 15

By connecting geo strips – flexible, punched strips of various lengths – children can make, alter and remake shapes for themselves, helping them to link the physical, variable properties of their models to concepts of space, line, angle and shape.

Photocopy masters 15 and 16 provide a cut-out template for making geo strips, which can be laminated for durability and used with paper fasteners.

Geoboards and elastic bands 16

Stretching an elastic band around the pegs on a geoboard is a quick and simple way for children to make and alter shapes, allowing them to explore a variety of geometric concepts, including angles, symmetry, area and perimeter, transformations and coordinates, among others. Children's ideas and results can also be recorded onto matching 'dot' paper, making the geoboard a useful investigative tool.

A number of types of geoboard are available, the most common of which has a square grid of pegs. Others have an 'isometric' arrangement, which can be used to illustrate equilateral triangles and a wide variety of 3D shapes. Note that isometric 'dot' paper can be used for recording in this instance.

Geometric shapes 17

Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 places particular emphasis on children making and drawing a wide variety of flat 2D shapes, especially triangles and quadrilaterals, and hence exploring and considering these for themselves in detail. In addition to the items for creating 2D shapes already mentioned – geo strips and connectors, geoboards and elastic bands, squared and isometric 'dot' paper – children might also use things like pipe cleaners, modelling sticks or straws and modelling dough as well as graphics software. Provide access to a wide variety of resources to allow them to follow their preferences.

Images and examples of a variety of geometric shapes should also be available for children to look at, handle and talk about, ensuring that they gain broad experience and maintain fluency in naming and describing the different types. Provide flat, 2D shapes ranging across both non-polygons (circles, semicircles and ovals, as well as, for example, crescents, heart shapes, cloud shapes, shapes with rounded corners) and polygons (regular and irregular, including rectilinear shapes).

Similarly, provide solid, 3D shapes to illustrate both non-polyhedra – spheres, hemispheres, spheroids (rugby ball or 'squashed sphere' shapes), cones, cylinders, toruses (doughnut or tyre shapes) – and polyhedra, including the Platonic solids (the tetrahedron, cube, octahedron, dodecahedron and icosahedron) and a range of different prisms and pyramids.

Images and objects illustrating the use of shape in everyday life, in a variety of sizes, forms and contexts, can also be provided, to encourage children to further expand their understanding and appreciation.

Programmable robots

A number of different programmable floor robots for classroom use are available. These require the user to enter a series of instructions, typically for turns and straight-line movements, which they then follow to complete a journey around the floor. They represent a practical and appealing context for demonstrating, thinking about and experimenting with position, direction and movement, angles and turns, and measurement, among other topics, as well as for problem solving and logical thinking more generally. They are also a means of encouraging children to begin making links between mathematics and ICT and of approaching the idea of programming. Opportunities for their use are highlighted in the focus and practice activities.

Clocks

Clocks, clock faces and clock images are used to help children learn about time measurement and telling the time. In Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 children tell the time to the nearest minute on an analogue clock and are introduced to the 24-hour clock.

As well as telling time in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 children also explore different units of time – seconds, minutes, hours and days – and solve problems involving timetables and timelines. Pictures and examples of a variety of different types and designs of calendars, clocks, watches and timers are helpful in encouraging children to consider similarities and differences and ultimately to generalize their skills in telling and measuring time.

Items and materials for measuring; measuring instruments

In Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4, children use standard units of measurement for length, mass and capacity: millimetres, centimetres and metres, kilograms and grams, and litres and millilitres. They are also introduced to kilometres and units of area and begin to work with decimal notation.

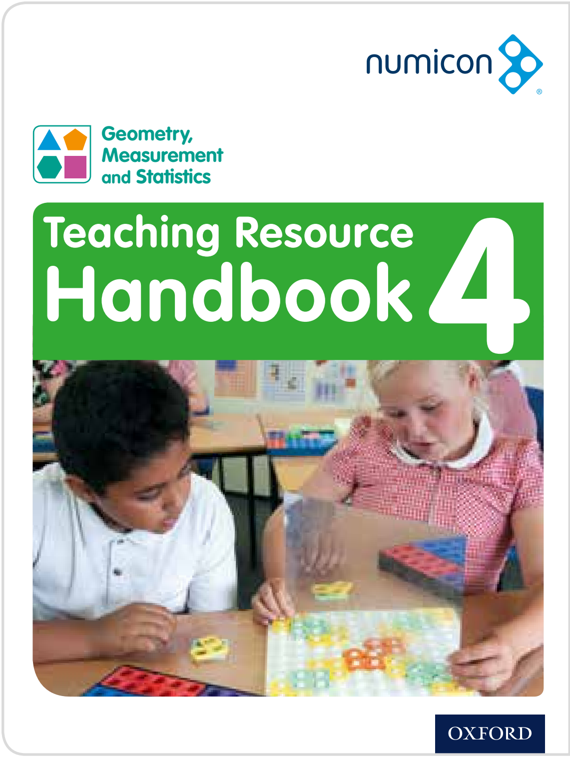
In Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 2 children began working with centimetres using number rods (the 1-rod being 1 cm in length). This learning is revisited in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 3 and 4 as they learn about and consolidate their understanding of perimeter and go on to consider area. They also make use of cm-squared paper and centimetre rulers.

Children also consider distance and make use of metre sticks or rulers, string, short tape-measures (of the type used for dressmaking), long tape-measures (of the type used for DIY or construction) and trundle wheels. For practising with decimal notation, it is useful to have a metre stick with decimal labels, or a 1 m number line labelled in this way.

As part of their work on mass, children investigate airline baggage allowances. Digital scales reading in kilograms with decimal notation, such as electronic bathroom scales, are ideal for this. A selection of packed bags (or of objects representing these, such as boxes or bags of books) is also needed.

The activities exploring capacity make use of water, and children will therefore need access to a suitable space in which to work with water and a water supply along with other water-handling equipment, as appropriate e.g. buckets, water trays, funnels and protective clothing. An alternative, however, is to use dry materials which pour, such as sand or rice. Measuring vessels are also needed along with containers with a variety of capacities, including, if possible, 25, 50, 100, 300 and 500 ml, and 1 ℓ.

In general, it can be useful to present children with measuring instruments which vary in form and appearance – in the design and materials used, as well as the interval marks and labels on the scales. This will help to reinforce children's understanding of units and the relationships between them; to see that, while the appearance of rulers, tape measures, metre sticks, trundle wheels and so forth varies, the centimetres they show are all the same length. If possible, provide a variety of examples and images of measuring instruments to help broaden children's experience.



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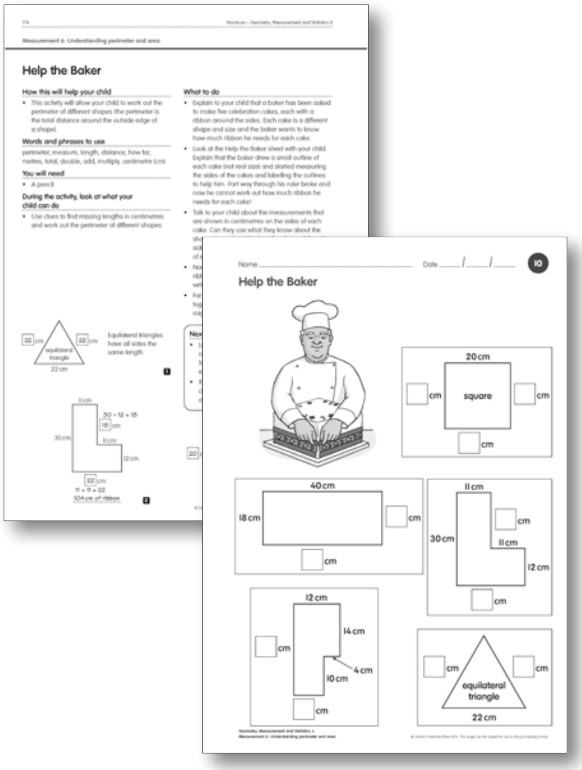

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What's in the Numicon teaching resources?

Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook 18

This contains 10 activity groups clearly set out and supported by illustrations. Each activity group begins with the educational context, learning opportunities, assessment opportunities and important mathematical vocabulary. To support teachers' assessing of children, there are notes on what to 'look and listen' for as children work on the activities, as well as suggestions for whole-class and independent practice. Photocopy masters supporting the activity groups are included at the back of the *Teaching Resource Handbook*.

Support for planning and assessment is included in the front of the handbook. There, you will find:

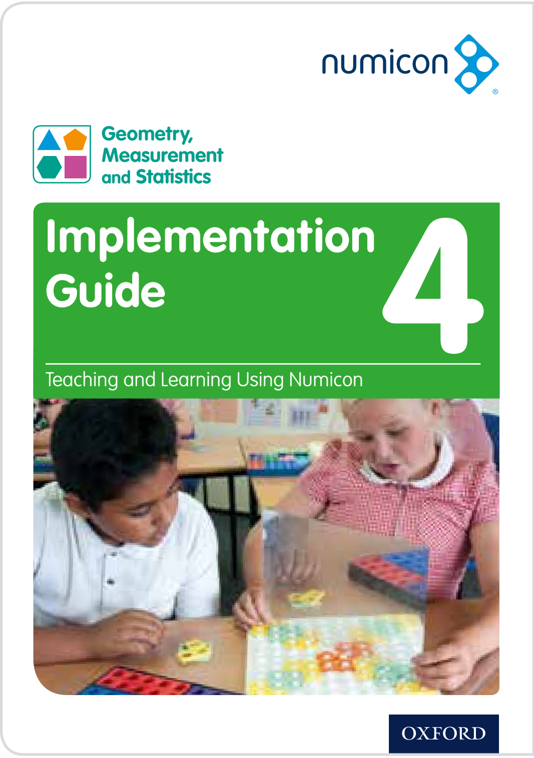
- information on how to use the Numicon teaching materials and the physical resources
- long- and medium-term planning charts that show the recommended progression through the activity groups
- an overview of the activity groups.

Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Explore More Copymasters (provided in the Teaching Resource Handbook) 19

The Explore More Copymasters offer children the chance to practise and discuss mathematics at home with a parent or carer. An activity has been included for each activity group so that children have ongoing opportunities to practise their mathematics learning outside of the classroom.

Each activity is supported by information for the parent or carer on the mathematics that has been learned in class beforehand and the learning point of the activity itself. Guidance on how to complete the activity is included, as well as a suggestion about how to make the activity more challenging or how to further develop the activity in a real-life situation.

The Explore More Copymasters can be given to an adult or child as a photocopied resource.



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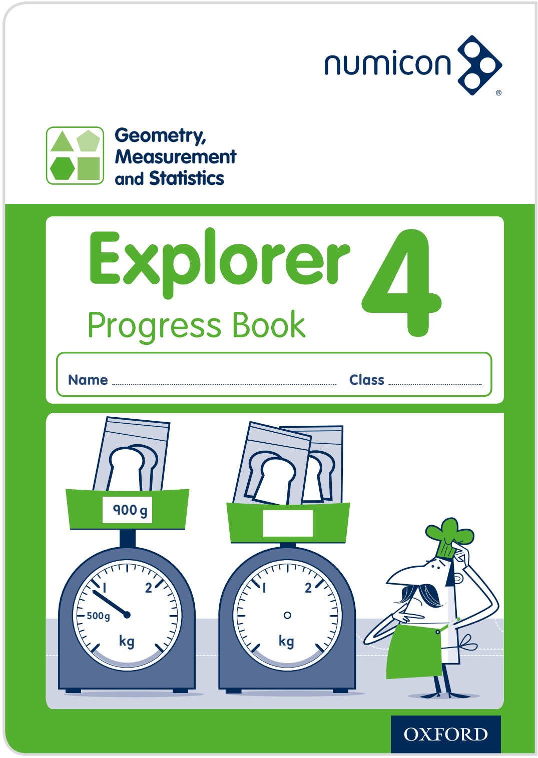

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Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Implementation Guide 20

This introduces what Numicon is and how Numicon helps children meet the demands of learning mathematics. It also includes some practical advice about what to do when preparing to teach with Numicon and answers some key questions about how to use Numicon in practice. The chapters on 'Key mathematical ideas' provide useful explanations of the important concepts children will meet in the 10 activity groups of the Teaching Resource Handbook and how these ideas develop when teaching with Numicon.

The different sections of the Implementation Guide can be accessed as and when necessary to help you with your teaching.

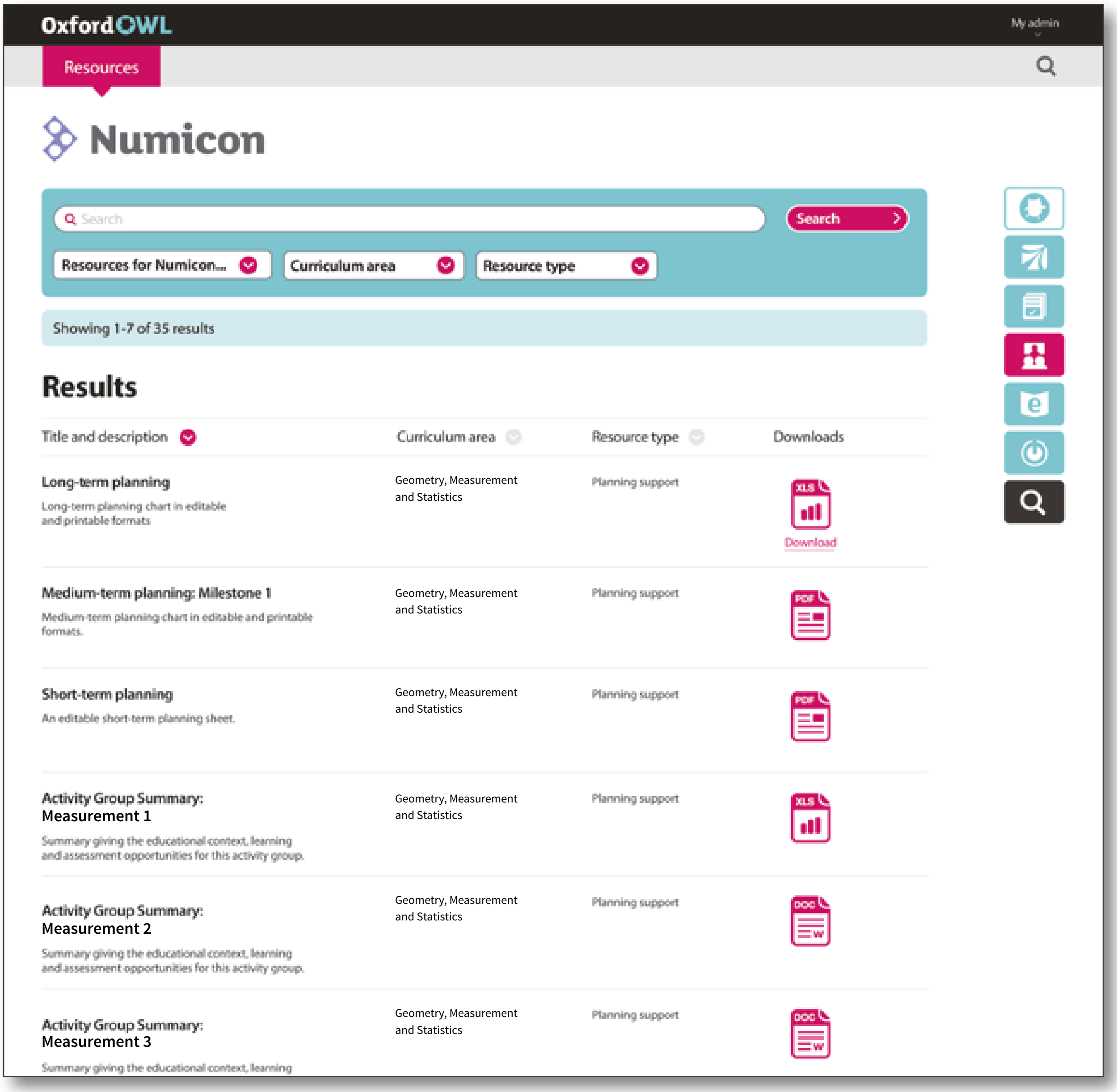
Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Explorer Progress Book 21

The Explorer Progress Book offers children the chance to try out the mathematics they have been learning in each activity group. Through their responses, teachers will be able to assess what progress individual children are making with the central ideas. It should be stressed that the challenges in the Explorer Progress Book are not tests. There are no pass or fail criteria; the challenges are simply designed to reveal how well children can use the mathematics they have been learning in new situations.

Being able to use mathematics in an unfamiliar situation is a significant indicator of children's understanding. Many of the tasks set mathematics in a new or different context and, where possible, the challenges are set in an 'open' way, inviting children to show how they can reason with the ideas involved rather than testing whether they have learned a routine solution to routine tasks.

As with children's classroom activity work, a range of apparatus should be freely available to children as they reason with the ideas in their Explorer Progress Book.

In addition, there is also scope for self-assessment. This can be used flexibly, or to summarize learning at the end of a block of work.



Numicon Planning and Assessment Support

The Numicon Planning and Assessment Support is designed to be used flexibly within schools' own planning formats. Within the support you will find short videos introducing Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 and offering advice that will help you get started with teaching using Numicon.

There is also an editable summary of each activity group, including the title and number of the group, the educational context, learning opportunities, assessment opportunities, and the mathematical words and terms to be used with children as they work on the activities. There are suggestions for how to use these activity group summaries in your planning, as well as editable short-, medium- and long-term planning frames.

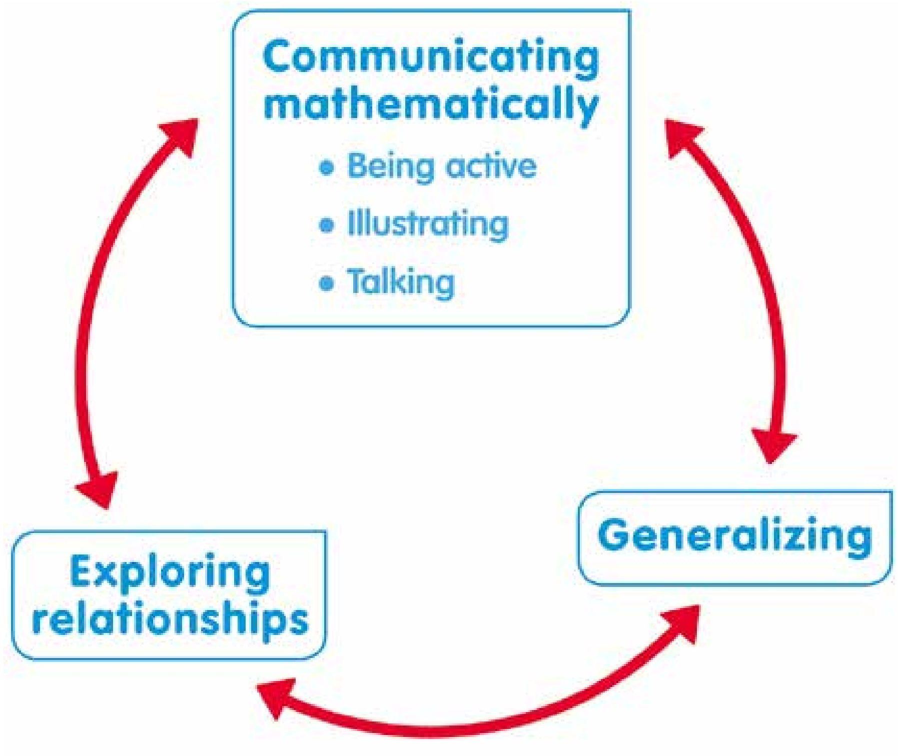
Assessment grids that support monitoring of children's work on the Explorer Progress Book and editable versions of the milestones for assessing children's progress are also available.

Charts that map Numicon to the English, Welsh, Scottish and Northern Irish curricula have been included in these resources, as have charts showing the progression of the Numicon teaching programme across Number, Pattern and Calculating and Geometry, Measurement and Statistics.

What is Numicon?

In order to illustrate how using Numicon in your teaching can help children learn mathematics, this section looks at:

- what Numicon is
- what doing mathematics demands of children
- how using Numicon helps children meet these unique demands.



What is Numicon?

Numicon is a distinctive approach to children's mathematical learning that emphasizes three key aspects of doing mathematics: communicating mathematically, exploring relationships, and generalizing.

Communicating mathematically

Doing mathematics involves communicating and thinking mathematically – and these are two sides of the same coin. We think in the same ways that we communicate, and communicate in the same ways that we think. As children learn to communicate mathematically, they learn to think mathematically. This involves them in the following:

Being active: Teaching and learning with Numicon requires children to be active. This does not only mean being physically active (e.g. fitting physical objects together, finding a number on a number line, drawing a shape), but is a requirement reflecting the understanding that mathematics itself is activity: mathematics is something children are learning to *do*.

What this means in practice is that it is always children themselves who are to do the mathematics. Telling children (or showing, or explaining) 'what to do' can encourage children to be passive. Numicon asks that children do the mathematics (that is both the activity and the thinking). In other words, children actively learn to do mathematics for themselves.

Illustrating: Doing mathematics (that is thinking and communicating mathematically) necessarily involves illustrating, because mathematics is about studying relationships between objects, actions and measures, and it is impossible to explore such relationships without some kind of spatial imagery being involved. Even when thinking about just two numbers, one of them 'comes after' the other one on a number line or is said to be 'bigger' or 'higher'; these relations all involve spatial imagery.

Numicon explicitly involves illustrating in every activity. This is how relationships in a wide variety of contexts are both explored and communicated.

Talking: Since doing mathematics involves communicating mathematically (both with others and with ourselves), doing mathematics also involves talking. Talking is an essential aspect of all Numicon activity.

Throughout Numicon, talking means dialogue in which points of view are exchanged between teachers and children, and between children and children. All partners in dialogue will be actively involved, not just passively hearing, or waiting to speak. Such exchanges encourage reflective thinking as children learn to discuss different points of view, both with others and with themselves.

Exploring relationships (in a variety of contexts)

Doing mathematics involves **exploring relationships** (that is the structure) in any situation in order to develop some kind of control in that area. Relationships can be between amounts, between positions, between shapes, between things that are varying, between things that are constant, or between combinations of all of these things. Fully understanding the relationships in a situation makes it predictable, thus making it possible to find out and/or manage what is needed. The mathematical reasoning children are asked to do is their expression of relationships they perceive.

Numicon ensures that children explore the relationships within a wide range of contexts so that they learn not only *how* to do mathematics, but *when* the mathematics they are learning is useful.

Generalizing

In doing mathematics, exploring relationships and looking for patterns in various situations lead to **generalizing**. It is generalizing that allows us to make whole ranges of new situations predictable.

Numbers are generalizations that we all use to make predictions when calculating. For example, the '6', '2' and '8' in the number sentence '6 + 2 = 8' are generalizations; 6 of anything and 2 of anything, will together always make 8 things, whatever they are.

'The angles of a triangle add up to 180°' is a generalization that is often used when doing geometry; 'the area of a circle is 'πr^2' is another that is used when measuring.

In each of these cases, noticing patterns in relationships allows us to generalize about an infinite number of other, similar situations.

It is because we make and use generalizations continually as we do mathematics that mathematical thinking and communicating will appear to have an abstract character for children if they are not involved in doing the generalizing for themselves.

Communicating mathematically, **exploring relationships** and **generalizing** all come together when *doing* mathematics.

What doing mathematics demands of children

In learning to do mathematics at the age they are asked to, children face a unique challenge in their school curriculum: thinking and communicating about abstract objects.

Pure numbers, such as 6 and 254, are abstract objects and in no other subject are children asked to work with and reason about such things so early. It is not surprising that children can hesitate, be puzzled, get stuck, or take time to work things out for themselves.

Most mathematicians will say that doing mathematics is about looking for patterns in situations. It is, but there is more to it than that. When you find a pattern, it means you have noticed something regular, something that always seems to be happening, and this means that any pattern you see is a generalization of yours. Mathematics deals almost entirely in generalizations.

Which is what numbers are: as generalizations, they are abstract objects. Very early on in mathematics, young children are asked to do things with lots of abstract objects, like those we call '3', and 'ten'. Not '3 pens', or 'ten sweets', or '3 friends'. Just '3', or, even more curiously, the two-digit '10' by itself. Notice how quickly children are asked to add and subtract these abstract objects to and from each other. There are high expectations of every child from the very beginning in mathematics.

The central problem: communicating with, and about, abstract objects

How is it possible to communicate about abstract objects? And, since thinking is communicating with ourselves, how is it possible to *think* about abstract objects?

Notice that 'abstract' does not mean 'imaginary'. We can easily picture imaginary things, such as unicorns and beings from outer space, but abstract things are different. Abstract things include qualities like 'truth', 'intelligence', 'common sense', as well as generalizations such as '6 of anything'. The problem is, as soon as you try to picture '6 of anything', you find you are imagining '6 of something'.

The answer, as Bruner observed, is that we think about abstract objects with symbols; in the case of numbers, we do it with numerals.

The important thing about symbols is that they do not attempt to show literally what is being talked about; they are simply arbitrary, conventional marks on a page (or spoken words). When what we are communicating about with these symbols is abstract, that absence of a picture is inevitable; how could we possibly picture something that is abstract?

It is easy to picture '3 pens' or 'ten friends', but what might the abstract '3' look like? Or, how about the curious two-digit '10'? Since numerals do not look like the abstract things they 'stand for', how are children to learn to interpret such arbitrary symbols in their thinking and communicating? Doing mathematics – thinking and communicating about abstract things with symbols – is certainly not easy for young children.

How does Numicon help?

Essentially, Numicon does two things. Firstly, Numicon acknowledges that in order to understand what numbers are, children have to generalize. Secondly, Numicon follows Bruner's advice in using children's actions and imagery to prepare for their use of mathematical symbols in their thinking and communicating. In practice, these two things are done at the same time.

In Bruner's terms, *enactive* and *iconic* representations (action and imagery) are used to inform children's interpretation of the *symbolic* representation (e.g. numerals) that is necessary for communicating their pattern spotting (generalizing). To aid children's necessary generalizing, strong focus is placed upon the use of structured materials.

Generalizing and reasoning – an early years example of teaching with Numicon

Initially, in common with most teaching, Numicon involves a wide variety of everyday objects (such as beads, cubes, pegs and counters, see Fig 1) in order to help children develop their counting, before then introducing the challenges of calculating.

