

IMPLEMENTING THE COMMON CORE STATE
STANDARDS FOR MATHEMATICS
A FOCUS ON ALGEBRAIC MATHEMATICAL PRACTICES

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MassMATE, May 23, 2012

edc.org/cme/mpi



QUESTION 1

Paul has all his marbles. There are p of them. Bowen has 7 fewer than Paul. How many marbles does Bowen have?

QUESTION 2

So there's this number. You can:

- add 4 to it...
- subtract 4 from it...
- multiply it by 4...
- divide it by 4...

And all four answers add up to exactly 60. What is the number?

QUESTION 3

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- C. What's an equation of the line through $(7, 3)$ and $(10, 5)$?

QUESTIONS, REDUX

1. Paul has all his marbles. There are p of them. Bowen has 7 fewer than Paul. How many marbles does Bowen have?
2. So there's this number. You can:
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And all four answers add up to exactly 60. What is the number?

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 - B. Is $(107, 68)$ on the line through $(7, 3)$ and $(10, 5)$?
 - C. What's an equation of the line through $(7, 3)$ and $(10, 5)$?

What mathematicians most wanted and needed from me was to learn my ways of thinking, and not in fact to learn my proof of the geometrization conjecture for Haken manifolds.

—William Thurston
On Proof and Progress in Mathematics

The Standards for Mathematical Practice describe ways in which developing student practitioners of the discipline of mathematics increasingly ought to engage with the subject matter as they grow in mathematical maturity and expertise. . . .

Designers of curricula, assessments, and professional development should all attend to the need to connect the mathematical practices to mathematical content in mathematics instruction.

—CCSSM, p. 8 (2010)

Eight attributes of mathematical proficiency:

1. **Make sense of complex problems and persevere in solving them.**

Mathematically proficient students start by explaining to themselves the meaning of a problem and looking for entry points to its solution. They analyze givens, constraints, relationships, and goals . . . They consider analogous problems, and try special cases and simpler forms of the original problem in order to gain insight into its solution.

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One CCSSM author says this is “the art of giving students problems to solve that they haven’t been taught how to solve.”

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In Algebra 1, variables start as placeholders for numbers, and problems should refer back to the quantities represented. Later, symbols become contexts in their own right, such as polynomial multiplication used to model probability problems. Tying calculations back to contexts is always relevant.

3. **Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others.**

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The roles of proof and justification are not limited to a geometry course. Students should read and understand arguments while learning to construct them. Proofs and methods of construction should appear in algebra and geometry. Problems should ask students to critique and repair common errors in reasoning, or to read and analyze an argument between students.

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Students build mathematical models using functions, equations, graphs, tables, and technology. They also use mathematics to build approximate models for data, including a development of how the line of best fit is calculated. Students decide when a model is appropriate and determine limitations.

5. Use appropriate tools strategically.

Mathematically proficient students consider the available tools when solving a mathematical problem. These tools might include pencil and paper, concrete models, ruler, protractor, calculator, spreadsheet, computer algebra system, statistical package, or dynamic geometry software. . . .

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Curricula should integrate tools and technology throughout. Students use technology to experiment with mathematical objects, to make tractable and enhance historically technical topics, and to build models of mathematical objects (both algebraic and geometric).

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Definitions can be capstones. Students work toward greater precision in definitions as they move through a topic, even between courses. Students read dialogues or watch videos about other students wrestling with precise language. Students learn to critique definitions by looking for counterexamples, testing to see if the definition captures what they want it to.

7. **Look for and make use of structure.**

Mathematically proficient students look closely to discern a pattern or structure. . . . For example, they can see $5 - 3(x - y)^2$ as 5 minus a positive number times a square and use that to realize that its value cannot be more than 5 for any real numbers x and y .

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Students look for hidden structure in arithmetic tables, and “chunk” portions of equations and expressions to explore their properties. Students transform area formulas to look for new meanings and connections.

8. **Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning.** By paying attention to the calculation of slope as they repeatedly check whether points are on the line through $(1, 2)$ with slope 3, middle school students might abstract the equation $(y - 1)/(x - 2) = 3$. Noticing the regularity in the way terms cancel when expanding $(x - 1)(x + 1)$, $(x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)$, and $(x - 1)(x^3 + x^2 + x + 1)$ might lead them to the general formula for the sum of a geometric series.

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This is what the opening problems have in common. This practice is a general-purpose habit that will serve students well in all their technical endeavors. Adults use this behavior all the time. Let's dig deeper. . .

SOME THORNY TOPICS IN ALGEBRA

- 1 Students have trouble expressing generality with algebraic notation.
- 2 This is especially prevalent when they have to set up equations to solve word problems.
- 3 Many students have difficulty with slope, graphing lines, and finding equations of lines.
- 4 Building and using algebraic functions is another place where students struggle.