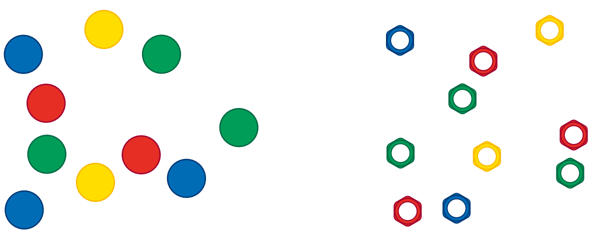
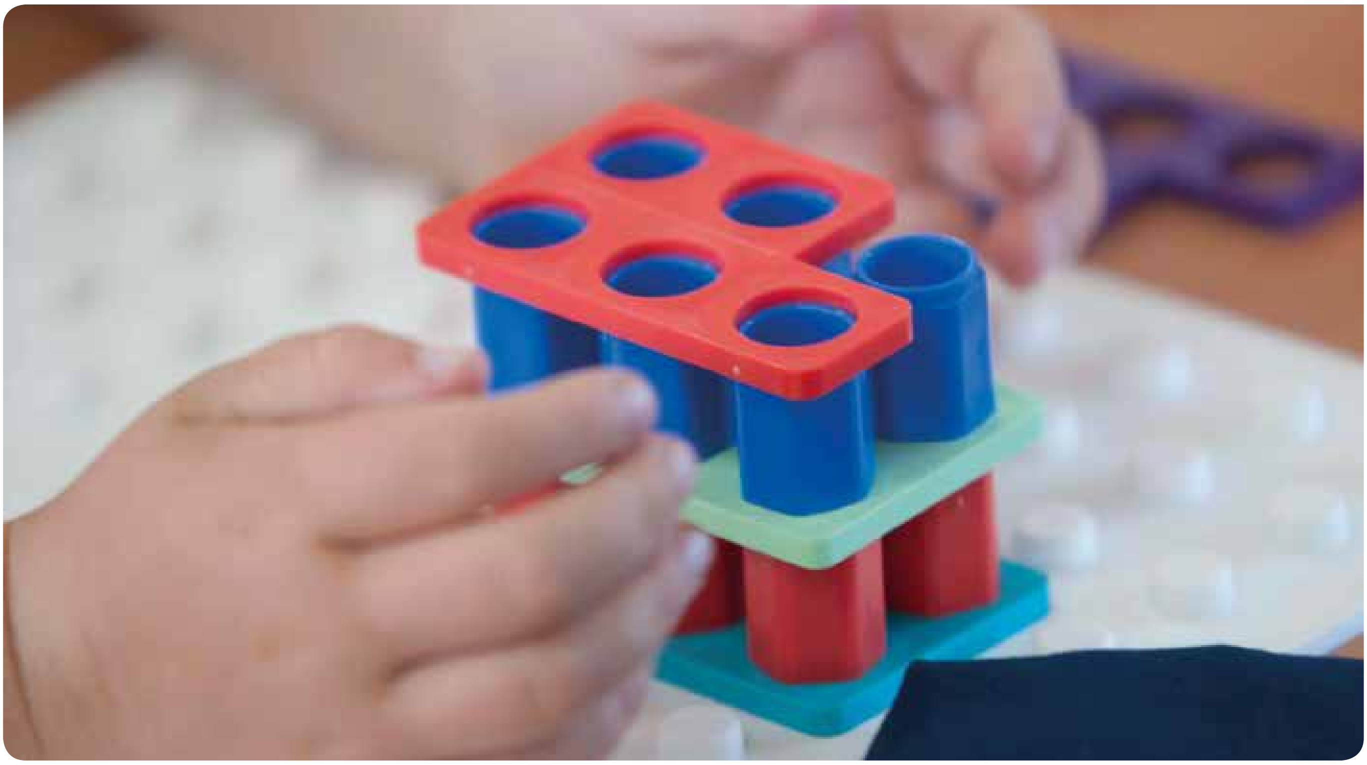


Fig 1



Importantly, Numicon also introduces sets of structured materials in which individual pieces have *regular* physical relationships with each other, for example, Numicon Shapes and number rods, see Fig 2. Children explore the physical relationships within these structured materials by, for example, ordering pieces, comparing them, combining them physically to make others.

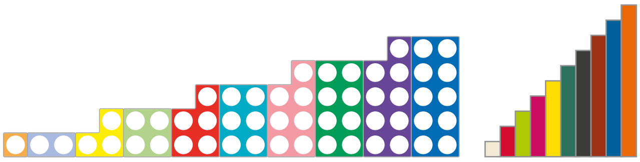


Fig 2

Thus, as children work with loose collections (beads, cubes) and with structured materials (Numicon Shapes and number rods), they are able to combine being active with physical objects and images as illustrations in their talking and thinking about numbers of things.

Numerals are introduced in association with loose collections of objects and with structured materials as children work; thus, symbolic representation appears alongside children's ongoing action and imagery with physical objects.

Number lines (e.g. Fig 3) are introduced to further illustrate the ordering that is evident within the structured materials, and to reinforce the associated ordering of numerals.

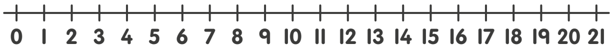


Fig 3

Importantly, loose collections of objects are arranged into the regular patterns of the Numicon Shapes; individual number rods are found to be equivalent in length to different multiples of the smallest 'unit' rod (e.g. Fig 4).

Fig 4

Through doing these activities, children learn that *any* collection of loose objects can be arranged into Numicon Shape patterns that can then be 'read'. Children learn to 'see' how many objects are in a collection without counting; numbers of things begin to 'take shape' visually, in organized ways.

It is now possible to prepare children for further generalizing about numbers through exploring relationships between numbers of things. Children's mathematical thinking and communicating continue to develop through their being active with the objects they are given, and in illustrating their talking about what they see and do.

Children generalize that any collection of loose objects can be arranged into Numicon Shape patterns. They also generalize that any number of 'unit' number rods may be exchanged for (will be 'as long as') one or more of the larger number rods. Thus *any* number of loose objects can be converted into (is equivalent to) one or more Numicon Shapes or number rods.

In realizing that any collection of loose objects can be arranged into Numicon Shape patterns, and that any number of unit

cubes is equivalent to one or more number rods, children become able to 'see the general' in any particular illustration; Numicon Shapes and number rods can be used to illustrate, in an organized way, any numbers of any kinds of things.

Numicon Shapes and number rods themselves may now be used to explore and to communicate about number relationships in general. They have become communication mediators in discussions about numbers and their relationships.

As a particular example, the Numicon Shape that has three holes fits together physically with the Shape that has five holes. The result 'forms the same shape as' (is equivalent to) the Shape that has eight holes, see Fig 5.

Similarly, the number rod worth three units, combined end-to-end with the rod worth five units, are together as long as the rod worth eight units, see Fig 6.

When laid end-to-end along a number line or number track, the '3 rod' and the '5 rod' together reach the position marked '8' on the line.

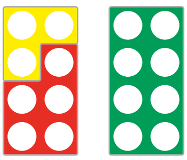


Fig 5

Fig 6

From these actions, and with these illustrations, children are able to generalize that: three *anythings* and five *anythings* together will *always* make eight things.

This generalization can be expressed using the numeric and verbal symbols: 3 and 5 together are equivalent to 8.

Later on, using further actions and further illustrations, children become able to interpret and use the further symbols '+' and '=' to express their generalization thus:

$$3 + 5 = 8$$

Importantly, at this stage children will have begun to use number words (one, two, three) as *nouns* instead of as adjectives (two sweets, three pencils) in their talking.

With their use of number words as nouns, numbers as *abstract objects* have now appeared in children's mathematical thinking and communicating, referred to with *symbols*.

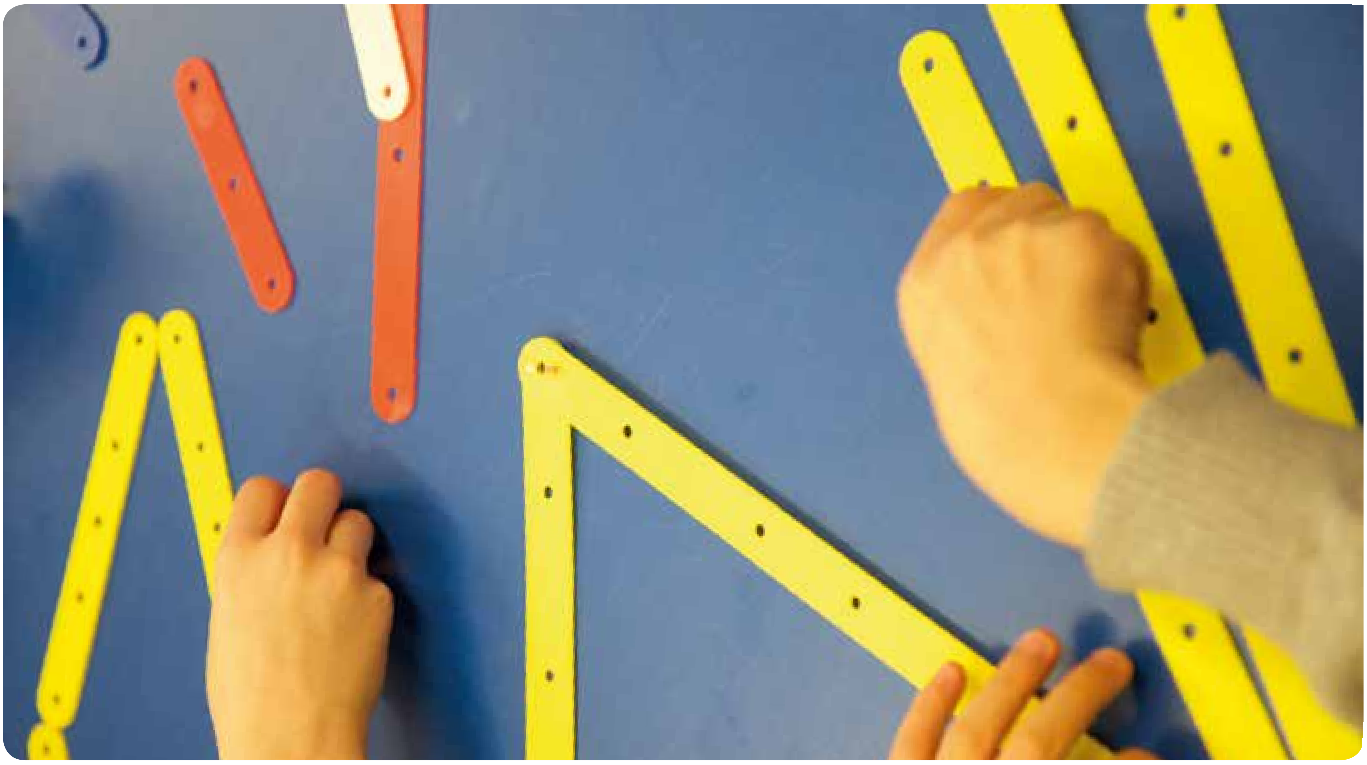
Such generalizing and use of symbols can now be exploited further. If 'three of *anything*' and 'five of *anything*' together always make 'eight *things*', then:

3 tens + 5 tens = 8 tens
3 hundreds + 5 hundreds = 8 hundreds
3 millions + 5 millions = 8 millions

or

$$30 + 50 = 80$$
$$300 + 500 = 800$$
$$3{,}000{,}000 + 5{,}000{,}000 = 8{,}000{,}000$$

Such is the power of generalizations, and of the symbolic notation that children can by this stage use to think and communicate mathematically about them.



Progressing from such early beginnings

The foregoing example also illustrates how Numicon supports the teaching of children's subsequent mathematics.

In a wide variety of contexts, children are offered opportunities to be active and to illustrate their talking about any (and all) relationships they are exploring between both physical and abstract objects. They do this in order that they may generalize and, as a consequence, think and communicate about their generalizations with the conventional symbols of mathematics: in other words, that they may *do* mathematics.

Of course, there is much more beyond this first example. Children have many other relationships to explore, further generalizing to do, and thus many more conventional symbols to learn to interpret and use. However, wherever it is used, the approach is essentially the same. *Enactive* and *iconic* representation are used to inform children's interpretation of the *symbolic* representation that is necessary for thinking and communicating about their constantly developing pattern spotting (generalizing).

The going gets harder as children progress in their number work: place value, ratios, fractions, decimals and negative numbers will all challenge children's capacity to generalize onwards from these early beginnings. However, such advanced work is equally possible with the same approach of actions and illustrations building towards generalizing, and a consequent use of symbols to think and communicate about the generalized, abstract mathematical objects created. This is how the symbolism of mathematics becomes meaningful.

In their work on geometry, the generalizations that children reach in their mathematical thinking and communicating happen more gradually as they progress towards being able to reason about invented abstract objects such as 'any triangle' and (later) 'any polygon'.

It is impossible to draw the abstract object 'any triangle' in the same way that it is impossible to imagine 'six of anything'. As soon as you draw a triangle, however you have chosen to draw it, you have drawn a particular one; it does not matter whether you draw one that is right-angled, isosceles, equilateral, or scalene, what you have drawn is not a general triangle – it is a particular one, e.g. Fig 7.

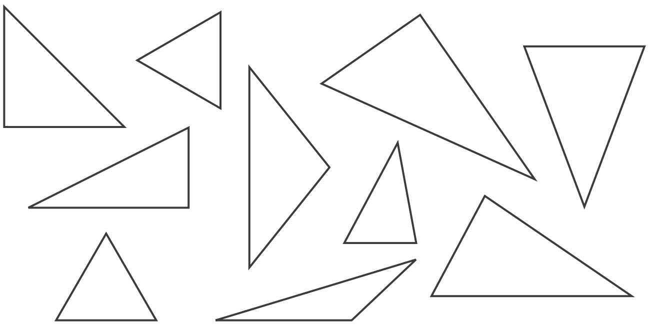


Fig 7

However, as with generalizing about numbers, in doing geometry, much exploring of relationships with action and imagery (enactive and iconic representation) prepares children for reasoning meaningfully about 'any triangle' with symbolic representation (words and symbols).

In this example, as children physically construct and transform many varieties of triangles with dynamic materials, what they see before their eyes is how lengths of sides may vary endlessly as angles change, how angles may vary endlessly as lengths change and yet, despite all the variety they see, the shapes they are creating all turn out to be triangles.

Dynamic mental imagery deriving from these physical experiences then allows children to speak and to think of 'any triangle' as they imagine an infinitely flexible closed 2D shape with three straight sides.

By stressing the straightness of the sides, that there are always exactly three sides and that the sides fit together to 'close' the shapes they make, and by ignoring the constantly changing lengths of sides and sizes of angles, children become able to imagine 'any triangle' and to reason about it with words and symbols.

Then, having generalized to a stage when their mental imagery allows them to imagine and speak meaningfully about 'any triangle', children are in a position to further generalize that, for example, 'the angles of any triangle add up to 180°' through further action, imagery and reasoning with symbols.

In the same way that generalizing about numbers is approached, exploring relationships with action and imagery in geometry prepares children for reasoning meaningfully about abstract mathematical objects with symbols.

We reach all the generalizations of mathematics, and the symbols we use to express them, through being active and illustrating our talking about the relationships we are exploring.

Doing mathematics in the world – solving problems

Of course, *doing* mathematics in the everyday world is not simply about making generalizations and using symbols. Crucially, it also involves making *use* of generalizations to solve problems in particular situations.

For example, the generalization '4 x 25 = 100' allows us to predict that the perimeter of a square of side 25 cm will be 100 cm, that the area of a field measuring 4 m by 25 m will be 100 m^2, and that if you save £25 a week for four weeks you will have £100. It can also be very useful to help calculate that:

$$36 \times 25 = (9 \times 4) \times 25 = 9 \times (4 \times 25) = 900$$

Children need to be able to readily connect the generalizing that they do with mathematical symbols with everyday world situations in which those generalizations are useful.

In their more general problem solving, children learning, for example, *how* to divide one number by another, need to learn *when* that operation is useful.

The Numicon teaching materials organize activities into groups based around mathematical themes, such as 'Understanding reflective symmetry' or 'Distance'.

In the activity group titled 'Understanding reflective symmetry' (Geometry 2), children begin by looking at images of ships, boats or aeroplanes viewed from directly above or below. They are encouraged to appreciate the role of symmetry in the designs in terms of balance and movement and to think of similar instances of symmetry (or asymmetry) affecting movement, such as a tightrope walker holding a long pole in the middle or a motorcyclist shifting their weight in order to turn a corner. They link this idea of 'balance' with symmetrical patterns made by covering the Numicon Baseboard with

Shapes, recognizing that the value of the Shapes on either side of the line of symmetry is the same.

In the activity group titled 'Understanding and using units of length and distance' (Measurement 3), children are introduced to the use of decimal notation in length measurement in the practical context of measuring distances thrown or jumped in athletics field events. There is also an opportunity here to introduce to children the idea of 'error', in the mathematical sense of the amount of variation in measurements.

In these ways, children's mathematics is introduced, wherever possible, within contexts in which that mathematics is useful. Such contexts help children to 'see the point' of the mathematics they are learning, and prevent mathematics becoming a series of answers to problems they have never had.

Flexibility, fluency, and persistence

Being able to do mathematics effectively also includes being able to remember basic things such as those generalizations known as 'times tables' and number 'facts'. There are many practice activities built into the Numicon written materials that encourage children to develop a regular familiarity with basic facts.

Even more important to effective functioning is flexibility in mathematical thinking and communicating. Three kinds of flexibility are especially useful.

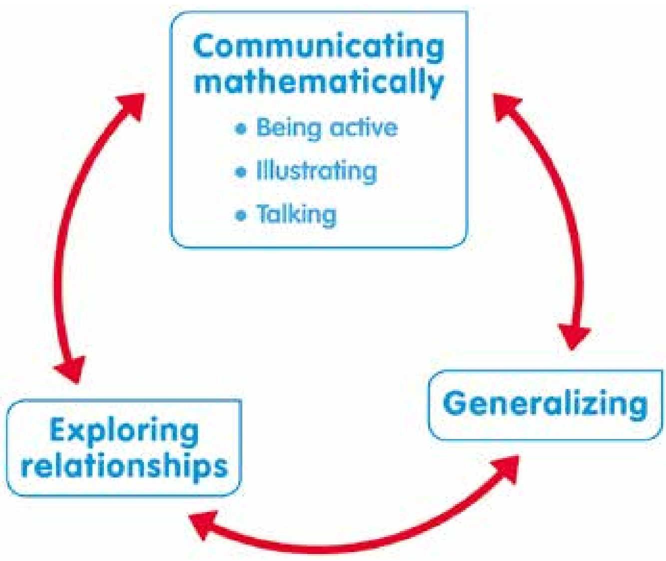
Through being active, children are able to 'invert' their actions; put more simply, this is about 'doing and undoing'. As children have found 'how many' objects there are in a collection by physically grouping them into tens (and hundreds), they are later readily able to 'partition' numbers ('undo' their groupings) when calculating with symbols. As children can combine and separate Numicon Shapes and number rods physically ('do' and 'undo' their actions), they are able to connect adding and subtracting as inverse operations and to check a subtracting calculation by adding.

The introducing and encouraging of a variety of ways of calculating means that children are able to choose methods of calculating that suit the particular numbers involved, rather than adopting a standard method for any calculation. Who would want to subtract 1998 from 4673 using a column method, just because the numbers are big?

As Numicon approaches children's use of mathematical symbols with prior actions and imagery, if children become 'stuck' or hesitant while working with symbols, it is always possible for them to recall and return to the supporting activity and illustration from which their original generalizing arose. For example, if they are working on prime numbers, using symbols, they can immediately return to actively illustrating how factors 'go into' their various multiples physically with Numicon Shapes and with number rods. They can follow a similar pattern with any other kind of number relationship. This flexibility is one of movement backwards and forwards between Bruner's *enactive*, *iconic* and *symbolic* forms of representation in their thinking and communicating.

Finally, because Numicon continuously emphasizes communicating mathematically, it is possible to stress to children that all is not lost when they feel 'stuck'. The thing to do, always, when they 'don't know what to do' in a situation is to communicate.

Being active, illustrating and talking about the relationships we are exploring *is* doing mathematics. Persistence – an invaluable quality when doing mathematics – comes from continuing to communicate, with yourself and/or with others, whenever (for the moment) you cannot see where you are going.




your
help

Preparing to teach with Numicon

This section is designed to support you with practical suggestions in response to questions about how to get started with Numicon in your daily mathematics teaching. It also contains useful suggestions on how to plan using the long- and medium-term planning charts as well as information on how to assess children's progress using the Numicon materials.

When getting started with Numicon, as well as reading this section, it can be helpful to refer to the suggested teaching progression in the programme of Numicon activities. This, along with the long- and medium- term planning charts, can be found in the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook.*

How might using Numicon affect my mathematics teaching?

There will be a continual emphasis on communicating mathematically. Once involved in this communication process, children become active, in the sense that they become engaged in 'doing' maths for themselves. They begin to reflect on different points of view and to develop the imagery required to communicate mathematically, as well as the ability to illustrate their ideas.

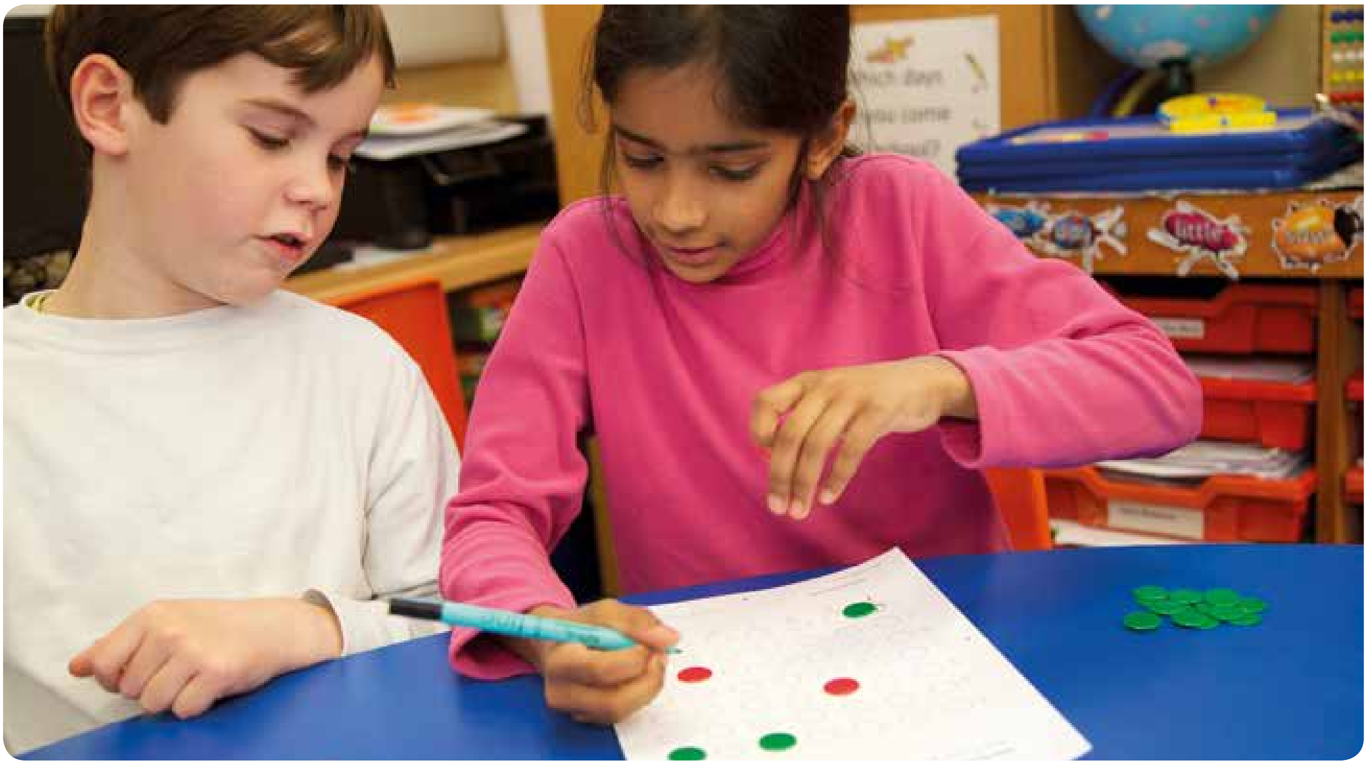
For geometry and measurement, this imagery and illustration has a particularly active, practical foundation. Children develop and refine their thinking about shape, space and size through physical exploration – through making, comparing and manipulating objects. In their work on measurement, for example, they might consider how the appearance of a fixed length, say 1 metre, changes as they move around and view it from different angles, while in geometry they might learn about the relationship between a rhombus and a square by making a rhombus with geo strips and pushing or pulling its corners until it forms a square. In this sense, an appreciation of the role of the senses, and dexterity and precision of movement are further aspects of their skill in mathematical communication. As this communication becomes established as part of the culture of the classroom, children will increasingly join in conversations with you and their classmates. Maths lessons will develop into dialogue with ready use of imagery to illustrate ideas. A sense of shared endeavour will emerge as children solve problems through communication and persistence. So, when children feel 'stuck', they will know that the thing to do is to talk about it, to try to explain what the difficulty seems to be and to use illustrations and actions to express the problem. Careful questioning can encourage children to really think about 'difficulty' and to arrive at solutions gradually.

As the focus on mathematical communicating grows, you may become more aware of the words and terms you use in your teaching, and there is a particular emphasis on mathematical vocabulary in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4. It is important to use words and terms consistently. Try to encourage other adults in your class – and throughout the school – to use mathematical language consistently. Listen out for children using the same words and imagery to explain their ideas, though to start with they may use them only hesitantly.

In their work on geometry, for instance, children are introduced to the mathematical names for different types of triangle and quadrilateral through their exploration of the parts and properties of these shapes, supported, where appropriate, by explanations of the origins of the different names; knowing the original meaning of 'isosceles' is 'equal legs' may help children to identify triangles with two equal-length sides as isosceles triangles.

Similarly, in their work on measurement, children are reminded of the prefix 'kilo-', meaning 'a thousand', from their work on grams and kilograms and are encouraged to apply this knowledge to understand the term kilo*metres*, and the relationship of these units to metres, and hence centimetres and millimetres.

This increased focus on mathematical communicating will make it easier, through watching, questioning and listening to children as they work, to judge whether they are facing a suitable level of challenge. Activities are structured so



that at each stage children encounter a new 'problem' to solve – Numicon aims to encourage children to relish this, to persevere in working through any difficulty, to gain a sense of achievement when it is overcome, and to be excited about and ready to progress to the next challenge.

How can I encourage communicating?

Children respond to the examples around them. As such, the ways in which you communicate mathematically provide a model for children's communicating. Engaging in dialogue with children, actively listening to what they are saying and responding sensitively with thoughtful questions will encourage them to listen to one another and respect each other's ideas.

Make sure that appropriate resources for illustrating ideas in the area of study are freely accessible. For example, when studying distance, centimetre rulers, metre sticks or rulers, tape-measures, trundle wheels and lengths of string can be made available to children, or, for 2D shapes, interesting packaging, geo strips and connectors, geoboards and elastic bands, modelling dough, construction sticks or straws, and squared and isometric 'dot' paper as well as images and everyday examples of shapes.

Observe how children use the available resources, listen to what they are saying, watch what they are doing and respond with questions and qualified praise when you notice active listening and thoughtful questioning. What children do and say will help you to understand what they are thinking.

The activities in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 are designed to build on a foundation of understanding, skills and knowledge in the areas of number and calculating. Within the Numicon teaching programme, this foundation is provided by Number, Pattern and Calculating 4.

Providing a range of examples and contexts for children's work will also encourage them to develop and refine the imagery they use to 'do' mathematics. Opportunities are highlighted throughout the activities; e.g. the idea of tessellation might be illustrated and elaborated through discussing real-life examples such as those found in tiling, paving and brickwork, squared and isometric paper, checked patterns on fabric and game boards, honeycombs, nets and chain-link fencing, or the pattern on the surface of a football. Similarly suggestions are given throughout Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 for practice problems with a wide range of contexts, involving time and duration, money, mass, and volume and capacity.

Finally, the ways in which children are grouped or paired for working together has an impact on their communicating, so this needs careful consideration.

Using daily routines to encourage communicating

A 'morning maths meeting', perhaps 15 minutes long, has proven to be very successful in encouraging children's mathematical communicating.

These meetings are oral and practical and include a small selection of key routines in which children practise rapid recall and gain fluency with the ideas and facts that are the basis or focus of their current work. In addition to consolidating knowledge of number and calculation, measurement, geometry and statistics, they can be used as opportunities to provide variety and context. You might discuss with children observations about a mathematically rich object, or solve a mathematical problem that has come up in the class, in the school, in the news, at home or in a story.

You can refer to the whole-class practice activities from the activity groups in the Teaching Resource Handbook for ideas. You could also select focus activities from the activity groups to use for class investigations or problem solving.

Children's mathematical thinking and reasoning can also be encouraged at other times during the day. Along with the 'morning maths meeting', this will help to ensure that they experience the full breadth of the maths curriculum, and that they do not see mathematics as something that only happens in their mathematics lessons.

The daily or weekly timetable and the school year provide a meaningful context for children to make predictions and to refine their language for and understanding of temporal relationships and units of time. Timetables and calendars will enable children to further engage with this discussion. Calendars, clocks, timers and stopwatches can be used to reinforce the idea of the order, duration and passage of units of time – you could invite children to set an alarm clock or timer to ring at the end of a particular lesson or activity or to use the clock on the classroom wall and a timetable to work out what their next activity or task is.

Mathematical thinking can be encouraged in a broad range of classroom tasks and activities. For example, if children are lining up you could ask them to do so in order of height or birth date, and when they are moving between places in the room or school you could ask them to estimate the distance, in metres, or describe the angles they turn through along the way.

What might the use of Numicon look like in my classroom?

Nearly all of us are acutely visually aware, and children are no exception. A mathematics-rich environment provides valuable learning opportunities; throughout the day, and particularly during mathematics activities, you will find children referring to the imagery and displays around them. There will be number lines on display at children's eye level, including the Numicon Display Number Line and the Numicon 0–1001 Number Line.

You can also create displays to reflect children's current mathematical focus. As well as providing a space in which to celebrate children's mathematical work, this might include pictures, books, interesting objects (different types and designs of clocks, watches or timers, for instance, when children are learning about measuring or telling time) and relevant games and challenges (e.g. instructions involving coordinates for children to follow, perhaps against the clock, to make designs with Numicon Shapes, Pegs or Counters on a labelled Baseboard Laminate or coordinate grid).

Alongside creating a visually-rich environment in which to think and communicate about mathematics, the organization of space and resources can encourage children's involvement in doing mathematics. For example, it is useful to set up a

mathematics table with an interactive display where children can freely explore Numicon Shapes, number rods, 2D and 3D shapes, measuring instruments and other familiar resources. When children are studying geometry and measurement, it is often also helpful to set up some space so that they can try out the equipment and practise the activities they meet in their mathematics lessons. For example, while working on capacity children might be given access to water or sand and a variety of containers. In relation to time a themed area might contain a variety of objects and resources which children can observe and explore such as timetables and programmes for local services and events, TV and radio listings, appropriate internet sites with interactive timelines. Moreover you could show 'extreme' examples of clock and watch design or describe what an atomic clock is.

Organizing classroom resources systematically, with storage containers numbered and stored in a logical order, ensures that mathematics equipment will be available to children to find and use themselves. They should be familiar with the resources and encouraged to use them freely. The 'morning maths meeting' might be used, early in the year, to explore equipment and how it can be used.

Finally, geometry and measurement activities typically lend themselves to collaborative working, and some will require a suitable space to be set up in advance. As part of your preparations for a new activity group, you may wish to consider how working spaces or desks should be arranged to facilitate this. (See also 'How will I manage the class for mathematics lessons?' on page 29 and 'What about organizing resources and space?' on page 29).

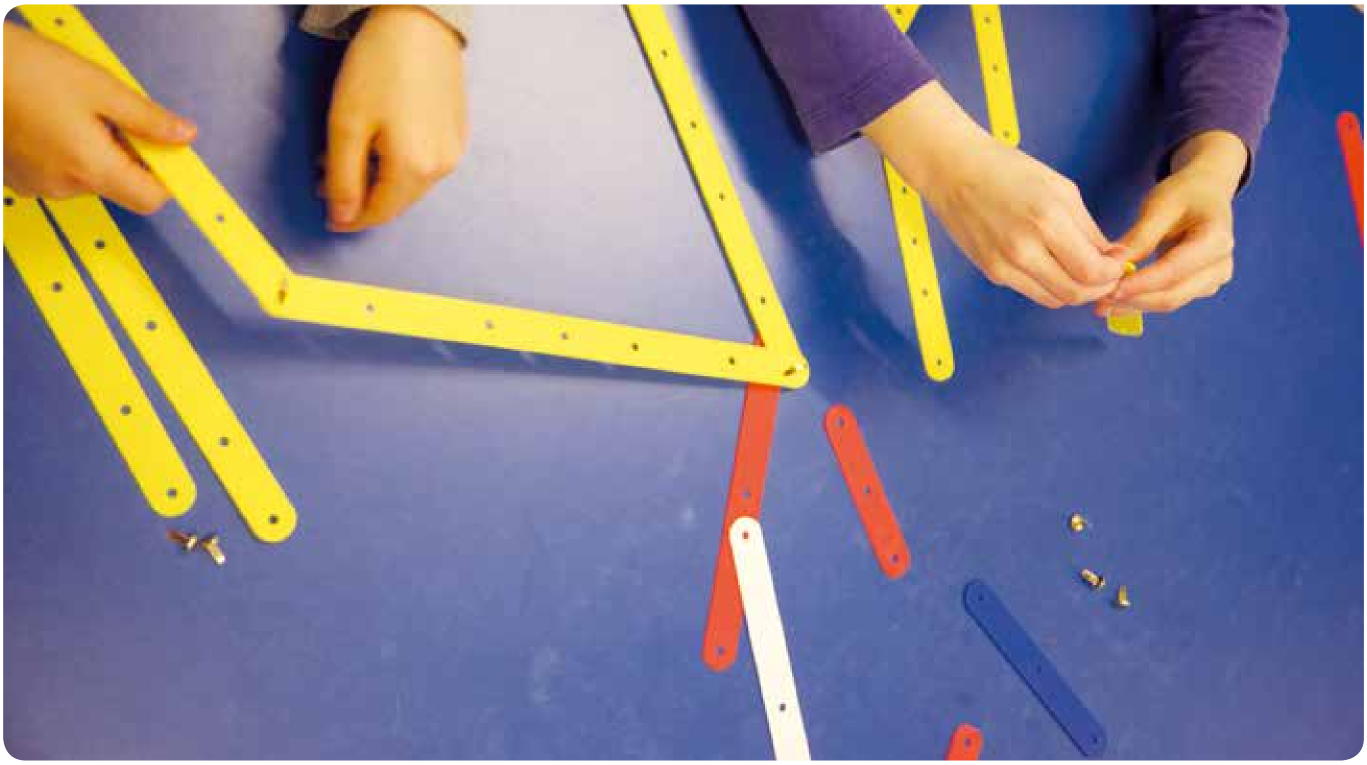
What could using Numicon feel like for children in my class?

In the activities in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4, children calculate with money amounts in the context of a sponsored event and learn about the 24-hour clock in relation to using an example radio guide, as well as consider contexts in which its use might be important, such as when forecasting the time of a storm at sea. In this way, children are encouraged to recognize that mathematics is an ordinary, valuable and interesting part of everyday life and of their ongoing learning about the world. As you engage them in solving mathematical problems, they also learn *when* to use mathematics.

Within the mathematics-rich environment of the classroom, you are likely to notice children glancing at displays and images to check an idea they are explaining. At other times, you will notice them simply looking thoughtfully at displays – they are likely to be noticing relationships and making connections as they assimilate new ideas.

The open-ended nature of the Numicon resources and activities invites children to experiment and explore, self-correcting as they seek solutions. Children begin to recognize self-correcting as part of the learning process; encouraging them to pursue opportunities to investigate, think, communicate and self-correct will support their confidence.

Working in pairs within groups also supports children's confidence by encouraging them to share ideas and work things out together. Some children are more confident when working with a partner, setting challenges and exploring ideas more deeply than they do when working alone.



Children take their lead for listening to each other and sharing ideas from the ways in which the adults in the classroom converse with them and each other. They may need help with taking turns, showing respect for each other's ideas, listening to one another without interrupting, phrasing questions and expressing ideas. Over time, you will find that children become confident in sharing their thinking.

With Numicon, children will also know that there is nothing wrong with challenge: it is normal to get 'stuck' – what is important is continuing to communicate mathematically. Children come to relish challenge because they feel able to persist in the face of it, and gain a sense of achievement when a challenge is overcome. Part of this confidence comes from the ways in which their understanding is built cumulatively by following the suggested progression of teaching activities in the Teaching Resource Handbook.

Children also feel confident when tackling new ideas because they can use a variety of resources and imagery to illustrate problems. Their confidence will be further encouraged as you discuss their ideas with them, helping them to become increasingly aware of what they know and are learning. This discussion supports children's monitoring of their own learning.

What is the role of imagery in geometry and measurement?

In their work on number, children are asked from a very early point to 'handle' abstract objects, in the form of pure numbers. Numicon's focus on the use of structured materials helps them to approach this apparently contradictory task through actions and imagery, and in this way to gain access to the ideas we symbolize with numerals such as '3' or '10' (for more discussion, see the 'What is Numicon?' section).

In contrast, children's work on geometry and measurement is rooted in physical objects and how they occupy physical space – their shape, length, mass and so on. They are able to handle these objects directly and immediately: to look at and use the space around them; to draw or make, change, dismantle and remake shapes for themselves; to compare and judge size and quantity in concrete terms – according to how much of something they can fit in their own hand, for example.

Just as for number, though, learning about geometry and measurement requires children to identify relationships and develop symbolic representations (words and symbols) which enable them to spot patterns (generalize) – that is, to think and communicate mathematically. To identify any triangle successfully, for example, children must link the word 'triangle' with a generalized set of requirements which can apply in an infinite number of cases; that is, they must be able to distinguish any particular instance of a closed 2D shape with three straight sides. They can then refine their symbolic representation to classify triangles into types: scalene, isosceles, equilateral, right-angled, and so on.

For measurement, the reasoning is perhaps more straightforward, but the principles are the same. Identifying which measurement and unit to use requires a generalized understanding of dimensions of length (for instance), and relative sizes.

Children should be encouraged to experience and explore physical space and objects, investigating, constructing and transforming with a variety of resources and materials in a variety of contexts – but in doing this it is the dynamic mental imagery that they build up, rather than the 'raw' number of examples they encounter, that will enable them to generalize and think mathematically. It is important to support the development of children's imagery by encouraging a continual emphasis on visualizing, describing and predicting results in their work.

How much time should I plan to spend on mathematics teaching?

The time spent teaching mathematics during the school day can vary. In addition to a daily mathematics lesson lasting up to an hour and a 'morning maths meeting' lasting about 15 minutes, there are many opportunities for developing language of (for example) comparing, position, movement, time, monetary value and shape. There will also be many opportunities for estimating or making measurements, and calculating. Taking advantage of these opportunities helps children realize that doing mathematics is normal and useful in all sorts of situations, and encourages them to recognize when and how to use the mathematics they have learned.

For planning teaching time, see the section 'How do I plan in the medium- and long-term using the Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 teaching programme?' on page 32.

What format might Numicon mathematics lessons take?

Look at the relevant pages of the Teaching Resource Handbook for the activity group you are working from. The first part of the mathematics lesson is a whole-class introduction. This is followed by a longer session of group work during which children are either working independently or as part of a focused teaching group. Finally, the class comes together for a concluding session.

During the lesson introduction, you are likely to use physical materials and other imagery in communicating and discussing ideas with children. You may also use the *Numicon Software for the Interactive Whiteboard*.

Children may join in this whole-class part of the lesson in lots of different ways: participating in a class conversation, talking with a partner or within a small group, jotting on an individual whiteboard, or using physical resources to explore and show ideas.

In the second part of the lesson, children will be arranged in groups working on, for example:

- a teacher-led focus activity
- a teaching assistant-led focus activity
- an independent practice activity or investigation, or further work on ideas introduced at the start of the lesson.

Groups will be exploring ideas within the same activity group but may not be working on the same activities. They may be using different apparatus – for example, for a lesson on perimeter and area, some groups may be using number rods to measure with and others rulers or squared paper, while others may be writing or drawing or using structured apparatus for calculating areas.

Over the course of a week, the different groups may rotate through the various group-work activities, so that all children receive focus teaching, and explore the ideas using different imagery.

In the final part of the lesson, it is particularly important to encourage all children to reflect on their learning by asking questions of those working at different levels, depending on what you have noticed them doing and saying during the lesson. You may decide to ask the different groups to explain to the rest of the class what they have been doing and what they have noticed. You may have particular points you want to draw to children's attention. You could also suggest what might happen in the next lesson and anything children could think about before then. To help children reflect, you could ask them to think quietly for a few moments about what they have been doing, and guide their reflection with questions such as:

- Is there anything new you have learned?
- Is there anything you feel particularly pleased about?
- Is there anything you particularly enjoyed?
- Is there something that you found difficult?
- Is there something that you are still puzzling about?
- Is there something you would like to do again?

How will I manage the class for mathematics lessons?

There are several important factors to consider for organizing and managing successful group work.

First, to engage children, it is important to plan differentiated activities that will provide appropriate levels of challenge for all children. Therefore, during the week, the group-work activities will need to be adjusted for different groups.

Second, as children may be working on activities that have been adjusted, it is important that they are comfortable with how to do the activity and what is expected of them.

Third, the order in which the activities are introduced to different groups has an impact on how quickly children progress.

At the beginning of the week, children may be taking in a lot of information, so give consideration to how you will introduce the activities, as this will impact on how quickly children can access and begin to make progress in the work. You will find ways that work well for you, but the following guidance may be of help:

- Explain the simplest independent work first.
- The first time you introduce a challenging practice activity, allocate it to a group of children who are able to follow instructions well.
- Groups which might need more support should begin the week with a focus activity; the adult working with the group can explain the activity, removing the need to spend time explaining it to the whole class.

Once the activities have been introduced, children will then go off to work in their groups. You may wish to focus on the one or two groups that need the most support at this point. If you have a teaching assistant, you may want them to work closely with the group who need the greatest assistance. Each class, and each lesson, will be different.

During this part of the lesson, it is quite likely that a child or children will put forward an idea that is worth everybody considering. You might choose to invite all children to take a moment to reflect on the idea, or make a note to discuss this in the final part of the lesson, when the class comes back together.

What about organizing resources and space?

The way in which resources are organized, used and presented and how the available space is set up sends children a strong message about how they are expected to work. (See also 'What might the use of Numicon look like in my classroom?' on page 25)

When preparing the classroom for a mathematics lesson, consider how children will be grouped and how working spaces and desks should be arranged for particular activities and learning requirements. Set out the equipment where children are going to be working. Refer to the '**Have ready**' sections of the activities you plan to teach. The photocopy masters needed can be photocopied from the Teaching Resource Handbook.

A number of activities in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 require some open space, in the classroom, hall or outdoors, e.g.for weighing travel bags (or items representing these) in Measurement 4; measuring and marking out distances based on athletics events in Measurement 3; and working with water (or sand) in Measurement 5. Again, refer to the '**Have ready**' sections of the activities in order to arrange for suitable space in advance.

It is also useful to consider collecting well in advance the real-life examples – including images and objects – which will be needed or provide context for children's work. For Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4, these might include: pictures or silhouettes of aeroplanes, boats or ships viewed from directly above or below to show symmetry; pictures of example geometric tessellations; calendars; wrapping paper or wallpaper with repeating patterns; price tags, catalogues or signs showing prices in pounds (£3·99, £4·75, £8·00, £14·50, and so on); examples of mass allowances, limits and restrictions in everyday life, such as airline baggage allowances, weight categories in sport, weight limits for child car seats; pictures or videos of athletes taking part in track and field events, including a straight-line sprint (the 60 or 100 m) and the 400 m; pictures of perimeter fences, walls or hedges, ideally from above so that whole boundary can be seen; and examples of volumes and capacities in real life, such as the volume of juice in a typical soft drinks can (330 ml), a typical total lung capacity for an adult male (about 6 ℓ), the volume of water in an Olympic-size swimming pool (about 2 500 000 ℓ).

If you have planned for groups to take turns to do the activities over a week, it can be helpful to store the equipment for each activity in a separate container so it is ready for use each day. Encourage children to leave the resources as they found them, ready for the next group. Children can help themselves to any further equipment they need from the class mathematics resources. As children become used to working with Numicon and other mathematics apparatus, they can begin to collect the equipment they need for an activity by following a list (annotated, if necessary, with pictures, symbols or container numbers) and thinking for themselves about any further items they may want to use.

Other ideas for organizing resources are:

- providing smaller containers of equipment for children working individually or in pairs
- using sorting trays with separate compartments to allow children to access resources such as numeral cards or geometric shapes, to save space and keep the resources organized
- storing paper resources which children may want to use, such as number lines and geo strips, by hanging them from hooks (punch a hole in the end, if necessary).

What writing or drawing might children do in mathematics if the activities are mainly practical?

Writing and drawing are aspects of communicating mathematically, and children's chosen forms of this communication may be varied and idiosyncratic. They might involve: drawing a measurement in pictures e.g. a number of objects representing a particular mass, drawing a number story in pictures or by drawing around number rods; drawing symmetrical patterns; creating a pictogram or chart; or showing sorting of objects or shapes by using an appropriate diagram.

Giving children the choice of how to communicate their ideas can therefore provide useful insights into how they are approaching problems, whether they are working systematically and how they are using conventional notation. It also helps children to formulate, clarify and develop their thinking, and to think of writing and drawing as part of doing mathematics (rather than in themselves *being* mathematics).

Accordingly, opportunities for children to communicate on paper are highlighted in the activities wherever this serves a useful purpose. Some activity sheets are provided as photocopy masters, but in general it is recommended that children write and draw in their mathematics exercise books. This creates a useful bank of evidence to show how children's mathematical communicating develops over time.

The Explorer Progress Book (see page 10) also provides an extremely useful source of evidence for children's progress.

What about grouping children?

Children work well in pairs within larger groups of four or six. Working with a partner supports their confidence, giving them plenty of opportunities to discuss their work and solve problems together.

Schools vary in their criteria for grouping children. When grouping children of eight and nine years old, it is important to bear in mind that they will be at different levels of development and will therefore require different levels of challenge. Some schools find an advantage in having mixed ability groups comprising pairs of children working at slightly different levels; others group together children who are working at a similar level.

Whatever the policy is in your school, bear in mind that it is important to vary groups from time to time and to ensure that children do not always work with the same partner. Some children will work faster than others and have more developed ideas. It is important to make sure that they have opportunities to work with other children of similar ability. As you follow the suggested teaching programme for the first few weeks of term, you will discover which children work well together and their levels of understanding.

How do I prepare for teaching mathematics lessons using Numicon?

Understanding the mathematics yourself

Before teaching an activity group, read the relevant 'Key mathematical ideas' sections to prepare for your teaching. If you want to do more research on an area of mathematics, you may wish to consult other sources, for example Derek Haylock's *Mathematics Explained for Primary Teachers* (4th edition, 2010).

Next, consider what generalizing there is in the activity group. For example, 'Is this where children could notice that rhombuses, squares and oblongs are all special cases of parallelograms?' Or, 'Is this where children might recognize that shapes with the same perimeter can have different areas?'

The children will be new to this, so another way to work on generalizations is to ask, 'What patterns in the work children are doing will they have to notice in order to progress?'

When children notice things, be prepared to keep asking: 'Will that always work?' 'What if those quantities were different?' 'Would that work with a different shape?' 'Will that ever work?' 'When does that work?' 'What never works?'

Appreciating the contexts

The educational context on the introductory page for each activity group will help you to see how the ideas involved fit into the continuum of children's learning about geometry, measurement and statistics.

After reading this educational context, consider when this learning may be useful. Children don't just need to know *how* to do this mathematics, they need to know *when* to do it as well. How can you help them spot when this general mathematics applies to a particular situation?

Think about the kinds of contexts offered in the activity group, and ask yourself whether the mathematics is useful in particular kinds of real-world situations, or whether it helps with doing other mathematics. It can be helpful to think up one or two contexts of your own, so that it is clear what the point of doing this mathematics is.

Selecting and adapting activities

You know the children in your class and the materials and spaces which are available to you. You will be best placed to select which activities are most appropriate and adapt them creatively to suit the needs of individual children.

Read all of the activities in an activity group and identify what each activity contributes overall, as well as the resources and preparation involved. Then try the activities. Some might be 'revision' for your children, others might involve ideas, illustrations or techniques that are completely new. Some activities will be invaluable practice. You might think an activity will be too easy or too difficult for some children, so think about how you might adjust the level of challenge. Be flexible and adapt what is available for your children in the light of what they can already do.

It's also worth considering that challenge is normal; when children get 'stuck', they should be encouraged to communicate. Make sure they have available all the actions, imagery and language they need to communicate the challenge they are facing effectively.

How do I plan in the medium- and long-term using the Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 teaching programme?

The plan-teach-review cycle applies to Numicon, just as it applies to all effective mathematics teaching. Four important features of Numicon support this cycle.

First, the Numicon teaching programme – the recommended order of the activity groups – is structured progressively. A chart showing the programme appears in the long- and medium-term planning section of the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook* and also in the planning and Assement support.

Second, practice and discussion activities are included in each activity group, for individual, paired and group work.

Third, accurate assessment is enabled through children's practical work with physical resources and imagery, and their mathematical communicating in conversation and on paper. This assessment will, in turn, help with planning.

Finally, 'using and applying' does not need to be planned separately. This is partly because all activity groups are based around problems to be solved, and partly because the cumulative nature of the programme means that children are using their earlier learning every time they face new ideas.

The teaching programme for Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 is arranged into two strands, Geometry and Measurement, with a series of activity groups within each. Both include coverage of statistics, in the form of data recording, presentation and interpretation.

The long-term plan on page 17 of the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook* shows the recommended order of the activity groups. It has been carefully designed to scaffold children's understanding, so that they are able to meet the challenges of each new idea. For instance, children would not be expected to learn about the 24-hour digital clock without being able to tell the time to the nearest minute using the 12-hour digital clock.

It should be noted that this structure has been designed together with the progression of the Numicon Number, Pattern and Calculating 4 teaching programme. The long-term plan included on the Numicon Planning and Assessment Support contains suggestions for integrating the Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 activity groups with those from the *Number, Pattern and Calculating 4 Teaching Resource Handbook*.

The medium-term plan on pages 18–23 of the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook* gives expected coverage over the course of the year and also lists the activities and learning opportunities for each group.

You may decide to follow the long- and medium-term plans as they stand. You may also find that you need to split some of the larger activity groups and return to them later.

There are summary charts showing learning opportunities for each activity group in the long- and medium-term planning section of the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook* and in the Planning and Assessment Support. You may find these useful for incorporating Numicon activities into your existing mathematics plans, should you decide not to follow the Numicon long-term plan for teaching the activity groups.

The parts and structure of each activity group are highlighted in the key to the activity groups on pages 34–35 of this Implementation Guide (this is also included in the Teaching Resource Handbook).

Each activity group begins with a 'low-threshold' focus activity designed to encourage and support confidence and ensure that all children are included. The remaining focus activities are designed to help children progressively develop their ideas around the mathematical theme of the activity group. The focus activities are designed for whole-class or group teaching. Some may be taught quite quickly to the whole class as an introduction to be explored later with a focus group. Opportunities for reasoning through challenging questions and problems are provided throughout.

Ensure that activities are differentiated where necessary so that all children who should be working independently can do so. Include activities that enable children to become more confident; encourage them to work more effectively and speedily through practising and celebrating what they are able to do. As you decide which activity to allocate to a particular group, remember to check that there is scope for children to take the activity further. You can increase the challenge by asking more challenging questions, either with specific groups or when the class comes together for the final part of the lesson. Your questions will depend on what you have noticed the children doing and saying as they work.

How long should I allow for teaching each activity group?

The Numicon teaching activities for Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 primarily address the shape, position, measurement and statistics areas of the curriculum, along with some aspects of number.

For children who are new to Numicon, you may need to allow one or two weeks for making connections between Numicon Shapes and Shape patterns, number rods, number names and numerals.

There are 10 activity groups within the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook*. Some of the activity groups contain more material than can be covered in one week: you might choose to work right through the activity group, have a break while you teach another topic, or even make selections from the activity group and integrate the material with work on other areas of mathematics. Returning to finish a group after a week or so has the advantage of reminding children about the ideas they have met previously, and gives you a useful opportunity to review what they have remembered. Alternatively, you may prefer to revisit or cover some ideas with whole-class practice at different times during the day, in particular during the 'morning maths meeting'. You will also find that children sometimes move very quickly through the work, and you will be able to combine two or sometimes three activities in one focus teaching session.

What about differentiating activities?

It is important for children of all abilities that activities provide appropriate levels of challenge.

The educational context and learning opportunities on the introductory page of each activity group give you an overview of the ideas children will meet and the learning to be built upon. If your assessments tell you that some children are not yet ready for the activity group, you can look back through earlier activity groups in the same strand to find appropriate activities. If the number content is too challenging, it may be appropriate to differentiate by, for example, adjusting the number range used in the activities; alternatively, consider whether it is best to revisit activities later, once children are more secure in the required knowledge.

Each activity group starts with a 'low-threshold' activity designed to be accessible to all children. In a mixed-age class you may need to modify the work for younger children and assess how they respond. You may decide some children are ready to go straight to more challenging activities, later in the activity group.

The open-ended nature of the activities and the emphasis on mathematical thinking means that there is always room for children to take activities further. For the highest-achieving children, you may decide to increase the challenge by planning specific questions that extend the reach of the activity. Encourage them to 'get stuck' and work through problems for themselves, by exploring and refining ways of communicating the ideas involved. You might, for example, challenge them to create their own problems for others to solve.

How can I support children to develop and maintain fluency?

Each activity group includes suggestions for whole-class and independent practice and discussion to help children develop fluent understanding of the ideas they are meeting. You can select from these to give children appropriately differentiated opportunities that will help them to develop confidence.

The Explore More Copymasters provide further opportunities for children to practice and discuss at home the ideas they have been working on at school. The 'morning maths meeting' also provides an excellent opportunity for practice and discussion.

Using the activity groups

The first page of each activity group is clearly coloured according to the **strand** it appears in (Geometry – green, Measurement – purple; statistics is covered within these strands through appropriate contexts). The title and the numbering of the activity group allow you to easily identify the content of the activity group and how far through the strand you are.

The **key mathematical ideas** clearly highlight the important ideas children will be meeting within each activity group.

All activity groups have been extensively trialled in the classroom, so the **learning opportunities** come from real classroom experiences. They are designed to help children develop their understanding of the key ideas of an activity group.

The **educational context** gives a clear outline of the content covered in the activity group, foe example how it builds on children's prior learning, how it connects with other activity groups and the foundation it establishes for children's future learning.

Clear links are made to the **Explorer Progress Book**. The book provides an invaluable chance to see children's thinking, monitor their progress and assess how much of the activity group they have understood.

Key mathematical ideas Rotation, Reflection, Translation, Equivalence

Geometry

Understanding reflective symmetry

2

Educational context

The activities in this group guide children to build on their existing knowledge of reflective symmetry (also called bilateral, line or mirror symmetry) and to extend their use of reflecting (one of the four basic types of geometrical transformation) as a means of understanding shape and space.

They begin by revisiting examples of symmetry in real life – in designs for aeroplanes or boats, for instance – and using these examples to link ideas about reflection, balance and movement with symmetry. They use these ideas to help them create and complete symmetrical patterns, and to look at and describe symmetry in dynamic (rather than purely static) terms.

Children also explore lines of symmetry at various angles. This implicitly involves rotation (another basic transformation), and children may demonstrate understanding of this through rotating patterns or shapes, or by talking about how a line of symmetry appears to have been turned. They also encounter this idea in looking at multiple lines of symmetry, when considering symmetry as a property of 2D shapes. Building on their work in Geometry 1, they identify symmetry in different types of triangle and quadrilateral, before moving on to consider regular polygons, circles and other shapes. The special case of a circle (in which any diameter is also a line of symmetry) is also explored.

Learning opportunities

- To find and draw lines of symmetry in different types of triangle and quadrilateral, and in regular polygons
- To understand that a circle has an infinite number of lines of symmetry
- To identify and draw lines of symmetry in 2D shapes in any orientation
- To make or draw a symmetrical pattern or shape with a vertical, horizontal or diagonal line of symmetry
- To complete a symmetrical pattern or shape, given a vertical, horizontal or diagonal line of symmetry
- To reason about and persist in exploring different ways of approaching a problem

Words and terms for use in conversation

symmetry, symmetrical, asymmetry, line of symmetry, mirror line, reflect, reflection, balance, orientation, vertical, horizontal, perpendicular, parallel, diagonal, polygon, congruent, similar, regular, irregular, angle, turn, right angle, midpoint, equilateral, isosceles, scalene, right-angled, square, oblong, rectangle, parallelogram, rhombus, trapezium, isosceles trapezium, kite, irregular quadrilateral, other polygon names (pentagon, hexagon, heptagon, and so on), circle, congruent, similar, grid

Assessment opportunities

Look and listen for children who:

- Use the words and terms for use in conversation effectively
- Describe the symmetry of different types of triangle and quadrilateral, and regular polygons
- Understand that regular polygons have the same number of lines of symmetry as they do sides
- Understand that any straight line through the centre of a circle is a line of symmetry
- Describe how to position or draw elements (e.g. counters or lines) in order to make a pattern or shape symmetrical
- Organize their work, choose methods and strategies, and record findings effectively
- Make or draw a symmetrical pattern or shape with a vertical, horizontal or diagonal line of symmetry

Explorer Progress Book 4, pp. 4–5

After completing work on this activity group, give small focus groups of children their Explorer Progress Books and ask them to work through the challenges on the pages. As children complete the pages, assess what progress they are making with the central ideas from the activity group. Refer to the assessment opportunities for assistance.

Explore More Copymaster 2: Shape Symmetry

After completing work on Activity 2, give children Explore More Copymaster 2: Shape Symmetry (enlarged to A3) to take home.

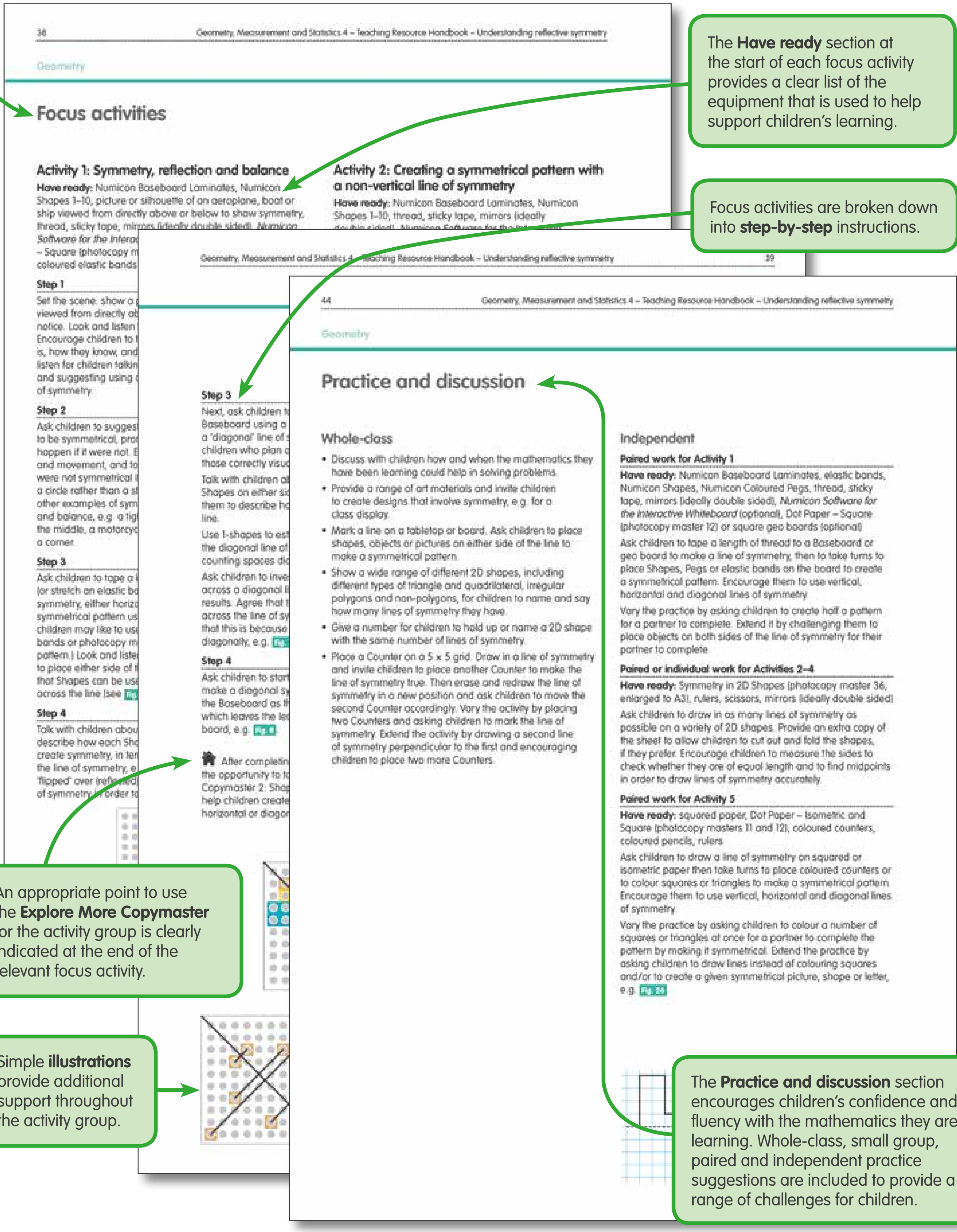
Explore More Copymasters provide an opportunity for children to practise the mathematics from the activity group outside of the classroom through fun, engaging activities.

The **assessment opportunities** signal key information to 'look and listen for' that indicate how much of the focus activities children have understood.

Each activity group includes several **focus activities**, each clearly titled to show the specific learning points addressed by the activity. The first focus activity is a 'low threshold' activity allowing all children to engage with the work. Focus activities then build progressively to a 'high ceiling' that provides challenge and allows for differentiation within the same activity group.

The **Have ready** section at the start of each focus activity provides a clear list of the equipment that is used to help support children's learning.

Focus activities are broken down into **step-by-step** instructions.



An appropriate point to use the **Explore More Copymaster** for the activity group is clearly indicated at the end of the relevant focus activity.

Simple **illustrations** provide additional support throughout the activity group.

The **Practice and discussion** section encourages children's confidence and fluency with the mathematics they are learning. Whole-class, small group, paired and independent practice suggestions are included to provide a range of challenges for children.

Planning and assessment cycle

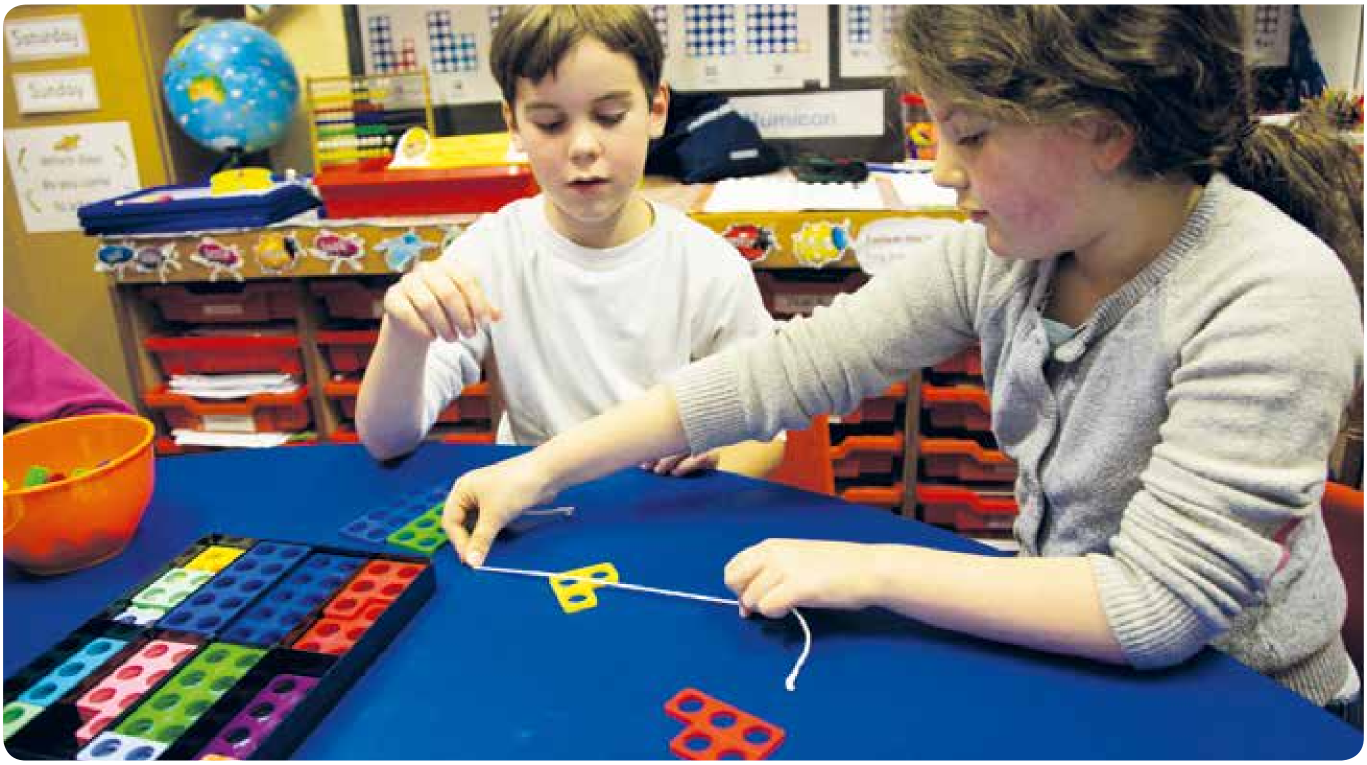
This summary shows how planning is informed by your assessments of children's understanding:

1. Choose an activity group	Before embarking on the activity group, review the educational context, consider your initial assessments of children and decide whether there is a need to revise any ideas children have met earlier.
2. Choose a focus activity	If this is the first lesson using the activity group, start with an early 'low-threshold' activity to include all children. Before the lesson, check the learning and assessment opportunities, brief teaching assistants and prepare resources.
3. Choose the practice activities	**Independent groups:** Refer to your assessment notes and allocate suitable practice activities (found at the end of the activity group). **Focus teaching groups:** Refer to your assessment notes and the learning and assessment opportunities from the activity group and allocate focus activities.
4. Plenary session (normally during and at the end of lessons)	Think about the important ideas that children meet in the lesson, particularly any generalizations that you want children to make. Plan questions to prompt discussion and encourage children to reflect on ideas they may have learned. Refer to the practice section of the activity group to find suggestions for whole-class practice.
5. After the lesson	Reflect on how children have responded in the lesson and note any significant steps on your assessment records. Use what you notice to determine the plan for the next lesson. The whole-class practice suggestions will also help children develop the ideas they have learned in the lesson. At some point after children have completed the activity group, ask them to complete the relevant pages of their Explorer Progress Book. This will allow you to assess how well they have retained the information they have been learning. It will also give you a chance to see how well they are able to apply this knowledge when faced with a 'non-routine' problem.

Creating short-term plans

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Warm-up</th><th>Main teaching focus</th><th>Focused group work with the class teacher or teaching assistant</th><th>Independent work</th><th>Plenary</th></tr>
<tr><td>Activity number/title</td><td>Select activities from the Whole-class practice section. This could be from a previous activity group to review and refresh children's previous learning.</td><td>Select one of the focus activities from the activity group, matched to the needs of the children. Place the activity number/title of the chosen focus activity in your short-term plan.</td><td>Decide whether to:
• select the next activity number/title from the focus activities in the activity group – place this in your short-term plan; or
• consolidate the activity covered in the main teaching focus.</td><td>Decide whether to:
• choose activities from the Independent practice section for groups, pairs or individual children – make notes on your plan or work from the Teaching Resource Handbook; or
• select a focus activity for groups to work on independently – place the relevant activity number/title in your short-term plan.</td><td>Encourage children to have a reflective conversation to draw together what has been learned in the lesson. Select activities from the Whole-class practice section.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Learning opportunities</td><td colspan="5">Place the selected learning opportunity (or opportunities) from the chosen activity group summary in your short-term plan.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Notes and educational context</td><td>Decide whether to:
• use the activity directly from your Numicon Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook; or
• draw on the Teaching Resource Handbook to make your own notes for teaching the activity.</td><td>Decide whether to:
• use the focus activity from your Numicon Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook; or
• draw on the Teaching Resource Handbook to make your own notes for teaching the focus activity.</td><td>Decide whether to:
• use the focus activity from your Numicon Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook; or
• draw on the Teaching Resource Handbook to make your own notes for teaching the focus activity.

If working with a teaching assistant, you may want to select the relevant Educational context from the chosen activity group.</td><td>Decide whether to:
• use the practice or focus activity from your Numicon Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook; or
• draw on the Teaching Resource Handbook to make your own notes for teaching the focus activity.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Words and terms</td><td colspan="5">Decide which words and terms you will use in conversation. Place these in your short-term plan.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Resources</td><td colspan="5">Prepare any resources you may need for the activity. Use the Have ready section at the beginning of the focus and practice activities.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Assessment opportunities</td><td colspan="5">Select from the chosen activity group summary the assessment opportunities that you and the teaching assistant will be looking and listening for in the different parts of the lesson. Place these in your short-term plan. Remember to note whether children know when to use their understanding.</td></tr>
</table>



How can I assess children's progress?

Assessing mathematics using Numicon involves making judgments about developments in children's mathematical communicating – both receptive and expressive. You need to know which are the key developments to look for: check the assessment opportunities given on the introductory page of each activity group and consider how the achievements listed would show up in children's mathematical communicating. Look for developments in children's actions (what they do and notice), the imagery they use and respond to, and their use of, and responses to, words and symbols in their conversation.

It is also important to notice children's fluency. For example, when their communicating is stilted, when it is punctuated by gaps and hesitations, and when it flows consistently and well, suggesting a strong understanding of well-established ideas and the connections between them.

Assessment should be as open as possible so that children can communicate as much as possible. It is through their mathematical communicating that you will gain a real insight into how children are thinking. This will enable you to make the most accurate assessment of their progress.

Specific challenges for the purposes of assessing are provided in the form of the Explorer Progress Book (see page 10). Children cannot pass or fail these assessment tasks – they simply respond in their own way. How they approach the tasks informs you about their mathematical communicating and gives you an opportunity to 'see' their thinking through the imagery they use. This insight makes it easier to gather meaningful and accurate evidence of where children are. Preparing for formal test situations is something different, and is addressed on page 40.

Specific indications of children's progress

Each activity group lists several assessment opportunities that point to key achievements to look for as children work on the activities. All of these achievements will be observable in children's actions, imagery and conversation as they progress.

Familiarize yourself with the assessment opportunities before you begin teaching an activity group. Use them to help guide your interactions with children, and also as indicators of progress and sources of information to help you group children and plan your teaching as you move on to further activity groups.

Suggestions for what to 'look and listen' for are given within each activity. Focus on children's communicating and ask yourself whether they know both how to do the mathematics they are learning and when to use it.

You will also find that how children use physical resources gives an insight into their thinking. If a child is sorting shapes by trial and error and giving a muddled explanation, this would suggest they don't yet understand the activity. Plan to revisit it, focusing on careful use of mathematical language and imagery.

Children self-correcting – that is, working by trial and improvement rather than simply by trial and error – suggests their understanding is developing. Give them time to experiment and practise the activity and encourage them to discuss their ideas.

Children communicating clearly about what they have done, whether with apparatus, in conversation or on paper, suggests they have gained a solid understanding. Plan, then, to move them on.

What about summative assessing?

Assessment milestones and tracking children's progress

The medium-term plan in the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook* includes milestones – summary statements of specific points that children need to have a good understanding of before they move on to the next set of activity groups.

The milestones are based on the assessment opportunities in the preceding activity groups and are also aligned to the National Curriculum in England (2014). Your ongoing assessment of each child will build up over the preceding period and you can keep a record of attainment and track progress using the photocopy master of the milestones for the year on pages 106-108 of the Teaching Resource Handbook.

Each milestone represents a point at which to reflect on each child's achievement and decide whether you need to plan further support and practice for them, giving them time to consolidate their understanding, or whether they are ready to move on. If children move on before they are ready their difficulties are likely to be compounded, because they will not be adequately prepared for the new ideas they meet.

Explorer Progress Book

Each activity group has two corresponding pages in the Explorer Progress Book. The first page presents children with opportunities to use the mathematics they have been learning in the activity group. The second provides more open tasks, allowing children to further apply their learning.

The Explorer Progress Book is designed to be tackled in focus groups, so that you can administer and monitor each child's responses. In this way, you are able to build up a cumulative idea of a child's progress. The tasks enable you to assess children's ability to think mathematically and persist in their work, as well as whether they understand when to use particular mathematics skills. They are as open as possible, inviting a full range of responses. They are not pass or fail tests, rather they are there to support you in assessing as accurately as possible children's current understanding, so that you know what needs addressing. It may be useful to keep notes on children's responses and what you see as their significance for future work.

Consider carefully when to give children each Explorer Progress Book task. You might ask them to complete one page at the end of their work on the activity group and then the other two weeks later, to check how much they may have retained. Alternatively, you might give children both pages after they have completed next activity group, or just before they face the next related activity group. The aim is to gather information about children's understanding at a point when this information is useful for their learning – decide which is the most useful point, in each case.

Children should have available to them all the materials and imagery that have been available during the teaching of the activity group, and should be invited to express what they are doing as they do it. It is best to avoid affirming or denying anything a child says or does as they work; look and listen for what children do without your guidance.

Keeping track of what children remember and developing flexibility

Children's responses to questions and problems and ability to give examples or make up their own questions in the 'morning maths meeting' or other practice sessions will indicate whether they are maintaining fluency with past learning.

You might choose an activity from the practice section of a completed activity group, vary the context and present it to children without preparing them in advance – notice what they do and do not seem to remember, and plan accordingly for the next related activity group. You can also use questions and activities from previous activity groups to help keep children's past learning and creative thinking 'simmering'.

What about formal testing for national authorities?

Formal tests and examinations are important hurdles for children and teachers, parents and carers, schools, universities, professionals, employers and governments. They also tend to be artificial settings in which to 'do' mathematics. In this sense a formal test does not correspond to children's encounters with mathematics in their learning or everyday lives, and this means devoting time to preparing them for the uniqueness of the experience.

In a formal mathematics test, communicating is almost always restricted to 'on-paper' forms; this allows for some imagery, but not usually for action with physical materials. Also, the language used in test papers can be very formal. Thus children will need plenty of practice at interpreting such language and 'internalizing' their use of action and imagery. The development of mental imagery is a key aspect of Numicon, and children should be encouraged to 'imagine' actions, objects, movements and shapes as often as possible.

Children will also need to prepare for encountering 'difficulty' in formal tests. In their mathematics lessons, they are encouraged to express difficulty – to explain why something is challenging and to use action and imagery to illustrate their thinking. Under exam conditions they will need to respond positively to being 'stuck' by communicating mathematically with themselves, working silently to express what the trouble is and using mental imagery to explore possible solutions.

Tests and examinations should not become the paradigm for 'doing mathematics', however. Children need to learn to function mathematically in a very wide range of situations. For ongoing assessment of children's understanding, allow them the full range of actions, imagery and conversation, and encourage them to communicate mathematically in their own way.

Key mathematical ideas: Geometry in the primary years

Underlying the activities in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 are many key mathematical ideas that children will be developing and extending, as well as some conventions they may be meeting for the first time.

In order to teach these ideas effectively, those who are working on the activities with children will need to be clear themselves about the mathematical ideas and about which activities address which ideas.

The following section includes a brief outline of the key mathematical ideas that children will be encountering in the Geometry activity groups of the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook*. The introductory page for each activity group lists the key mathematical ideas associated with each activity. As you prepare for your teaching, you may find it helpful to remind yourself about the key ideas behind each activity by referring to this section.

The mathematics coordinator may also find it useful to work on the key mathematical ideas in professional development sessions with the class teachers and the wider school staff.

Introduction

It is important to remember that doing geometry, measuring, and using statistics are significantly related aspects of mathematics, and that each of these areas of activity has strong connections with the other two. (It is important to remember too that all three also have strong connections with number, pattern, and calculating activity.)

'Geometry' in ancient Greek means 'earth measurement'; many physical measures involve geometrical ideas (e.g. pressure is usually measured per 'square' unit), and patterns in data (themselves usually records of measuring activity) are commonly represented visually – as are numbers themselves, of course, in the form of number lines.

Each of these areas of mathematical activity also has its own distinctive concerns: shapes are commonly classified with little reference to their size; we measure time, force, and temperature as well as distance, area, and volume, and in statistics we are often concerned to interpret and illustrate a 'significance' in identified relationships. In what follows we treat these three broad areas of mathematical activity relatively separately for ease of reference to their key ideas, but when you are teaching each area be sure to exploit inter-connections at every opportunity.

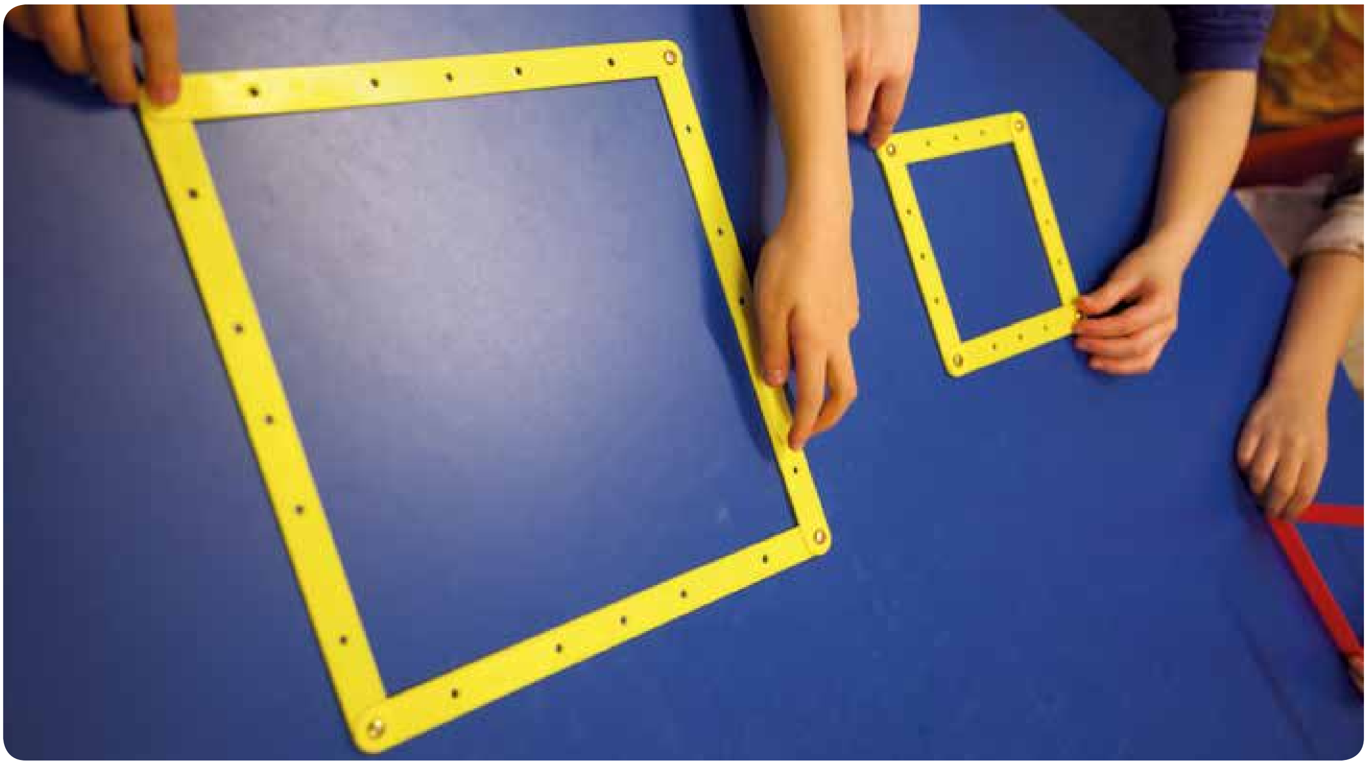
Geometry during the primary years

Children begin exploring shape and space literally as soon as they are born. In fact it was Piaget's view that young children's first experiences of the physical world are closely related to the central ideas of a relatively recent geometry called topology. (In topology, key ideas include 'proximity', 'enclosure', and 'inter-connectedness', and it is easy to understand why such things are so important to infants from their earliest days[1].)

In order to engage children in doing geometry at school, they need first hand experiences with shapes and with position, direction, and movement, within which shared opportunities arise both to describe actions, movements and observations freely and to introduce conventional mathematical names and terms. The point of using mathematically conventional language is to help develop 'a common way of seeing' a world with children, a common way of *communicating* about a geometrical world, so that we can share our individual perceptions and experiences with each other more easily. In the early years, children spend much of their time learning to join in with established geometrical conventions (ways of seeing and describing), as well as developing their individual 'seeing eye'; these two aspects need to proceed together, in close relation to each other.

The importance of first hand practical experience for children is two-fold: young children do not yet think about shape and space in the same ways that adults do, and for communicating to become effective in any context there

1 If you want an example of topology in adult use, think about a map of the London Underground and about why such ideas are the important ones in this context.



has to be a shared underlying experience that all involved can build their communicating upon. (It is very difficult to communicate effectively about, say, a film that only one of you has seen; similarly, it is very difficult to *discuss* with children things that only you have experienced.) Children should be physically active and thoughtfully reflective in their geometry activities, and fully involved in *discussion* in all activities. It is only children's *agreement* to join in with doing mathematics and its established social conventions that will open up its possibilities to them; children asked to use terms they can't relate to their personal experience – however important we might think those terms are – will find themselves easily forgetting those words.

Bear in mind also that in learning to do geometry in school, children are encountering some very old conventions traditionally used in classifying 'shapes' and describing 'position', the origins of which often lie quite literally thousands of years ago. It is quite easy for children sometimes to feel that they have to learn a strange foreign language to talk about abstract shapes in school, the point of which (at the time) can seem obscure. As with medicine and the law though, many of the terms we use today in geometry have Greek and/or Latin origins and make good descriptive sense in those ancient languages, e.g. 'tri-angle' meaning three angles. Today, using words like 'polygon' and 'quadrilateral' can seem a bit odd and rather fussy, but if children are introduced to the Latin and Greek roots of these terms (e.g. 'poly' meaning 'many', and 'quad' meaning 'four') they quickly get used to connecting the sense of these old words with what they are used to describe, and this deeper level of reading can help develop their geometrical thinking and communicating significantly.

Doing geometry – transformations, invariants and equivalence

An important general point concerns the history of geometry and consequently what we tend to emphasize today in schooling. For many hundreds of years after the Greeks and Romans there was effectively only one kind of geometry used in western civilization – that of Euclid (fl. 300 BCE). But during the 19th century CE, mathematicians' attention began to focus on connecting new and ever more varied kinds of geometry with each other.

One key connecting idea turned out to be no longer thinking of geometry as simply 'earth measurement', but instead as the study of 'invariants under transformations': people began to think of geometry as studying what changes, and what stays the same, as various transformations (e.g. 'rotating', 'reflecting' or 'translating') are performed on shapes and space.

With the introduction of this idea, Euclid's traditional geometry has today become a concern with studying what stays the same (invariant) as we transform shapes. For example, a square will still have equal sides and four right-angles, equal diagonals, the same area and so on, however it is rotated, reflected, or moved about. Whereas topology is concerned with what stays the same under what are called 'rubber-sheet' transformations – imagine what happens to shapes drawn on a rubber sheet as the sheet is pulled and stretched in any ways that you like. A 'square' when stretched about on rubber will still form a continuous boundary (thus keep an 'inside' and an 'outside') so we would say that 'enclosure' is invariant, and points that are close together originally will stay relatively close together, so we say that 'proximity' is also an invariant under topological transformations. Actual measured distances and angles all change when shapes are stretched and pulled, and so they are not invariants.

Those topological invariants are the only ones that matter to a traveller on an Underground system, and also in young infants' spatial worlds. Studying 'invariants' under different kinds of transformations turns out to be a very useful way of understanding shape and space, and this informs children's geometrical activity in school today: essentially we want children to *explore* 'What happens if we *do* this …?'

This in itself requires a necessarily *active* approach to doing geometry. We want children to be dynamically making shapes, and moving shapes (and themselves), and noticing and discussing what changes and what stays the same. 'Transforming' involves action, as does moving between and among 'positions', and *discussing* all this action is what allows children gradually to join in with the language and conventions of doing the geometry that we use in mathematics today. Gradually too, children will begin to learn how we *reason* about aspects of shapes and space in doing mathematics.

Equivalence

Just as children need to learn about equivalence in number work and algebra (e.g. 2 × 3 = 6, and a + b = b + a), so they will meet important equivalence relations in geometry. In primary school geometry, equivalence judgments are typically made in relation to specified transformations. Most commonly, children will learn that two shapes are 'the same as' each other if they could be rotated, reflected, and/or translated onto each other; two such shapes are called **congruent** to each other. If two shapes could be rotated, reflected, translated, and/or ***scaled up or down*** onto each other they are said to be **similar**.

Importantly, transformations can be performed one after the other, and some sequences of transformations are *equivalent* to each other in that shapes 'end up in the same state/place' after them. For example, a rotation of 180° about a point, followed by another rotation of 180° about that point, is *equivalent to* one single rotation of 360° about the point. Investigating sequences of transformations and their equivalences explicitly is a significant part of school geometry, though children will have already begun to explore this in their very early pre-school play with their simple handling of shapes (e.g. fitting different shapes into differently shaped holes).

Doing geometry – being logical

As in doing any kind of mathematics, when we do geometry we reason by making and using **generalizations**. Indeed, this is one key aspect that distinguishes doing geometry from measuring; when we measure, we are always measuring something specific, something particular.

Being logical in doing mathematics usually involves using what is called deductive logic[2]; and *deducing* something involves moving from a general statement to a particular one. For example, knowing that 'the exterior angles of any polygon add up to 360°' allows us to deduce that the exterior angles of a triangle will add up to 360° because a triangle is a polygon. By using generalizations in various logical ways in mathematics, we can be sure that our reasoning is reliable.

As another example, we know that we could not try to tile a flat surface with regular pentagonal tiles because each interior angle of a regular pentagon is 108°, and there is no way you can fit a whole number of 108° angles together to make a 360° complete intersection (that is, leaving no gaps) because 360 ÷ 108 = 3·33, which is not a whole number. This is a **logical** argument: if the exterior angles of a regular pentagon add up to 360° (because it also is a polygon), then each exterior angle must be 72° (because 360 ÷ 5 = 72). If each exterior angle is 72°, then each interior angle must be 108° (because an interior and an exterior angle added together make a straight line, that is, 180°, and 180 – 72 = 108).

We have no choice about accepting reasoning like this; if our generalisations are valid our conclusion is *necessarily* correct. Notice in the preceding paragraph just how much this reasoning depends upon using our *generalizations* (including numbers themselves), *logic* and ***definitions*** (e.g. of exterior angles). Doing geometry, that is, reasoning about shape and space relationships, depends crucially upon such logic, our definitions and generalizations.

It is worth noting too, that though we may make, move and draw physical shapes on paper to help us to think, our logical reasoning is about shapes *in general*. Importantly, we can only contemplate such general shapes in our heads, that is, we can draw a particular triangle of particular dimensions physically but not a 'general' triangle. The general 'triangle' we reason about in geometry is *imagined*, and hence no measuring is involved.

Of course, as Piaget noted, young children are generally not yet capable of reasoning for themselves with the kind of 'formal operational' logic described above, but in primary school we can do much to prepare the way for children's mature geometrical thinking, and for their understanding of what 'doing geometry' involves. We can encourage children to *imagine* shapes and movements, we can encourage them to *generalize*, and we can encourage them to notice that there are significantly different ways of being 'correct' in mathematics, through ourselves always being careful how we answer the question, '***Why*** …?' We can also teach children what doing geometry is *not*.

2 There is a form of reasoning used in mathematics called 'proof by induction' because it moves from particular relations to a general conclusion about a whole sequence of relations. This form of proof nevertheless also relies upon at least one initial generalisation about the sequence involved, for its validity.

What geometrical reasoning is *not*

It is quite common for children to want to test a generalisation such as 'the angles of any (flat) triangle add up to 180°', by drawing or choosing a particular triangle and measuring the angles with a protractor (or tearing off the corners of a particular paper triangle and re-arranging them in a line). There's possibly a feeling that lots of people could have done this in the past, and that every time anyone does it, they always come up with 180° – roughly. And so, if we could measure accurately enough, measuring lots of different kinds of particular triangles would eventually *prove* it.

This kind of activity is misleading for children in an important way. Working like this is how scientists work – by dealing with series of individual cases rather than reasoning about a *general* triangle, as mathematicians do. If all we did in geometry was measure actual particular triangles, however many triangles we measured practically – even assuming we could measure anything perfectly accurately (which we can't) – there would always be the possibility that in a triangle we haven't looked at yet, the angles might come to more or less than 180° because we have no special *reason* for knowing it to be impossible.

In mathematics we reason *logically* about our generalizations using our imagination, and children will find that it is possible to reason logically that the angles of a flat triangle *must* add up to 180°, without doing any measuring at all[3]. (And further, that if by measuring we come up with 181°, then the extra 1° is a measure of the *inaccuracy* inherent in our measuring; it is our measuring that is wrong.)

As teachers, we don't help children understand what doing geometry is about if we encourage them to believe that the angles of a triangle really do add up to 180° because they've measured some triangles, or because they've torn the corners off one and arranged all three angles physically along a straight line. *Convincing them* is not the aim; *finding logical reasons* is.

Being logical is also not to be confused with being conventional

Just as children need to learn the difference between measuring and being logical, they need to learn the difference between being conventionally 'correct' and being logically 'correct', as well. Being conventional is a matter of social agreement; being logical leads to a *necessary* acceptance of truth (it is not a matter of any kind of agreement).

The fact that three-sided polygons are called 'triangles' is a *social* agreement (they might have been called 'trilaterals'); that the exterior angles of any polygon add up to 360° (that is, one whole revolution) is *necessarily* true – there is no choice about it.

(Have you tried drawing 'any polygon' yet, by the way? It is a two-dimensional closed shape, consisting of straight sides …[4])

3 The exterior angles of any triangle add up to 360° (because it is a polygon). Also, the combined interior and exterior angles at each vertex of a triangle add up to 180° (they make a straight line), so the total of all six exterior and interior angles together for any triangle will be 540° (i.e. 3 × 180°). Since we know that the exterior angles together account for 360° of this total, then the total for the interior angles together *must* be 180° (i.e. 540° – 360°).

4 Trying to draw a *general* polygon illustrates very well how mathematical objects are works of the imagination. We can define it, describe several of its visual properties, and develop valid theories about it, but *draw* it we cannot.

We learn conventional names for things in geometry in the same way that we learn conventional names for things in any other walk of life, simply by agreeing to go along with what everyone else seems to call things. This makes our communicating 'correct' in a social sense, but not in a logical or necessary sense.

We can help children learn this important distinction through the ways that we answer their questions. This in turn will help children learn that there are different *kinds* of 'facts' in geometry, and therefore importantly different ways of being 'correct'.

Because …

When children ask 'Why ...?', teachers need to make sure they give the right kind of answer. If a child asks, 'Why are there 360° in a whole turn?' we need to say something like, 'Well, the Babylonians used to love numbers like 60 that you can divide up exactly without using fractions, so they thought 360 (6 x 60) was a really helpful number for dividing up a circle'. (Or something like that.) In other words, it's a convention and one can point to a social history...

If a child asks, 'Why do the angles of a quadrilateral add up to 360°?' we need to invite them to *reason* it through. 'Because by drawing a diagonal you can divide 'any quadrilateral' (a generalization again, in your head) into two triangles, and we know that the angles of a triangle always add up to 180°, so 2 × 180° = 360°.' It's *logical*; we have no choice.

If a child asks (pointing to a shape), 'Why is that a triangle?' we need to be careful to give a full answer. 'It's called a triangle because we've agreed to put *all* shapes like that one (all those flat, closed shapes with three straight sides) together into one group, and call them all 'tri-angles' - probably because they all have three angles as well.' It's an *agreement* that could have been otherwise.

And so as children work with and explore shapes and movements, and speculate and try things out, they will find themselves both 'correct' and 'wrong' in significantly different kinds of ways. The ways we that use the word 'because…' will help them develop important distinctions. Children need to know *in which way* they are 'right' or 'wrong', and that in the world of shapes, as with people, 'a rose by any other name would smell as sweet'.

Parts, properties, movements and definitions – the social basis of geometry

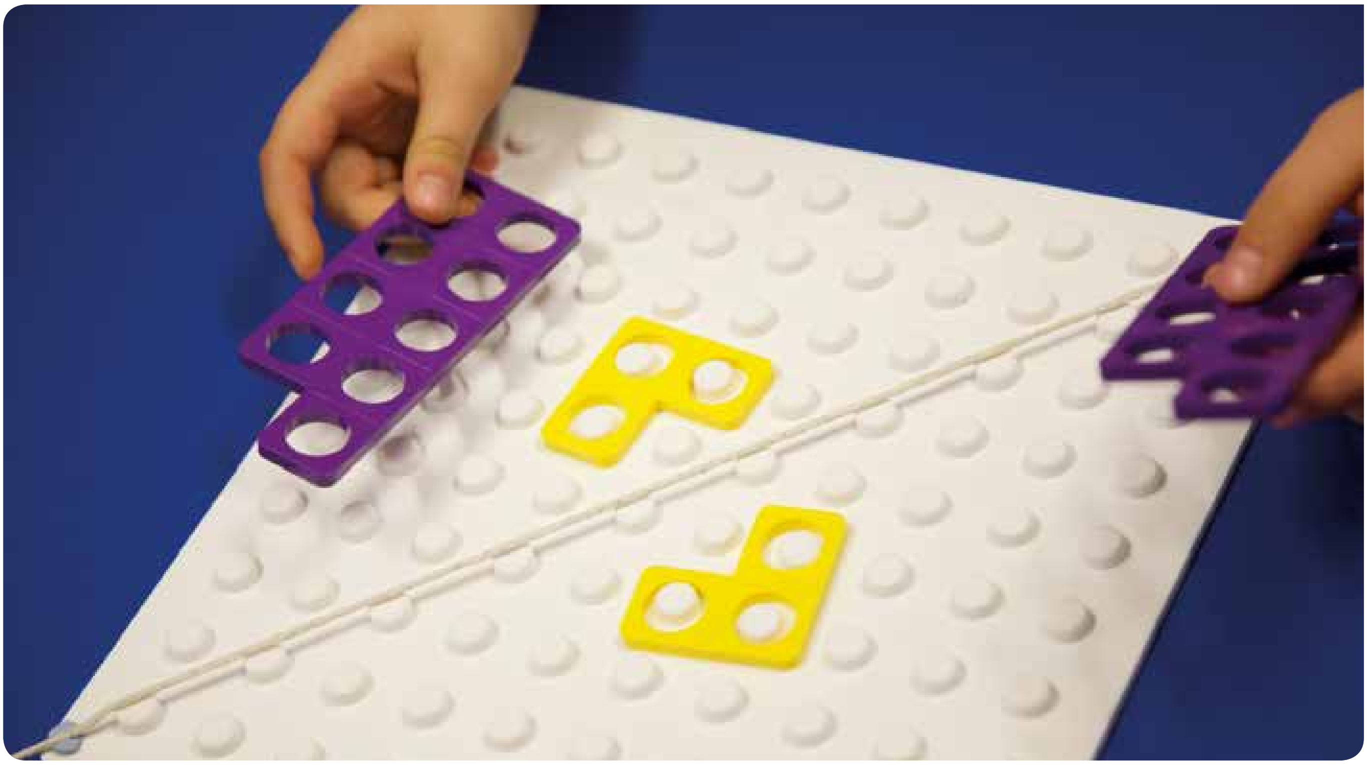
Definitions are social agreements in the same way as the names of the categories they define. We first *agree to define* categories in a particular way, and then later use those categories in our classifying and reasoning. Doing mathematics is the shared occupation of a social community, and within mathematics definitions are *chosen* (and hence allowed to change).

We tend to use parts and properties that we distinguish within shapes and movements to define our conventional categories , and so early work with children involves inviting them first to agree to our *distinctions between* certain parts, properties and movements before doing any categorizing based on these. None of this yet involves logical necessity; it is still only about inviting social agreement.

Initially children seem to distinguish between shapes that are named for them in a *holistic* way, simply learning, '*That's* (called) a triangle' and '*That's* (called) a square' and so on., without distinguishing any parts[5]. Gradually their discrimination becomes finer and they are able to distinguish **parts** such as 'corners' and 'lines' that they can later agree to call 'vertices' and 'sides' and so on. Later still children will begin to notice how parts relate to each other to give shapes **properties**, e.g. a trapezium has just two sides that are parallel to each other, or adjacent sides of a rectangle meet at 90°. Children also learn to distinguish **movements** from one another, e.g. between turning a shape around (rotating), and turning it over (reflecting).

So as young children make and handle shapes, fit them together, and move them (and themselves) around, they gradually learn to *join in* with the conventional language we offer them to describe the distinctions they see and notice with us. We invite their agreement to joining in with the language that reflects the distinctions and definitions the

5 See Van Hiele, P. N. (1986) *Structure and Insight. A Theory of Mathematics Education.* Orlando: Orlando Academic Press



rest of us currently use; all of this is social activity – and the agreements could always be otherwise[6].

Using transformations and invariants to name and define

By playing with, handling, and fitting together collections of physical shapes children will be using the Euclidean transformations of rotation, reflection, and translation. This is a world in which lengths, angles, and areas all stay the same (invariant, constant), and are therefore features *constantly available to be noticed* as shapes are moved around and fitted together.

By including similar physical shapes as well as congruent ones in the collection, the transformation of **scaling** can be imagined. (Note the transformation of scaling affects a previous invariant : area.)

Under the transformations of rotation, reflection, translation, and scaling together, the angles of a square stay the same – they are invariant – as are the **ratios** of lengths to each other. Paying attention to just these invariants leads to a 'square' being defined in our geometry as a polygon with *four right angles* and *four equal sides*. These invariants can be used to define the shape. As the actual lengths of the equal sides and the area all change under scaling, we don't use the changing attributes of individual lengths or area, which vary, in defining a square.

Triangles are a different challenge to organize – there are many kinds of triangle, whereas there is only one kind of square. Children need to make and meet many different kinds of triangle before they can realize[7] again that what stays invariant in any kind of triangle under rotation, reflection, translation, and scaling are the angles and the ratios of sides. They will notice that no one seems to care how long individual sides are, or how big the angles: as long as there are three of those things making this closed, flat shape everyone calls it a 'triangle'.

Significantly, noticing what stays the same and what changes as we transform something leads naturally to generalizing. In effect, children are learning to use terms such as 'triangle', 'square', 'oblong', 'circle' and so on. in ways that acknowledge that, for example, 'a triangle' (that is, *any* triangle) is a closed shape with three straight sides forming three angles. These are the *invariants* of 'a triangle' in the geometry we begin with at school; any other properties that you might notice when you look at a particular triangle (e.g. this one's got a right angle) could *change*, yet the shape would still be a triangle. Similarly, it doesn't matter 'which way up' a triangle is (that is, how it is rotated), it will still be a triangle. Orientation can *change*; 'having a point at the top' is not an invariant property of triangles in the geometry we use.

6 To help children realize this, one very nice activity is to invite them to make as many different pentagonal shapes as they can, and then to sort these into different kinds of pentagon themselves, also inventing names for the categories they make. Since there is no conventional tradition for this (as there are for triangles and for quadrilaterals), the experience can illustrate very well to children the fact that names, categories and definitions of shapes are all simply social agreements – which could always be otherwise. (Thank you David Fielker, (1981) *Removing the Shackles of Euclid* Derby: ATM.)

7 They are unlikely to be realizing this consciously, or be capable of expressing what they see in these terms. What they are *noticing* – informally – is that the 'corners' don't change however you move the shape about, and that it sill *looks as if* it's the same shape (i.e. it's what we call 'similar') whenever we do those things with it.

It is clear how physical experiences with a wide range of *dynamic* materials are essential for children doing geometry. The active, making, moving, describing, transforming and combining of physical shapes that children do with physical and IT materials forms the vital basis of their flexible *imagining* and forming of categories.

Gradually, through meeting, making and moving shapes in their activities and discussing what they and we see changing and staying the same, children learn to use words (category names) in the same ways that we do. These distinctions and agreed categories then become formalized into definitions.

Definitions essentially spell out explicitly the agreed boundaries around a category; they are a kind of *verbal contract* underlying discussion that is always open to revision and scrutiny. 'Triangles' become defined as, 'closed, flat shapes having exactly three straight sides' for as long as it suits us to look at them that way[8].

In our **Glossary** we list the definitions that are usually agreed for work in primary schools. Notice how important your visual imagination is to you as you read these agreements, and remind yourself just how important children's physical experiences with actions and movements are to them, as you discuss and invite them to agree with the conventions you suggest.

From defining towards classifying and relating

It is one thing to be able to distinguish and name shapes (and parts and properties of shapes), but it is quite another to be able to relate such categories to each other and to reason with such relations. Being clear about categories is fundamental to thinking logically with them.

In schools in some countries much early discussion with children focuses explicitly on 'different *kinds* of things' (or categories), relations between categories, and hierarchies of categories, so that children's attention is consciously drawn to the importance of category distinctions for logical thinking. This becomes important with children doing geometry as we introduce them to relations between categories of shapes and the ways in which inclusive hierarchies of categories lead to the possibilities of reasoning with ever broader generalisations[9]. Putting things into categories and relating those categories to each other is called *classifying*, and classifying shapes is one key way in which we put a conventional order and structure onto the many possible worlds of geometries.

Sometimes category distinctions are very subtle. *Logically* we can't add different *kinds* of things together; '3m 15cm' is not 18 anythings, it's *either* 315cm or 3·15m. Children will encounter this logical feature again when they try adding together, for example, $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$. Conventionally however, we often say '3 metres 15 centimetres' as if we've 'added' them together, whereas we've simply put them *next to* each other, one after the other, not combined them.

And so to generalizing in geometry…

In doing geometry, having agreed categories and definitions we then reason about mathematical objects and their relationships *in general*, such as 'a polygon', 'a quadrilateral' or 'a cylinder', or 'a sphere', and these generalized objects are similar kinds of things to those other mathematical objects we ask children to make - pure numbers, such as '6', or '23', or '⁻0·5'. As in number and algebra, in doing geometry we *reason* with our *generalizations* (whereas in measuring we're always measuring something specific, something particular).

What children importantly become better at as they work and develop through their primary years is the *virtual* action essential to generalising – they gradually become able to reason about '*any* quadrilateral' and so on, and it is only possible to do this in our *imaginations*. Any quadrilateral that we actually make or draw is always a particular one; the important *general* quadrilateral that we want children to be able to reason about can only be constructed in our heads, and the same goes for all the other geometrical generalizations we want children to make. In this important sense, geometry can only be done in our heads.

Notice that it's more difficult to imagine a general triangle, or quadrilateral, or polygon, or prism, than it is to imagine a general square; that's because there are many different *kinds* of triangle, quadrilateral, and so on, but only one kind of square (in our conventional classification). Again in this, the variety and range of children's physical actions, and the maximum use of *dynamic* materials (such as geostrips) is essential; the more *transforming* children can do physically as they notice and discuss what changes and what stays the same, the better.

When doing practical geometry with children always encourage them towards generalising with questions like, 'Will that *always* work ...?', and 'What if ...?'. And encourage their reasoning with questions like, 'Is that because ...?', and 'Why is that, I wonder ...?' And don't feel that some children are too young to be able to contemplate such questions; even before children are capable of answering them, the *habit of asking* such questions in one's teaching is what is important[10].It is for the children to do the generalising, the reasoning and the imagining.

8 If we move to another kind of geometry, perhaps with shapes on curved surfaces, we might want to change our definition of 'triangle'.

9 E.g. polygon → quadrilateral → rectangle → square, is one such inclusive hierarchy of categories, enabling us to *deduce* logically that the sum of the exterior angles of a square will add up to 360°, for example, because those of *all* polygons do, and a square is one kind of polygon.

10 'The palace of reason has to be entered by the courtyard of habit.' See Peters, R. S. (1966) *Ethics and Education.* London: George, Allen & Unwin p314. For Peters, this was what he called 'the paradox of education'.

Working in 2D and 3D

Essentially, working with shapes and space in three dimensions rather than two involves no change in approach. Work in 3D begins with children handling, rotating, reflecting, and translating shapes in various ways, and also noting that scaling only changes lengths, surface areas and volumes. A cube is a cube, is a cube, however big or small it is. Angles are invariant under these four kinds of transformation, as are ratios of lengths. Fitting 3D shapes together is also a key explorative activity.

Some agreements on names are changed in a shift from 2D to 3D work, and some interpretations of transformations shift up a dimension. So for example, 'sides' become 'edges' in 3D, a 'rotation' would be around a line (instead of a point) and a 'reflection' would be around a plane (instead of around a line). Curved surfaces become notable in 3D, as opposed to curved lines in 2D. These are all conventional agreements we invite children to join in with, as their experiences in 3D invite new *discriminations between* **parts** and **properties**, prior to agreeing to use these discriminations in new definitions.

Once 3D categories are agreed (e.g. 'polyhedra', 'prisms'), children can begin to relate categories to each other, to classify, to *generalize* and to reason *logically* about aspects of three-dimensional space. Reasoning about the possibilities of tiling in two dimensions, for example, shifts up to reasoning about the possibilities of packing in three dimensions.

Activities directly connecting 2D and 3D parts, properties, transformations and shapes are invaluable. So in the early years, printing with 3D shapes offers important connections between 2D shapes and 3D 'faces', and later on work on the 'nets' of 3D shapes does the same.

Essentially, work in 3D involves the same developmental sequence of activities as work in 2D: *discriminating between* parts, properties, and transformations in order to agree conventional *definitions*; *generalizing* from such definitions; *imagining* 'a (general) cylinder', 'a prism' and so on, and thence to *reasoning logically* about such mathematical objects.

Walking the line … a difference of perspective

Finally, much geometry activity is done from the point of view of 'looking *at*' shapes, and moving them around in front of us and so on. It is quite often very helpful however to shift perspective and to imagine walking around, along, and inside shapes. Young children do this readily and actually in climbing frames and playground equipment, but often, in school activities are done on tables with materials in their hands, which almost exclusively involves 'looking *at*'.

Programmable robots and the programming language 'Logo', however, allow us to explore shape properties, and position and direction in ways that invoke the 'walking along and inside shapes' perspective to good effect. And a shift in perspective often makes different things clear, and familiar things look helpfully different.

When children are 'looking *at*' polygons, for example, the only angles that are obvious are the interior angles. When they try making a polygon with a Logo turtle however, all of a sudden it's the unwritten exterior angles that become important – and the 'total turtle trip' experience travelling around such a shape allows children to appreciate how *all*

the exterior angles *must* add up to 360°, in a very different, and immediate, way.

Encourage children to shift perspectives frequently, and thus to unite experience of 'position' and 'direction' closely with what are often thought of as the more 'static' aspects of shape.

Doing geometry – using Cartesian coordinates

René Descartes (1596–1650) is generally credited with inventing a system for describing a position in space using axes and a set of numbers, called coordinates. This revolutionary idea subsequently allowed algebra and geometry to become united so that equations could be interpreted visually, and shapes could be defined and explored with algebraic equations.

Doing geometry with coordinates – uniting geometry with algebra – is usually called 'analytic geometry', and René Descartes its father. Analytic geometry is developed systematically in secondary school mathematics, but children begin to meet this approach with us as they are introduced to Cartesian coordinates in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4.

Geometry in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4

In Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 children are asked to further extend and develop the conventional classification of shapes, with particular emphasis upon types of triangles and quadrilaterals, and upon relating different types of angles to other shape properties such as the 'regularity' of some polygons.

Two types of transformation are focused on in particular: reflections and translations. Work on reflective symmetry is developed in several ways, including exploration of line symmetries at angles other than vertical and translations begin to be explored with Cartesian coordinates now defining beginning and end positions of a translation precisely.

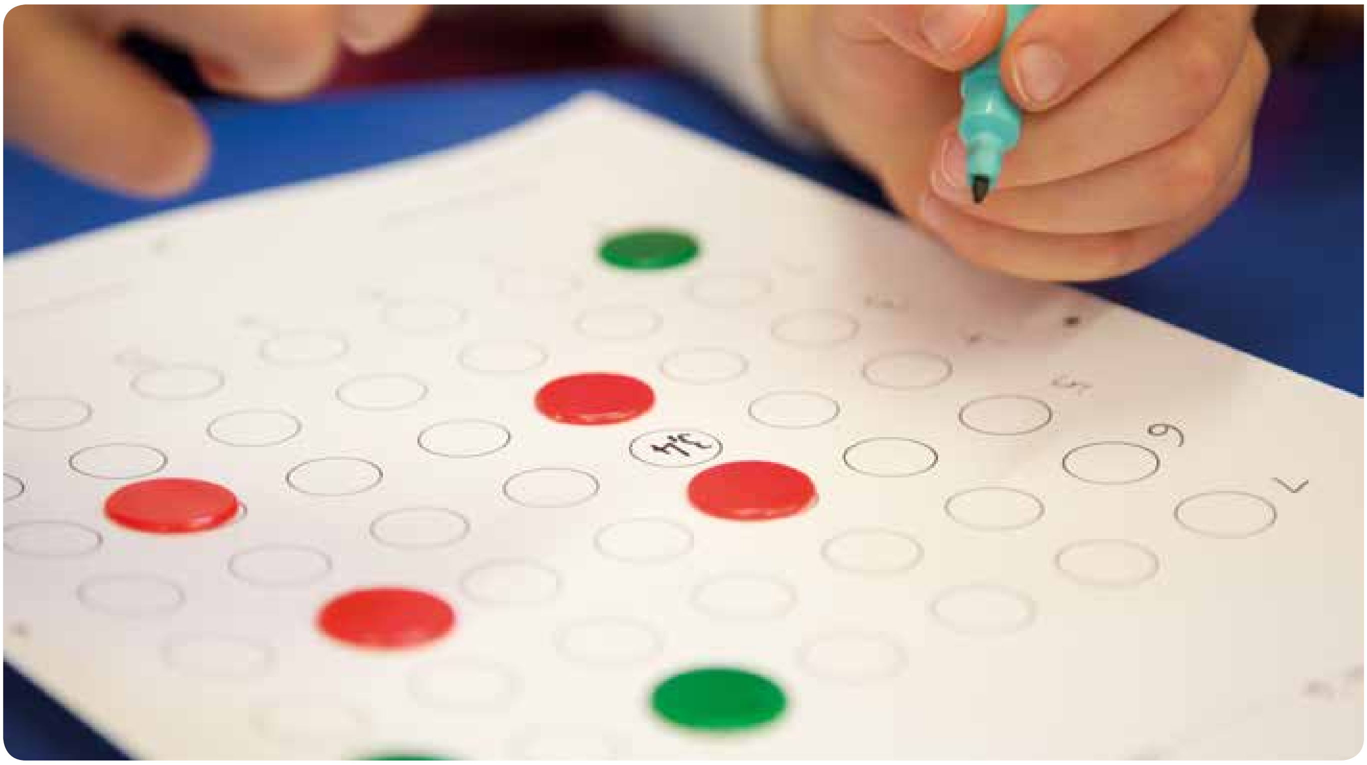
With the possibility of translations described as movement from (a, b) to (c, d), comes also the idea that a *line* may now be described as being drawn between (a, b) and (c, d). This then brings in the possibilities of 'plotting' whole shapes with coordinates, and exploring *patterns in the coordinates* of (say) symmetrical shapes. This is children's first introduction to what is called 'analytic' geometry, or the uniting of geometry with algebra.

The transformations

The four kinds of transformation children continue to include in activities at this level are: rotations, translations, reflections and scaling.

Rotation: Although not focused on explicitly in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4, rotation is implicitly involved in the exploration of lines of symmetry occurring at different angles. In all previous work, any exemplified line of symmetry has been vertical; at this stage, lines of symmetry at various angles are explored, as is the idea of some shapes having multiple lines of symmetry. This is, in a sense, like asking children to 'rotate' their images of line symmetry through a range of angles.

Translation: Having been introduced to grids of squares for locating positions in Geometry, Measurement and



Statistics 3, children refine this work here with the introduction of conventional Cartesian axes in the first quadrant. Positions are now described precisely using Cartesian (x, y) coordinates, and hence a translation can now be described very precisely as a movement from (a, b) to (c, d). Sequences of translations can now be used to 'draw' shapes on a grid.

Reflection: Line symmetry is further explored at this stage through allowing the axis of reflection (or mirror line) to rotate through any angle, through shapes and objects 'crossing' an axis, and for multiple axes of symmetry to be studied. In exploring multiple lines of symmetry the special case of a circle is considered, introducing the possibility of an 'infinite' number of mirror lines (diameters).

Scaling: children continue to work with shapes in various sizes (that is shapes that are either congruent or similar to each other) in all activities. The shape properties that are considered in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 activities are all invariants under the transformation of scaling, e.g. angles, parallel and perpendicular lines, and the ratios of lengths.

The invariants

The parts and properties of shapes that we invite children to notice and discuss at this level are all invariants under the above four transformations.

The particular new invariants discussed with children in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 include acute, right, and obtuse angles as properties of shapes (the so-called 'static' aspect of angles). The notion of a 'straight' angle is introduced in preparation for the later measure children will meet of 360° degrees in one full revolution (the 'dynamic' aspect of angles), which will allow 180° to be called an 'angle' even though in an important intuitive 'static' sense a straight line, of course, is the *absence* of an angle.

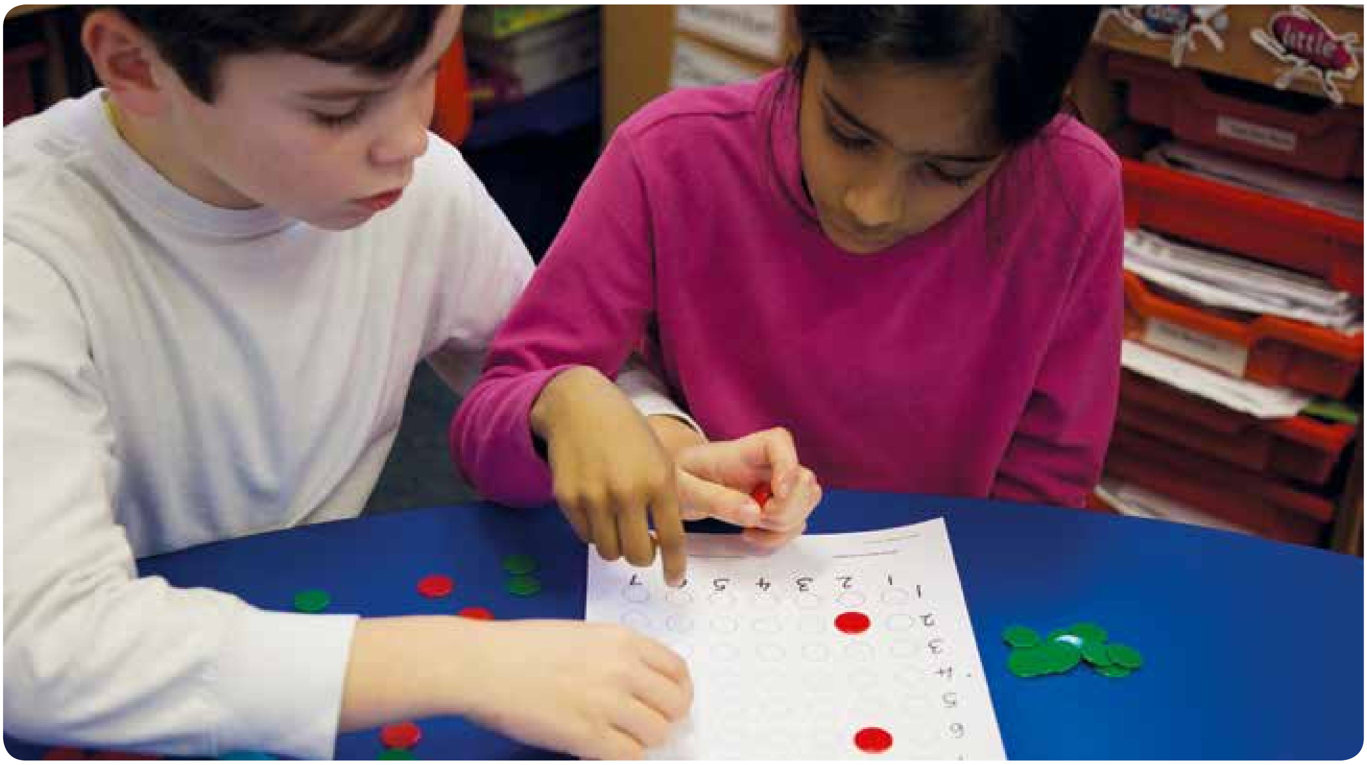
More generally, all these invariants and those others children have identified earlier are used in the further classification of triangles and quadrilaterals into scalene, right-angled, isosceles and equilateral, and trapezium, rhombus, parallelogram, rectangle, oblong, square, kite, and quadrilateral.

The communicating

There is *much* discussion to be had with children at this level as they develop their understanding of the conventional classification of triangles and quadrilaterals and the complex interrelations between categories such as parallelograms, rhombuses, rectangles and so on. Venn and Carroll diagrams can help to a limited extent, but cannot embrace all categories of quadrilaterals simultaneously.

It can seem strange to many children that one shape – a square – can also be a quadrilateral, a rectangle, a parallelogram and a rhombus; what's the point of all these different names?

It may help children to begin to think of 'a shape' as a set of properties, and that over the course of history it is the *properties* of shapes that have made them more or less useful for different purposes. A shape's properties are of much more use than its name. Thus the categories of shapes that we define are based on shapes' properties, and the interrelationships between categories are a consequence of shared properties. So, don't worry about shapes' *names* so much – ask about their properties.



Triangles are very useful because they are rigid; quadrilaterals can be made from triangles. Being upright is very important in our gravitational world, as opposed to being 'flat'; being upright is 'perpendicular' to being flat. Why are so many buildings the shapes they are? Why are there so many right angles? Circular shapes can roll. Why are so many creatures symmetrical? and so on.

There are similarly rich discussions to be had about our conventional approaches to position and direction. How does it help to know a position *precisely*? What use is a magnetic compass? In what kinds of situations might you need both?, etc.

Overall, quite apart from the actions, the discussing and the illustrating that are essential to the activities of Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4, children will find that broader discussions addressing the question '*Why* do we do things in these ways?' will help make these classifications and properties so much more meaningful and consequently so much more memorable.

Please see individual activity groups (and **Glossary**) for lists of the particular conventional terms likely to be introduced during particular Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 activities.

Key mathematical ideas: Measurement and Statistics in the primary years

Underlying the activities in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 are many key mathematical ideas that children will be developing and extending, as well as some conventions they may be meeting for the first time.

In order to teach these ideas effectively, those who are working on the activities with children will need to be clear themselves about the mathematical ideas and about which activities address which ideas.

The following section includes a brief outline of the key mathematical ideas that children will be encountering in the Measurement activity groups of the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Teaching Resource Handbook*. The introductory page for each activity group lists the key mathematical ideas associated with each activity. As you prepare for your teaching, you may find it helpful to remind yourself about the key ideas behind each activity by referring to this section.

The mathematics coordinator may also find it useful to work on the key mathematical ideas in professional development sessions with the class teachers and the wider school staff.

Introduction

It is important to remember that doing geometry, measuring, and using statistics are significantly related aspects of mathematics, and that each of these areas of activity has strong connections with the other two. (It is important to remember too that all three also have strong connections with number, pattern, and calculating activity.)

'Geometry' in ancient Greek means 'earth measurement'; many physical measures involve geometrical ideas (e.g. pressure is usually measured per 'square' unit), and patterns in data (themselves usually records of measuring activity) are commonly represented visually – as are numbers themselves, of course, in the form of number lines.

Each of these areas of mathematical activity also has its own distinctive concerns: shapes are commonly classified with little reference to their size; we measure time, force, and temperature as well as distance, area, and volume, and in statistics we are often concerned to interpret and illustrate a 'significance' in identified relationships. In what follows we treat these three broad areas of mathematical activity relatively separately for ease of reference to their key ideas, but when you are teaching each area be sure to exploit inter-connections at every opportunity.

Measurement and statistics in the primary years

We always measure for a *purpose*, that is, measuring something is never an end in itself. Because of this, children's experiences with measuring are most effective when set within purposeful contexts, for example when reviewing an arrangement of classroom furniture we could ask, 'I wonder if that bookcase would fit in that gap over there?' Similarly, measuring mass/weight and volume and capacity has a clear purpose when cooking, or in any other situation where we might want to be able to repeat something. Timing is important for organising deadlines and appointments. Cross-curricular links generally are invaluable for offering great varieties of purpose to children's measuring activity.

There is another consequence of measuring being purposeful that can be overlooked in primary school activities: our measuring in life is always only as formal, or informal, as accurate, or approximate, as suits the particular measuring *purpose*, on any occasion. As adults, we do not usually measure our drink of coffee at home in millilitres, nor do teenagers measure how far apart to put their coats down in metres when making a 'goal' for a game in the park. Standard units do not become appropriate to measuring tasks simply because children are of a certain age, or because they appear from some point onwards in a curriculum; standard units are not somehow 'grown-up' or 'proper' measuring and should not be introduced as such.

Standard units are used only on particular occasions *for particular reasons*, usually to ensure clear communication, and/or when there is a lack of personal trust. When trying out a new recipe we usually measure the named amounts precisely, because we don't yet trust our own judgment in the new venture; standard measures are very important

agreements in global trade, and in scientific communication – both contexts in which 'trust' depends crucially upon careful use of agreed units. (We might not use standard measures for our drinks at home, but we certainly expect them in shops, bars, and clubs.)

If children are to fully understand measuring, the aspect of *purpose*, and its consequences, needs to feature clearly in all work and discussions. Standard units are not the 'best' units, nor are they the 'most accurate'; they are simply the units most appropriate to particular occasions. Probably we do more measuring in everyday life without standard units than with; children need to recognize why they use the types of units they do when they are measuring in all types of situations. Standard units are necessary only for *communicating* and for supporting *trust*; children need to learn *when* standard units are appropriate, in context.

Measuring (contrasting and comparing)

There is a sense in which all measuring can be understood as comparing, in that an underlying purpose in our measuring action is always to compare **qualities** or **quantities**. Interestingly, not all comparing involves measuring – sometimes we count, and sometimes we order, to compare (the number of votes in an election, or the winners of a race for example).

It is worth noting that we can't do any comparing until we have first distinguished whatever quality is to be compared. Thus contrasting qualities (distinguishing between them) is an essential prerequisite to comparing, and so sorting, and distinguishing between, in topics such as length and capacity, different kinds of 'big' and 'small', are crucial preparatory activities with young children.

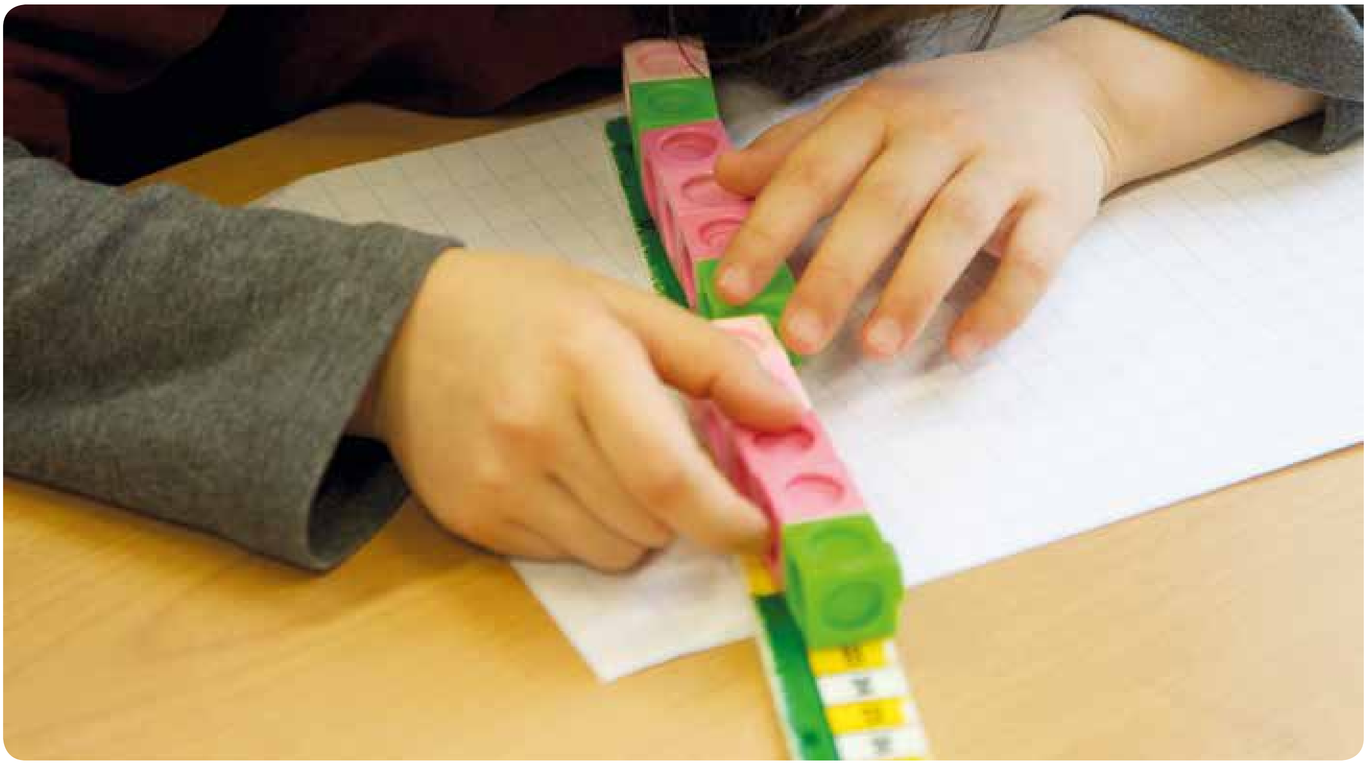
Measuring and counting – continuous and discrete quantities

There is an important difference between the two questions, 'how much?' and 'how many?' To answer the first, we measure; to answer the second, we count. **We measure continuous amounts, but we count discrete objects.** We measure time, length, area, volume and so on, but we count votes, cars, and the number of items in our basket.

This distinction is important – it leads to the consequence that where measuring involves a continuous quantity, the outcome is always an *approximate* figure. And this observation itself has important implications for our use of continuous measuring scales and instruments, and for always having to decide on an appropriate level of accuracy in any situation. (It also has very important connections with the work we do with children on fractions and interpreting the spaces between whole numbers on a number line.)

There are a variety of questions that ask about 'how much' of something we have, and thus lead us to measure: 'how far' and 'how long' ask about length, or distance, or time; 'how heavy' asks about weight/mass. 'Where is ...?' is a question that can invite a combination of measures, e.g. an angle and a distance. Volume, capacity and mass all tend to be asked about with the broad question itself, 'How much?' (e.g. 'How much sugar would you like in that?').

Children thus need to learn to use a wide variety of terms and language in association with purposeful measuring and comparing, including the usual grammatical distinction between having 'less' of something continuous, or having 'fewer' discrete things.



Measuring and types of scales

There are important distinctions between different types of measuring scales that have implications for the kinds of calculating we can do with measurements we have made, and thus for the types of statistics we can do with measures and counts of various kinds.

As a handy reference, in 1946[11] S. S. Stevens proposed a classification of measures that has proved very productive in stimulating debate, and that also connects usefully with our approaches to data handling and measuring. It is worth considering not only because of the connection with statistics, but because it explains why although 20 cm is 'twice as long' as 10 cm, 20 °C is not 'twice as hot' as 10 °C (that is, we can't do the same calculations with temperature readings on the Celsius scale that we can do with lengths). Stevens' classification is not put forward here as a 'correct' view of measuring, but simply as one that has an interesting and helpful relevance to the development of both measuring and statistics work with children.

As a psychologist, Stevens was much concerned with statistics, and his classification is thus concerned with both measuring and handling data in the contexts of physical and social science. In statistics, both measuring and counting are used in contrasting (that is, distinguishing between) and comparing.

The Stevens (1946) classification distinguishes four types of 'measuring' scale:

- **Nominal**: this involves simply distinguishing between (contrasting), and putting items into different categories, according to names or specific qualities, e.g. distinguishing between male/female, or distinguishing between English/French/Spanish, and so on, as different modern European languages. Distinguishing between team players by giving them different numbers on their shirts is a kind of nominal scale. Importantly, no ordering or value is involved or implied.
- **Ordinal**: an ordinal scale distinguishes between and also *ranks* items qualitatively, but without attending to any degree of difference between ranks, that is, such a scale simply compares qualities of objects or events by position in an order. The Beaufort scale of wind strength is one example, as is the Mohs scale of mineral hardness. Social surveys often use ordinal scales when asking people if they 'agree strongly', 'agree', 'don't mind', 'disagree', 'disagree strongly', and so on.
- **Interval**: an interval scale discriminates between values, and orders them, but also focuses on constant *degrees* of difference between values on the scale. Examples are temperatures in °C, or dates on an infinite time line. The intervals on the scale – e.g. in degrees or years - are all the same as each other, so *differences between* temperatures or dates can be computed and added or subtracted (and ratios *of differences* make sense), but we can't sensibly 'add' or 'multiply' with dates or temperatures themselves. On 1 January 2010 we could say that 1 January 2000 was 'twice *as long ago*' as 1 January 2005 (that is, a ratio of differences between dates), but we cannot compare two dates (or temperatures) directly themselves with each other

11 Stevens, S. S. (1946) *On the theory of scales of measurement*, in Science, **103** (2684): 677–680

in any other way apart from simply ordering them and saying how far apart they are[12].

- **Ratio**: a ratio scale distinguishes 'difference', 'order', and 'degrees of difference', but also includes an important, non-negotiable 'zero' boundary that actually leads to different possibilities of calculating[13]. The classic examples of ratio scales are our physical measures of length, area, volume, mass and so on. wherein it makes no sense to think of 'negative' lengths, areas, and so on[14]. Importantly, this also means that differences between values on a ratio scale are also values themselves, and we can thus make sense of *ratios* of particular *values* to each other, e.g. a difference between two lengths is itself a length (whereas a difference between two dates on an interval scale, is not itself a 'date'). We can compare two different values on a ratio scale in *two* ways: we can say that 6 cm is 4 cm longer than 2 cm (their difference), but we can also say that 6 cm is three times as long as 2 cm (their ratio).

The above classification might seem a rather complicated background to work in primary schools, but it can actually help draw attention to several key basic ideas in measuring and comparing, and is highly relevant to the kinds of questions and data handling with which many primary children can engage.

Notice that Stevens' classification is cumulative; first we pay attention only to *differences* between items, and we simply *distinguish between* various qualities. We can thus make categories. This 'nominal' scale relates closely to children's early sorting activities, to their early distinguishing of qualities such as 'heaviness', and 'volume' as refinements from their early global use of terms such as 'big' and 'small'.

Secondly, by using an 'ordinal' scale we still distinguish between items and qualities but we now *order* these categories or qualities as well. This relates to children's early comparing and ordering of lengths, heaviness, volumes, and so on.

Thirdly the idea of repeated equal *units* and specified *values* on an 'interval' scale is introduced, and the combining of (adding) and finding differences between (subtracting) values becomes possible. This relates to children meeting the idea of measuring 'units', adding and comparing lengths and so on, and introduces the possibility of meaningful 'negative values.

And finally, once scales that have all the previous properties *and* a fixed 'zero' boundary are introduced, *ratios* of values become meaningful comparisons. This relates to children progressing from 'additive' thinking to the crucial further possibilities of 'multiplicative' thinking in relation to measures.

Thus there is a close correlation between Stevens' proposed classification and the development of measuring and statistics with children. First we invite children simply to ***discriminate*** *between* various qualities (general sorting;

12 This is actually because in practice there is no necessary, fixed 'zero' point on an interval scale, and both positive and negative values can potentially be thought of as 'going on forever' either side of an arbitrary 'zero'. In later physics, children will meet the Kelvin temperature scale with its 'absolute zero' and also the idea of a 'Big Bang' and 'zero time'.

13 Interestingly, it is the importance of 'starting from zero', e.g. when we measure length with a ruler, that children often do not appreciate immediately.

14 We will also leave discussion of negative values within quantum physics and the notion of 'anti-matter' for another occasion; we're just doing primary mathematics at the moment!

noting qualities such as heaviness, extension, heat and so on.). Then we introduce the idea of ***ordering*** various degrees or levels of those qualities (***comparing***: e.g. longer than, shorter than and so on.). Next we introduce *equal* ordered degrees of difference in qualities (that is, intervals or ***units***), and thus the possibility of adding and subtracting (comparing) differences, and *naming* individual amounts (***values*** on a scale). Finally, with ratio scales we introduce the full possibilities of comparing (adding and subtracting) values themselves and ***ratios*** of values with multiplicative thinking.

Together these activities and objects (in bold, above) constitute the key aspects of measuring in the primary years, and can be used as key focuses for attention both in teaching and in judging children's progress. These are, as it were, the *roots* of measuring activity. Notice how in teaching, these key focuses are approached in the same order as Stevens' cumulative classification of scales.

A special note about money

Stevens' classification has been valuable for the amount of productive debate it has engendered, but a weakness in it is possibly revealed when we ask which type of scale applies to money. In terms of *cash*, money is measured with a ratio scale; you can't have 'negative cash'. But of course you can *owe* money, and that makes money seem more like an interval scale; 'zero' money becomes a fairly arbitrary point when you're a student, and both debt and riches appear to stretch potentially endlessly in either direction. Some *ratio* comparisons still work: £10 is still 'twice as much as' £5, and owing £10 means owing 'twice as much as' owing £5, but 'how many times' as much money have you got if you *have* £10 as opposed to when you *owe* £10?

It is worth noting as well that money is not 'continuous' in the same sense that time, length, area, volume, mass and so on. are considered to be. Thus *actual* amounts of money (like cash) are exact (not approximate), even though we see around us currency exchange rates quoted such as £1 = $1·51715.

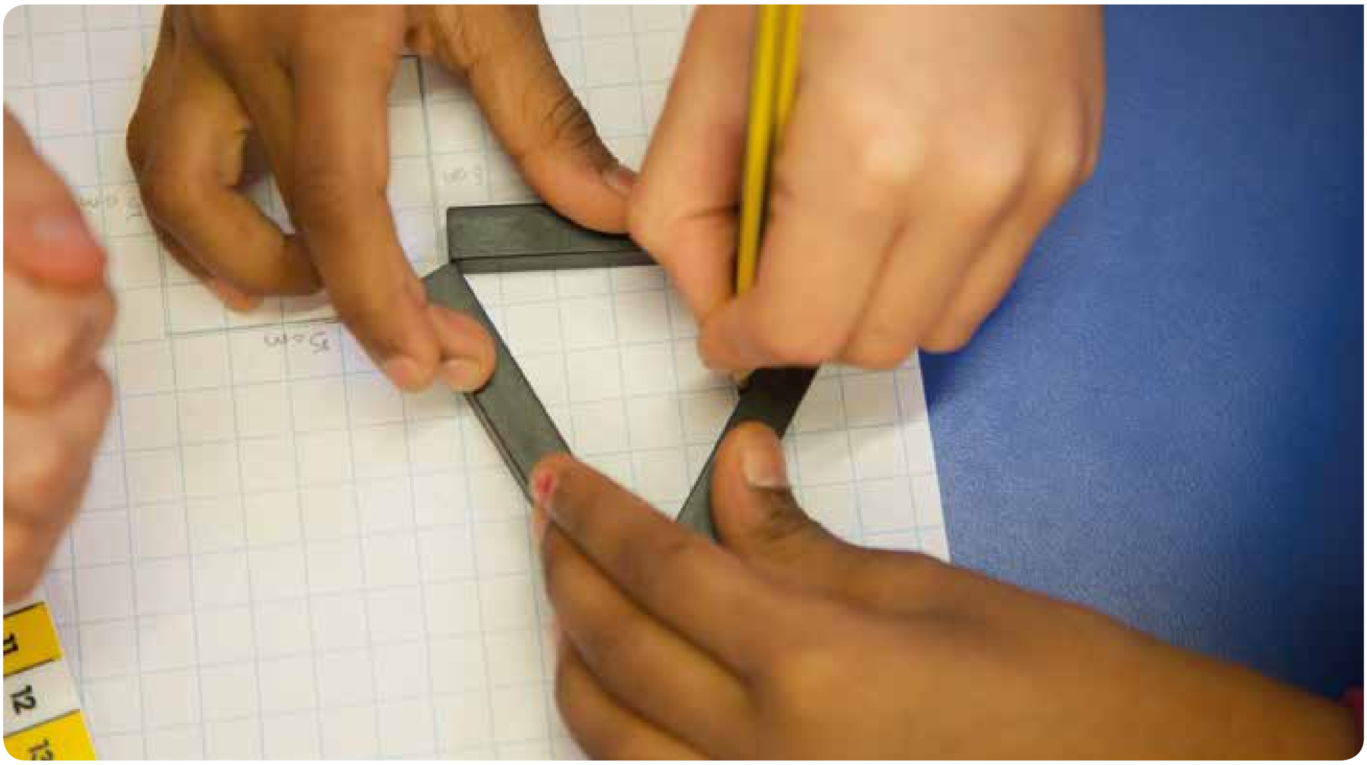
Money is included as a 'measure' (of economic worth) in the curriculum, but the ways in which it is used and calculated are significantly different to other, physical measures.

The physical measures

The physical measures introduced during primary schooling in England are: length, mass and weight, volume and capacity, time, temperature, area, and speed.

Length and distance: Technically, when we measure 'length' we measure what would perhaps be better called 'linear extension', and confusingly for children, in everyday life linear extension gets called different things in different contexts. Height, width, depth, length, and distance are all different ways of referring to the same quality of linear extension, and so children need to connect references to their 'height' and how 'tall' they are, with the 'depth' of a swimming pool, the 'width' of their bedroom, the 'length' of a football pitch, and with how 'far' it is to the shops, as all measures of 'the same thing'. Much discussion is needed around this great variety of language use, and also around the wide variety of instruments used to measure different 'lengths' and 'distances' in different contexts.

Gradually, children will learn that there is also an important distinction between 'distance' and 'displacement' when measuring 'how far' it is from A to B. 'Distance' is simply



an amount (a magnitude, e.g. how far you actually have to travel), whereas 'displacement' is both a magnitude *and* a direction (called a vector generally, and a 'translation' in geometry). In everyday life we describe the displacement between two places as the linear distance between them 'as the crow flies'; we assume crows fly along the shortest (straight) path between two points, whereas, e.g. the distance from our home to school will be further than 'the crow flies' because we won't be able to travel in a straight line. Because displacement is a straight-line path, we are able to specify it as movement in a constant direction. This distinction is obviously crucial in answering, 'How far is it from A to B?'.

There are interesting later developments in measuring 'distance' on a global scale; the shortest distance between, say, London and Los Angeles lies along what's called a 'great circle'[15] (a section, or arc of a circle drawn around the earth with its centre at the centre of the earth). Aircraft generally navigate along great circles, but typically if we are asked to say how far away Los Angeles is from London we are more likely to say it's '11 hours' away, than 5,452 miles. This also connects with the measuring of astronomical distances in 'light years'; when distances are large, the 'distance' from A to B becomes more meaningfully expressed in lengths of time than in units of 'linear extension'.

The standard (SI) unit of linear extension in all contexts is the metre (m). Length is measured with ratio scales (metric or imperial), since 'zero length' is an absolute. Consequently, ratios of lengths to each other make good sense, and are used frequently in both everyday life and in science.

15 Or it would be if the earth were actually a sphere; for all practical purposes we treat it as if it is.

Mass and weight: The 'mass' of a physical object is the pleasingly simple idea of 'how much of it' (that is, the material stuff) you've got; measuring this directly however, is not so simple. In practice, as Isaac Newton (1642–1727) pointed out, we take advantage of the fact that under the effect of gravity *weight* and *mass* are directly proportional to each other, that is, if you double the 'amount of stuff' you've got you will find that it now weighs twice as much as it did.

What this means is that (unless we are out in space) we can compare the masses of two objects with each other by comparing their weights; if a proud new father weighs 22 times as much as his newly born daughter, then we can be sure that his 'mass' is 22 times greater than hers (there is 22 times 'as much' of him as there is of her).

The standard SI unit of mass is the kilogram (kg) and in order to measure mass we do in practice compare objects with this standard unit by 'weighing' them – that is, by comparing their weights with the *weight* of a 1 kg mass. 'Weight' however is a force; it is the gravitational force acting upon any object, and in imperial units it is measured in 'pounds' (lb) and 'ounces' (oz). In the metric system the force due to gravity, that is, 'weight', is measured in 'newtons' (N).

The designers of space stations have to do their calculations based on the knowledge that in orbit the masses of everyone involved will not have changed, even though their weights will have. The force of a collision between two astronauts in space does not change however (it hurts just as much), because their masses do not change; even though each is weightless, two astronauts' bodies still have as much momentum when moving in space as they did on earth (and therefore will take just as much stopping).

In school, using the correct language for the metric system can sound odd because it is not the everyday language children meet outside school. In the everyday world we do compare masses by 'weighing' them, but technically we should not go on to say that the 'weight' of something is so many kilograms – that's its *mass*.

So teachers have something of a problem in deciding whether to use the scientific language of physics as they talk about the SI units of mass (kg), or whether to carry on talking about the 'weights' of objects in kilograms and – in everyday language – pretend that kilograms are units of weight. Many teachers talk of 'heaviness' to avoid using the word 'weight', and do indeed ask children to 'compare masses'; we recommend that you follow common everyday language use until children address 'mass' and 'weight' in their science lessons.

Both mass and weight are measured with ratio scales, since their 'zeros' are absolute. Ratios of masses and weights to each other make good sense, and are used frequently in both everyday life and in science.

Volume and capacity: 'Volume' is the amount of space something occupies, whereas 'capacity' is how much space there is inside a vessel or container of some sort, or how much volume it could 'hold'. In the metric system, the volumes of liquids are usually measured in litres (e.g. drinks, petrol), and the volumes of solid objects in cubic metres (m^3); capacities are typically measured in m^3, but can also be expressed in litres (e.g. a 1 ℓ bottle). 1 litre (ℓ) is equivalent to 0·001 m^3 (or, one thousandth of a cubic metre). Measuring either volume or capacity in m^3 introduces children to what is called a 'derived' measure; the unit of volume (or capacity) is *derived* from the so-called 'base measure' for length (m)[16].

Interestingly, 1 ℓ of pure water has a mass of 1 kg. Both 'volume' and 'mass' are in a sense measures of 'how much' of something you've got, but 'mass' is the basic scientific SI unit for how much 'matter' there is, whereas 'volume' judges 'how much you've got' by measuring the amount of space something takes up. In everyday life we tend to use 'weights' and 'volumes' for all practical purposes, e.g. buying and selling, cooking and so on.

In science, where 'how much matter' (or material substance) you are dealing with is generally much more important than the space it is occupying, we use kilograms to measure how much 'material' there is of an object. When we want a drink, we are generally much more interested in how much volume we will be given.

The capacities of containers and vessels are usually measured by calculating using the three dimensions of space (e.g. length, width, and depth), or by filling them with a known volume of liquid. Capacities are then typically quoted in both m^3 and in litres.

The volumes of liquids are usually measured inside graduated containers (or through pumps), or in the case of solid objects of awkward dimensions, volumes of objects can be measured by using a displacement vessel.

16 For this reason it is usually more effective to introduce children to litres before 'cubic' measures for volume and capacity; calculating with *derived* measures (e.g. m^3) depends upon a good facility with multiplying if the effort of the arithmetic involved is not to prove a distraction for children.

Both volume and capacity are measured with ratio scales, since their 'zeros' are absolute. Consequently, ratios of volumes (and capacities) to each other make good sense, and are used frequently in both everyday life and in science – particularly in the repetition of mixtures in specified proportions.

Time: There are several aspects to the topic of 'time': telling the time, duration, succession, and speed. As a compound measure, 'speed' is addressed formally in the final year of primary schooling, although it will certainly come up in children's everyday conversations from an early age as they are asked to 'go faster' or more 'slowly' or 'quickly', and as they experience 'racing' in a variety of forms.

There are two central ideas that children need to connect together for effective development of their understanding of how we measure time: the idea of *linear* time, and the idea of a repeating *cycle*. Linear time is the sense that 'time' stretches both backwards into history and pre-history forever, and endlessly forwards into an infinite future. The key visual illustration of this is (of course) the 'time line' – which bears an uncanny resemblance to the number line, even down to the fact that there is an identified 'zero' point for most cultures, 'before' and 'after' which 'things were different'. In the activity groups we refer to these times as BCE and CE: before common era and common era.

Work with time lines connects well with children's developing understanding of numbers as distances along a number line, and with their appreciation of different kinds of numbers; the ideas of 'order' and 'succession' are crucial in this.

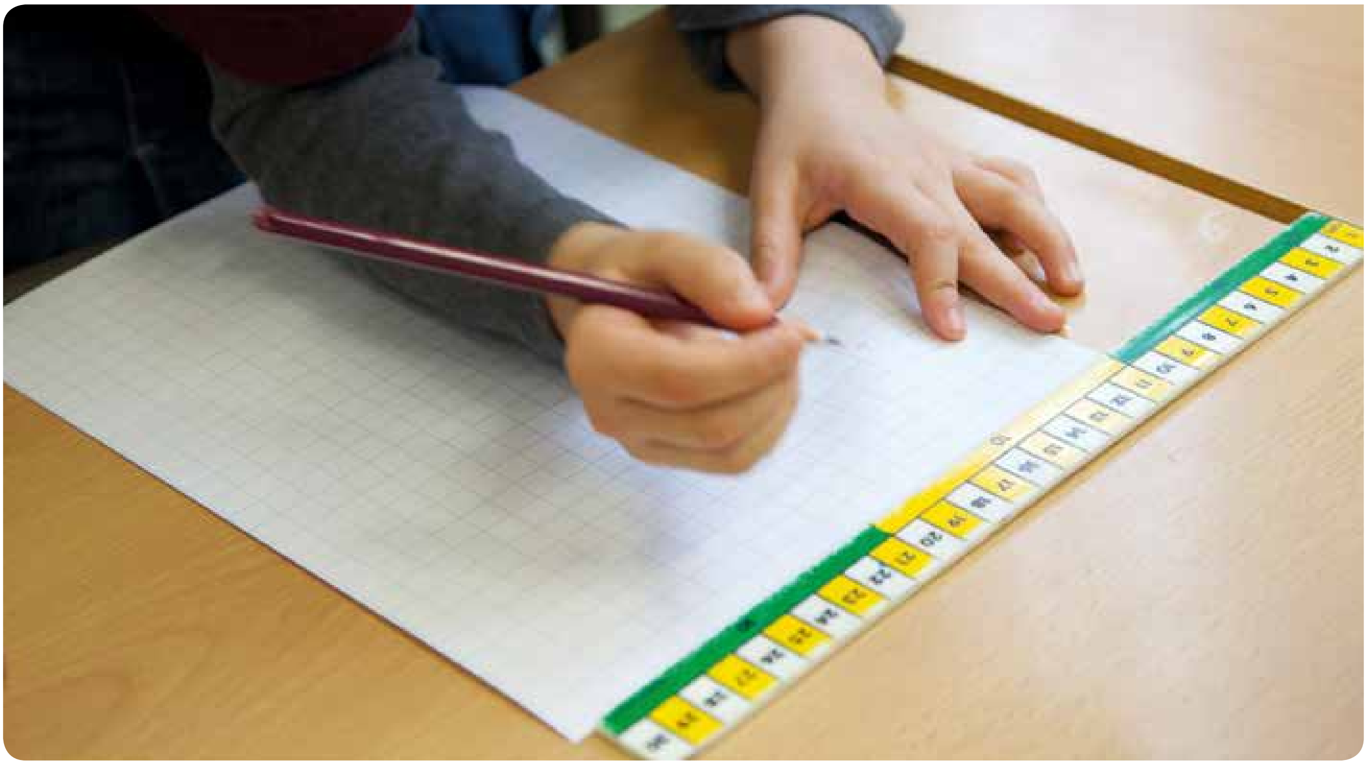
Since any time line includes an 'arbitrary' zero point (it could have been chosen differently), the line becomes an *interval* scale stretching potentially infinitely either side of zero. As such, ratios of dates to each other don't make sense, only ratios of *lengths* of time (durations) to each other; 4 hours is twice as long as 2 hours, but 4 July is not 'twice as' anything in relation to 2 July.

The idea of repeating 'cycles' is closely related to our experiences in a constantly changing natural world of moon cycles, daily (sun) cycles, and seasons. We use such natural cycles in our everyday measuring of time as we plan 'summer' holidays, prepare for important dates with our calendar, sleep 'at night' and so on. The hands of an analogue clock illustrate to children constantly how we measure time in repeating cycles.

Since both linear time and repeating cycles are crucial to how we deal with succession, duration, and telling the time, children need *both* kinds of illustration prominently as we work with them on measuring time.

Since time is also sensed rather more indirectly (unlike heaviness, volume, and sheer physical size), because the scale of time ranges so widely from instants to eons, and because our awareness of how fast 'time is passing' changes so much depending on context and mood, children are also particularly dependent on discussion, illustrations and active experiences with instruments to develop their personal understanding of time.

The standard (SI) unit of time is the 'second' (s).



Temperature: Temperature is a measure of how 'hot' or 'cold' something (or someone) is[17], and is measured in degrees on the Celsius (°C), Fahrenheit (°F), or Kelvin (K) scales. In Europe and in much of the world the Celsius scale is generally used in everyday life; in the USA the Fahrenheit scale is commonly preferred. In much of science, the SI unit of K (Kelvin) is used. Degrees Kelvin are equivalent in size to degrees Celsius, but the zero of the Kelvin scale is a theoretical 'absolute' zero meaning there are no 'minus' temperature values possible in K.

The Celsius scale is based around the freezing point (0 °C) of pure water (at one atmosphere of pressure, or sea level) and the corresponding boiling point (100 °C). Thus children will probably first experience the idea of 'negative' values (or 'minus' numbers) in the context of 'below zero' winter temperatures in either °C or (much more rarely) °F, and/or ice in everyday life, and this is a very helpful context to use when introducing negative numbers.

Since the Celsius scale includes an 'arbitrary' zero point (that is, it could have been chosen differently), it is an *interval* scale stretching potentially[18] infinitely either side of zero. As such, ratios of individual temperature values in °C or °F to each other don't make sense, only ratios of temperature *differences* on these scales; a drop of 6 °C is twice as big a drop as one of 3 °C, but $^{-}6$ °C is not 'twice as cold' as $^{-}3$ °C.

Children are very well aware of temperature through their senses from an early age, and so work in primary school is mainly directed to introducing the Celsius scale, and experiencing various types of thermometer. Many children will be familiar with mercury or alcohol-in-glass, digital, and liquid crystal thermometers simply from their own experiences of illness, but it is helpful for them to meet and discuss these different instruments in school as well.

Area: Area is usually the second 'derived' measure that children meet, after volume. The SI unit for area is the 'square metre' (m^2), derived from the base unit for length (m).

The intuitive idea underlying our conception of area is that of 'surface', and children need plenty of active experience with surfaces before attempting to measure them. Covering surfaces is helpful activity, so painting, tiling, jigsaw puzzles and so on. are all beneficial early experiences.

Since area is measured with a derived unit there are strong connections between understanding multiplication as an arithmetic operation and work on measuring area; the two dimensions of any flat surface correspond helpfully to the two numbers involved in the binary operation of multiplying. Visual areas are a most effective illustration for many properties of multiplication, and multiplying is essential to the measuring of area.

Since there is such a close connection between multiplying and measuring area, formal work on measuring area is usually timed to coincide with a suitable stage in the development of children's calculating.

17 Technically, it is a measure of the thermal energy per particle of matter or radiation; it seems the 'hotter' something gets, the more those little things get agitated.

18 This means that as far as the Celsius scale is concerned, temperatures could go on getting ever hotter or colder 'forever'. Only the Kelvin scale acknowledges explicitly that in our universe it is presently thought impossible for temperatures to become any colder than $^{-}273{\cdot}15$ °C.

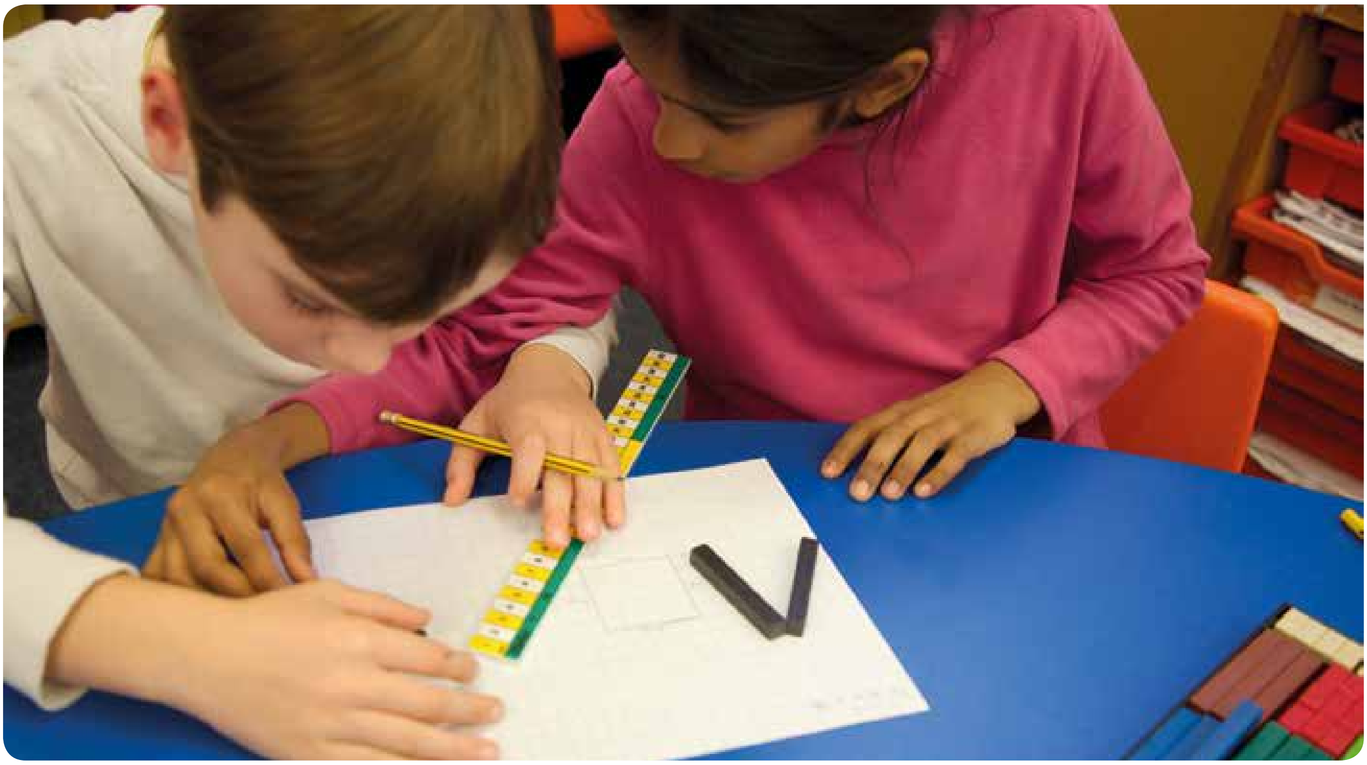
There are many interesting facets of our natural world to explore that relate surface areas with volumes and the significance of their relationships to biological life, e.g. babies and small creatures have *proportionally* much more surface area to their bodies in relation to their volume than adults and larger creatures. This is one key reason why babies and small creatures are much more vulnerable to extremes of heat and cold than adults and larger creatures, and also why small creatures have to eat so much more everyday (proportionally) than larger forms of life.

Measurement in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4

Two key developments at this stage are the increasing use of decimal notation as an alternative to use of mixed units (hexagesimal[19] notation in the case of time), and the introduction of further measuring instruments, e.g. stopwatches and trundle wheels. The idea of a 24-hour day, and with it the 24-hour digital clock, is also a key step forward for children's thinking about time. All of these developments are treated within everyday contexts that relate to children's own experience. Two further developments at this stage have much significance for children's future mathematical progress: the introduction of a first derived measure (area), and the introduction of continuous line graphs. As children progress through their schooling the idea of 'dimension' will become more significant and explicit, and the use of derived measures, that is deriving measures of area and of volume/capacity from measures of length, will both relate strongly to their ideas of one-, two-, and three-dimensions and fundamentally inform their later calculating. The introduction of continuous line graphs in **statistics** is a very significant step forward in mathematics for children[20], and builds upon their current experiences with continuity in measures of length, volume, weight and time (as well as with their illustration of fractions as lengths along a continuous number line). 'Continuity' in measures is closely related to both accuracy and approximation – two very important related ideas for children to discuss. It is because length, area, volume, weight and time are all continuous measures that any measurement of these can only ever be more or less 'accurate', and thus always 'approximate'. We deal with continuity at this stage of measuring by inviting much discussion of accuracy with children as we gradually introduce smaller and smaller units; children should be invited to consider whether we could go on being more and more accurate 'forever' (the answer is 'yes'). Finally, in the activity group on perimeter and area, early foundations are being laid for the mathematical idea of 'function', in this case inviting children's exploration of relationships between area and perimeter (two continuous variables). This is also supported in **statistics** with consideration of temperature/time graphs, which is another instance of relating two continuous variables.

19 Using a number base of 60.

20 'Continuity' and 'discontinuity' are two very fundamental aspects of physical phenomena in our ever-changing universe and thus have always been fundamental to science and to the language of science (mathematics) in relation to change. As water cools down its temperature changes continuously; at around 0° C however, its state 'suddenly' changes from water into ice, that is discontinuously. There is no intermediate state between water and ice; H_2O is always one or the other - until it vaporizes at around 100° C.



Length and distance: Decimal notation is introduced (e.g. converting 1 m 50 cm to 1·5 m), and much calculating is invited within the overall context of an athletics meeting. Trundle wheels are introduced. Use of a stopwatch is also involved, building a useful connection with activities on time. The importance of accuracy is clear within this highly competitive context and readily appreciated by children.

Mass and weight: The context of baggage handling by airlines is used as a context for calculating with mixed units and introducing decimal notation.

Volume and capacity: Two contexts involving liquids and mixtures – paints and perfumes – are used to frame problems in which calculating with mixed units and with decimal notation are necessary. Emphasis is also placed upon the distinction between volume and capacity, particularly in the context of the capacities of fuel tanks in cars and distances to be travelled on a certain amount (that is volume) of fuel.

Time: Using the contexts of scheduling (for the complex task of making a film) and journeys, further calculating with mixed units is undertaken and with the introduction to a 24-hour digital clock hexagesimal notation is extended. Accuracy is further enhanced with the introduction of a stopwatch and a developed appreciation of seconds.

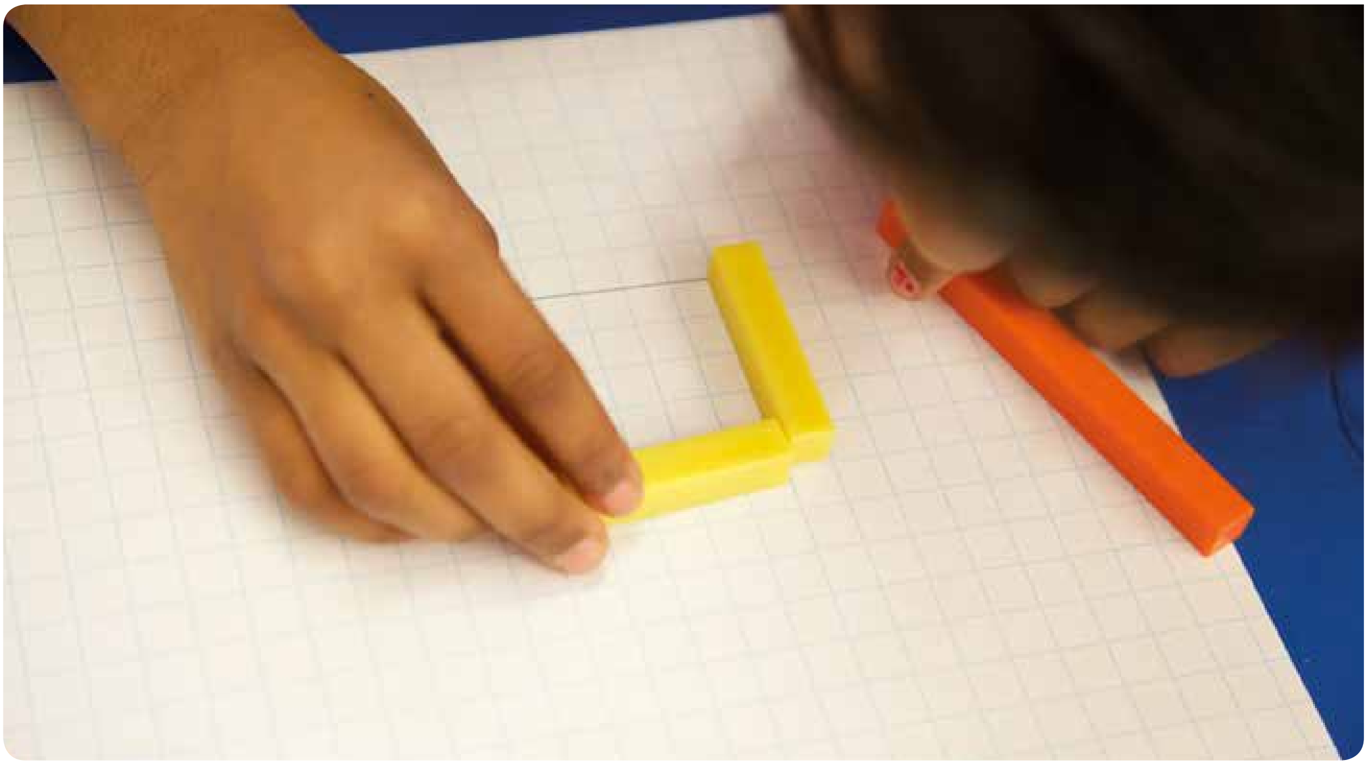
Money: Within the context of sponsorship in a fund-raising event, children continue to calculate with mixed units and connect money notation with decimal notation. It is worth having plenty of discussion around the different ways in which amounts of money and decimal fractions are pronounced. In effect, amounts of money are pronounced as if they are mixed units, e.g. £2·99 is pronounced as 'Two pounds ninety-nine pence' or just 'Two pounds ninety-nine' whereas 2·99 is pronounced as a decimal fraction, 'Two point nine nine'. Allow children plenty of time to absorb these distinctions and similarities.

Area: Within the context of fencing for fields, children explore different ways of enclosing an area of field with the same length of fencing, that is perimeter. This not only investigates a 'variable' (enclosed area), but is used as a device for explicitly introducing the idea of 'area' itself. These activities then lead on to measuring area by counting squares and thence to calculating the area of an oblong by multiplying the lengths of two adjacent sides together. In this sequence of activities children are introduced to 'area' as a derived measure (derived from lengths) and also, implicitly, to area as a 'variable' – something that may change while perimeter remains constant. These are two very significant steps forward for children mathematically and the activities deserve plenty of discussion.

Statistics during the primary years

As with measuring, no one ever uses statistics in real life without a specific *purpose* to it; in practice there is always some question or questions that people are trying to answer. Thus in work with children, any work on statistics should always be led by a key question (or questions) that shapes and directs the work itself.

The simplest of beginnings to statistics can be made with collections of real objects (perhaps things children bring back from a nature trail walk), about which a teacher could



ask, 'So, what have we got here then?', and children can be encouraged to sift through, discriminate between and identify various categories into which objects can be sorted. Answers then become something like, 'We've got some of these, a few of those, only one of those' and so on. The objects themselves can then be displayed, grouped within their categories and suitably labelled.

Note how closely this activity relates to the use of 'nominal' scales in measuring; there is no ordering of objects or categories involved, simply a *discriminating between* objects. Such work is at the beginning of handling **categorical** data.

Thus sorting through a collection of real objects, noting similarities and differences and organizing the objects into categories in order to respond to a particular question, precedes similar activities with collections of data. The important thing is that the statistical activity is purposefully directed towards answering an initial specific question.

The data-handling cycle[21]

Purposeful statistics begins with a specific question (A) being posed. At the next stage (B) one identifies the kind(s) of data that would help answer the question. The following stage (C) is when the chosen data is collected, and then organized (including any visual representation) so as to reveal any patterns of significance relevant to answering the question posed. At stage (D) one interprets any patterns found at (C) in order to return and try to answer the question at (A).

It is always best to choose an initial question within an area of topical interest to the children. So, for instance, during some work on road safety children might be being advised to 'walk straight across' roads, rather than to cross them diagonally. Discussion could raise the point that it takes longer to cross a road diagonally than it does to go straight across, and therefore crossing diagonally puts a pedestrian in potential danger for longer. A relevant question (A) could be, 'How much more dangerous is it to cross a road diagonally, than it is to walk straight across?' Children could then (B) discuss what kinds of data might help them to answer the question, and come up with the idea of marking out a 'road' on the playground and timing each child in the class both walking straight across and walking diagonally. Collecting and organizing the data so that comparisons can be made (perhaps involving the averaging of times) follows at stage C, and then discussion (D) could interpret whether the time differences found at C help to answer question A well enough.

It may be that children feel the first run-through of the cycle answers the original question satisfactorily, in which case the work is over. Quite often however, a first run-through reveals that the initial question was not quite 'fit for purpose'; the question is then refined, and the whole cycle run through again on the basis of a different question at (A). It may be that in the road safety example, children decide it actually matters more *where* you cross a road, than whether you go exactly straight across – in which case a different question can be raised at point (A), perhaps timing how much warning you have of impending traffic if you try to cross a road near a bend.

Thus gradually one gets to understand the purpose of the statistical activity by increasing refinement of the task as repeated cycles are undertaken. Children get to appreciate how

21 See Graham, A. (1990) *Supporting Primary Mathematics: Handling Data*, Milton Keynes: The Open University, for a similar version.

important it is to ask the right question in the first place, a range of data-collection techniques, data-organizing techniques, forms of pictorial and graphical representation, and approaches to interpretation, as different cycles are pursued.

In this important way, children come to realize that data handling and statistics are always undertaken for a specific purpose. That is, we do not construct graphs from data and then decide what questions those graphs could answer. We begin with a question, collect data, and then the construction of a graph to show that data can help us to find the answer to the question.

Connections with measuring

Early measuring and early work on statistics are virtually indistinguishable from each other; in both types of activity children are learning to *distinguish between*, to *discriminate*, and to identify qualities that may be measured and related. Of course how various qualities may be related to each other will eventually take children to algebra and the study of relationships *in general*, and any calculating involved in statistics automatically relates back to their work in number. Everything is connected, in doing mathematics.

As children collect and analyse different kinds of data, in different kinds of ways, to answer a variety of questions, they will learn to *distinguish between* qualities, between *ordered* and un-ordered data, they will need *units* and utilize interval scales, and *compare* amounts multiplicatively using *ratio* scales. In all these ways the development of children's measuring is woven within the development of their work in statistics.

Statistics is a key context within which measuring demonstrates its own clear purposes.

Statistics in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4

Children continue to be challenged to collect, organize, represent and analyze discrete data in appropriate bar charts, pictograms and tables at this stage, but a mathematically very important shift to collecting, representing, and analyzing *continuous* data is introduced as well.

As questions about continuity arise in work on measures of length, volume, weight, area, and time (questions involving accuracy and approximation and so on, see above), so children now begin to consider how various phenomena can *vary*, continuously, in statistics. Since change is an ever-present feature of their lives children readily understand things changing 'over time' and thus continuous line graphs involving 'time' are particularly suitable. Changes in temperature over time connect readily with weather conditions and thus very immediately relate to children's lives.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly how this work in Statistics ties in with work in Pattern and Algebra introducing the idea of a mathematical 'function' (see notes on 'Pattern and order' in 'Key mathematical ideas', Number, Pattern and Calculating 4).

When children are learning about sequences of numbers (in algebra) they learn that how big a number is depends upon whereabouts it is in a given sequence; when children are plotting a temperature/time graph, they learn that how high (or low) a particular temperature was depended upon the time of day. In both cases they are learning about how one thing that varies is related to another thing that varies, that is about a relationship between two 'variables'.

In mathematics we call a relationship between two things that are varying (two variables) a 'function' and an understanding of functions is fundamental to progress in pretty much all future mathematics. Studying how things relate to each other as they change is key to understanding most things in our universe. In addition to this, temperature and time are two *continuous* variables, which is why when we graph them against each other their relationship is plotted as a *continuous* line.

Allow plenty of time for discussion of these very important new ideas, and try to make lots of connections with algebra and with any situation you can think of in which one thing 'depends upon' another. Functions are about relationships of dependence.

Glossary

Most mathematical terms used in the *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 4 Implementation Guide and* Teaching Resource Handbook can be found in a good mathematics dictionary such as the *Oxford Primary Illustrated Maths Dictionary.*

Other terms you might not be familiar with or which may provide particular challenges for children are explained in this glossary.

bar chart

A chart in which data is presented as equal-width rectangular 'bars', each representing a different category, with the length of the bar indicating the value (see Fig. 1). The bars can be vertical or horizontal. Unlike a **block graph**, the length of a bar is not restricted to fixed intervals.

base-ten apparatus

A set of concrete materials designed to help children understand place value. Small cubes, sticks of ten cubes, flat squares of one hundred cubes and large cubes of one thousand small cubes represent ones, tens, hundreds and thousands respectively (see Fig. 2).

block graph

A chart in which data is presented as stacks of equal-size 'blocks', as in Fig. 3. (See also **bar chart**.)

bridging

Bridging is a calculating technique that involves partitioning (splitting) the number to be added or subtracted. For example, bridging across 10 exploits the adding and subtracting facts to 10 that children learn early on, e.g. 8 + 9 = (8 + 2) + 7 = 17. Bridging can be used across any number, and in the context of measurement might involve bridging across the nearest whole unit, e.g. 1 kg when working with masses expressed in kilograms, or kilograms and grams, or the nearest hour when adding or subtracting a given time interval to find a new time.

Bruner

Jerome Bruner (1915–2016) was a distinguished psychologist. His distinctions between enactive, iconic and symbolic representation have been particularly influential in the field of education.

communication mediator

A communication mediator is an object, image or action that helps communication in some way. These communication mediators need to be carefully introduced to children, for example Numicon Shapes and number rods become communication mediators when they help to illustrate discussions about the relationships between numbers, coins and lengths of time. However, there's no 'magic in the plastic' – a physical object or image is just a physical object or image unless it is actually supporting communication.

edge

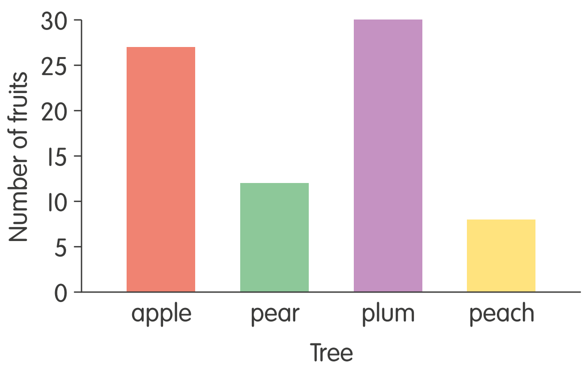
Used to refer to a ridge on a 3D shape at which two faces or surfaces meet. A cube has 12 edges, as shown in Fig. 4. Initially children may talk about both straight and curved edges; later, 'edge' refers only to boundaries of shapes which are straight lines. (See also **side**.)

enactive, iconic and symbolic representation

Jerome Bruner (1966) distinguished three key ways in which we humans represent experience to ourselves: through enactive (internalized action), iconic (sensory) and symbolic (e.g. language-based) representations. In the Numicon approach we seek to combine all three forms of representation so that children experience mathematical ideas through action, imagery and conversation.

face

The flat **surface** of a 3D shape. A cube (see Fig. 5) has six faces.



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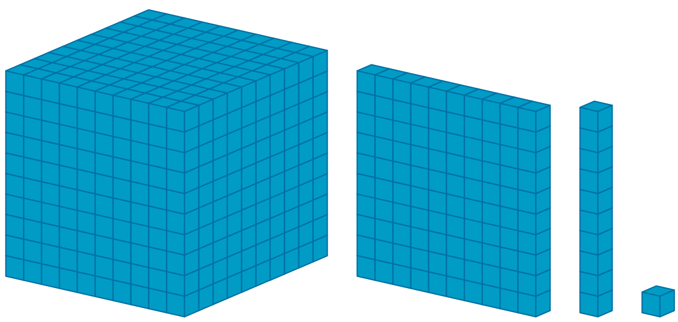

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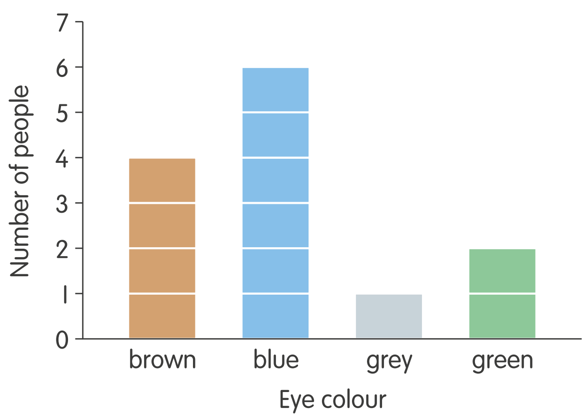

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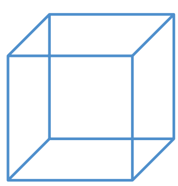

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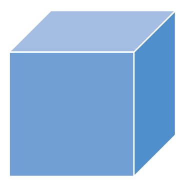

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flat 2D shape

A two-dimensional (2D) shape, such as a rectangle, hexagon or oval. 'Flat' provides a physical and visual description which helps children distinguish or sort shapes of this type, and hence to develop mental imagery and generalize about them (see also **solid, 3D shape).**

generalization

A statement or observation (not necessarily correct) about a whole class of objects, situations or phenomena. Generalizations are essential and everywhere in mathematics – numbers, for example, are generalizations, as are shape names. For this reason children need to generalize and to work with generalizations constantly.

length

Length may refer to a dimension of an object, and in this sense be used to distinguish from width or breadth, height or depth, thickness, or distance. Alternatively, and perhaps confusingly for children, it can be used as a general term to describe all these measures of dimension.

line graph

A graph that presents data as a series of points joined by lines, often showing change in a measurement over time, as in Fig. 6. (See also **bar chart**.)

mass

The amount of 'matter' in an object, which gives it heaviness or **weight** under gravity. The mass of an object is found by weighing it.

non-standard unit

In Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 1, children chose units to explore length, mass and capacity, e.g a distance in steps, or a capacity in scoops. These are non-standard units both in the sense that their size is not widely agreed (and may not even be fixed), and in the sense that they are not commonly used for making exact measurements. In subsequent Teaching Resource Handbooks, children work towards understanding and using 'standard' units of measurement such as millimetres, kilograms or litres.

number fact

The term 'number fact' usually refers to an operation on two or more numbers, together with its outcome. So '6 + 3 = 9' is a number 'fact', as is '256 ÷ 16 = 16'. In UK schools simple addition and subtraction facts are often referred to as 'number bonds'.

number names/objects/words

Adults often use number words such as 'four' or 'twenty-three' as nouns, and ask children questions such as 'What is seven and three?' In our language, nouns name objects, so we commonly (and unconsciously) assume that number words must be being used to name number objects – thus numbers are often treated as if they are objects.

It is important to remember that we don't always use number words as nouns; quite often we use those same words as adjectives, as in 'Can you get me three spoons?' One of the key puzzles for children to solve is when to use number words as adjectives, and when as nouns.

number sentence

The metaphor of a 'sentence' – in the sense of a unit of language – is sometimes used to describe a number fact written horizontally, left to right, as in '4 + 23 = 27'.

numerals

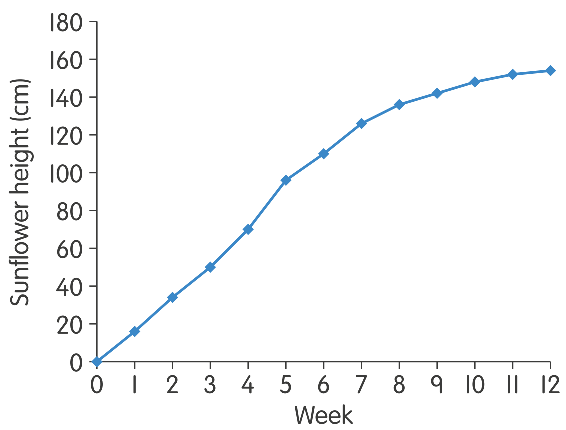
Numerals function as shorthand for number words. The numeral '5' is shorthand for the word 'five'. When used as a noun, the numeral '5' is often said to represent or stand for the number object we call 'five'.

Numicon Shape pattern

The system of arranging objects or images (up to ten in number) in pairs alongside each other; this is also sometimes called 'the pair-wise tens frame'. Fig. 7 shows the Numicon 7-pattern.

Numicon Shape

Numicon Shapes are pieces of coloured plastic with from one to ten holes, arranged in the pattern of a pair-wise tens frame (see Fig. 8).



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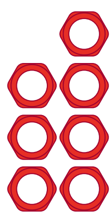

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oblong

A **rectangle** which is not a square – that is, a 2D shape with four straight sides and four right angles in which one pair of sides are longer that the other pair (see Fig. 9).

parts and properties

The **properties** of a shape are defined by how its **parts**, e.g 'vertices' and 'edges', relate to each other. For example, one property of a trapezium is that it has just two sides that are parallel to each other. A property of a rectangle is adjacent sides meeting at 90°.

Piaget

Jean Piaget (1896–1980) was a philosopher and psychologist who spent years studying young children and how they learn. He believed that the development of knowledge is based on developing cognitive structures and that children should be actively involved in their own learning.

prism

A 3D shape with faces which are all polygons and with a cross-section which is the same along its length. The cross-sectional shape is often used to name the prism, e.g. Fig. 10 shows a triangular prism. Note that a cylinder, although very like a prism, is not strictly a prism since its faces are not polygons.

rectangle

A 2D shape with four straight sides and four right angles. This means that a square is also a rectangle – a special case in which the four sides are also of equal length – and all other rectangles are **oblongs** (see Fig. 9).

regular polygon

A regular polygon is a closed 2D shape formed of straight lines which has all angles the same size and all sides the same length.

side

Used to refer to a boundary or edge of a 2D shape which joins two corners. Initially children may talk about both straight and curved sides; later, 'side' refers only to boundaries of shapes which are straight lines. (See also **corner, edge, side**.)

solid 3D shape

A three-dimensional (3D) shape, such as a cube, sphere or cone. 'Solid' provides a physical and visual description which helps children distinguish or sort shapes of this type, and hence to develop mental imagery and generalize about them. (See also **flat, 2D shape**.)

surface

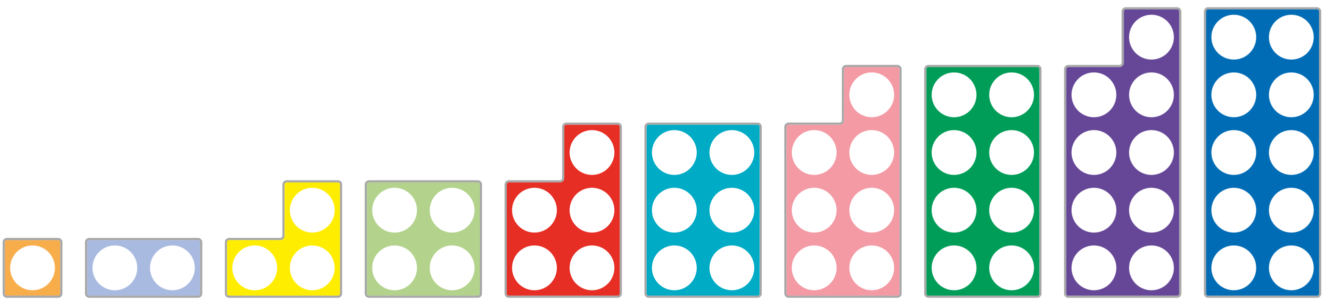
Used in *Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 1* to refer to the surface of a 3D shape; it may be flat, as in a cube, or curved, as in a sphere. The term 'face', which describes a flat surface only, is introduced in Geometry, Measurement and Statistics 2.

vertex

A point at which the edges of a solid, 3D shape meet. A cube has eight vertices, as shown in Fig. 11. (See also **edge, side**.)

weight

The heaviness of an object. By weighing an object to find out how heavy it is, we also find out how much 'matter' it contains – that is, what its **mass** is. The standard unit used to measure weight is newtons; the standard units for measuring mass are kilograms and grams.



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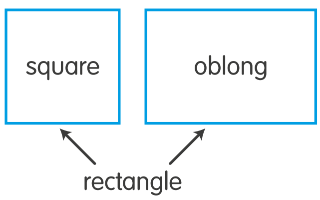

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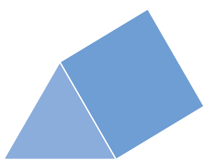

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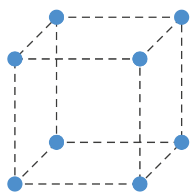

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