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This list looks like a collection of disparate topics—using notation, solving word problems,

SOME THORNY TOPICS IN ALGEBRA

But if one looks underneath the topics to the mathematical habits that would help students master them, one finds a remarkable similarity:

A key ingredient in such a mastery is the reasoning habit of looking for and expressing regularity in repeated reasoning.

- This habit manifests itself when one is performing the same calculation over and over and begins to notice the “rhythm” in the operations.

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But if one looks underneath the topics to the mathematical habits that would help students master them, one finds a remarkable similarity:

*A key ingredient in such a mastery is the reasoning habit of **looking for and expressing regularity in repeated reasoning**.*

- This habit manifests itself when one is performing the same calculation over and over and begins to notice the “rhythm” in the operations.
- Articulating this regularity leads to a generic algorithm, typically expressed with algebraic symbolism, that can be applied to any instance and that can be transformed to reveal additional meaning, often leading to a solution of the problem at hand.

EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED ALGEBRA WORD PROBLEM

Think about how hard it is for students to set up an equation that can be used to solve an algebra word problem. Some reasons for the difficulties include reading levels and unfamiliar contexts. But there has to be more to it than these surface features.

Consider, for example, the following two problems.

EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED ALGEBRA WORD PROBLEM

- 1 Nancy drives from Boston to Chicago at an average speed of 50mph and returns at an average speed of 60mph. The driving distance from Boston to Chicago is 990 miles. For how many hours is Nancy on the road?
- 2 Nancy drives from Boston to Chicago at an average speed of 50mph and returns at an average speed of 60mph. Nancy is on the road for 36 hours. What is the driving distance from Boston to Chicago?

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The problems have identical reading levels, and the context is the same in each. But teachers report that many students who can solve problem 1 are baffled by problem 2.

EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED WORD PROBLEM

This is where the reasoning habit of “expressing the rhythm” in a calculation can be of great use. The basic idea:

- Guess at an answer to problem 2, and
- check your guess as if you were working on problem 1, *keeping track of your steps.*

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- Guess at an answer to problem 2, and
- check your guess as if you were working on problem 1, *keeping track of your steps.*

The purpose of the guess is not to stumble on (or to approximate) the correct answer; rather, it is to help you construct a “checking algorithm” that will work for any guess.

EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED WORD PROBLEM

Problem 2: Nancy drives over at an average speed of 50mph and returns at an average of 60mph. He's on the road for 36 hours. What is the driving distance?

So, you take several guesses until you are able to express your checking algorithm in algebraic symbols. For example:

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So, you take several guesses until you are able to express your checking algorithm in algebraic symbols. For example:

- Suppose the distance is 1000 miles.

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So, you take several guesses until you are able to express your checking algorithm in algebraic symbols. For example:

- Suppose the distance is 1000 miles.
- How do I check the guess of 1000 miles? I divide 1000 by 50. Then I divide 1000 by 60. Then I add my answers together, to see if I get 36.

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- How do I check the guess of 1000 miles? I divide 1000 by 50. Then I divide 1000 by 60. Then I add my answers together, to see if I get 36. I don't.
- So, check another number—say 950. 950 divided by 50 plus 950 divided by 60. Is that 36?

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- So, check another number—say 950. 950 divided by 50 plus 950 divided by 60. Is that 36?
- No, but a general method is evolving that will allow me to check *any* guess.

EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED WORD PROBLEM

- My guess-checker is

$$\frac{\text{guess}}{50} + \frac{\text{guess}}{60} \stackrel{?}{=} 36$$

- So my *equation* is

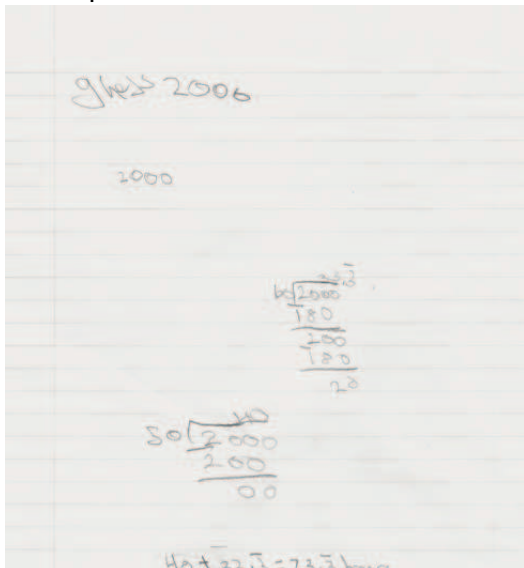
$$\frac{\text{guess}}{50} + \frac{\text{guess}}{60} = 36$$

or, letting x stand for the unknown correct guess,

$$\frac{x}{50} + \frac{x}{60} = 36$$

EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED WORD PROBLEM

Here's some student work that shows how the process develops:



EXAMPLE A: THE DREADED WORD PROBLEM

$$40 + 23.\bar{3} = 73.\bar{3} \text{ hours}$$

guess: 1500 mph

$$\begin{array}{r} 25 \\ 6 \overline{) 1500} \\ \underline{120} \\ 300 \\ \underline{300} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

25

1150

$$\begin{array}{r} 30 \\ 36 \overline{) 1080} \\ \underline{720} \\ 360 \\ \underline{360} \\ 0 \end{array}$$
$$25 + 30 = 55 \text{ hrs}$$
$$(\text{guess}) \div 60 + (\text{guess} \div 50) = 36$$
$$(x \div 60) + (x \div 50) = 36$$

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

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Graph

$$16x^2 - 96x + 25y^2 - 100y - 156 = 0$$

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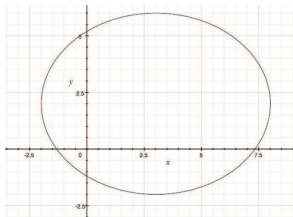
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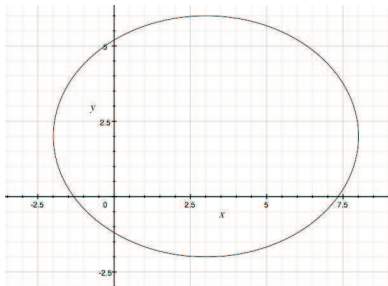
$$16x^2 - 96x + 25y^2 - 100y - 156 = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{(x-3)^2}{25} + \frac{(y-2)^2}{16} = 1$$

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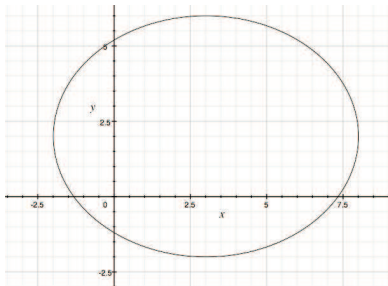
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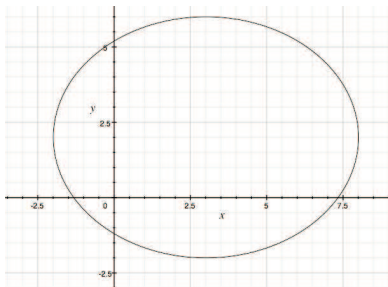
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Is (7.5, 3.75) on the graph?

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

$$\frac{(x - 3)^2}{25} + \frac{(y - 2)^2}{16} = 1$$



Is (7.5, 3.75) on the graph?

This led to the idea that “equations are point testers.”

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

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- Trying some points like $(5, 1)$, $(3, 4)$, $(2, 2)$, and $(5, 17)$ leads to a generic guess-checker:

To see if a point is on ℓ , you check that its x -coordinate is 5.

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- This leads to a guess-checker: $x \stackrel{?}{=} 5$ and the equation

$$x = 5$$

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

- What about lines for which there is no simple guess-checker? The idea is to find a geometric characterization of such a line and then to develop a guess-checker based on that characterization. One such characterization uses *slope*.

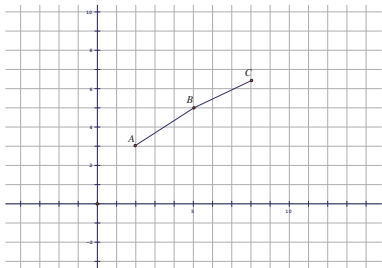
EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

- What about lines for which there is no simple guess-checker? The idea is to find a geometric characterization of such a line and then to develop a guess-checker based on that characterization. One such characterization uses *slope*.
- In first-year algebra, students study slope, and one fact about slope that often comes up is that three points on the coordinate plane, not all on the same vertical line, are collinear if and only if the slope between any two of them is the same.

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

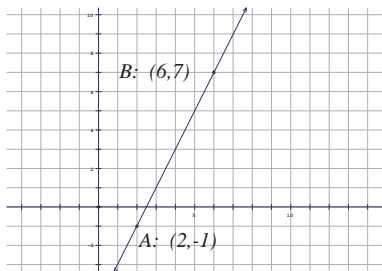
If we let $m(A, B)$ denote the slope between A and B (calculated as change in y -height divided by change in x -run), then the collinearity condition can be stated like this:

Basic assumption: $A, B,$ and C are collinear $\Leftrightarrow m(A, B) = m(B, C)$



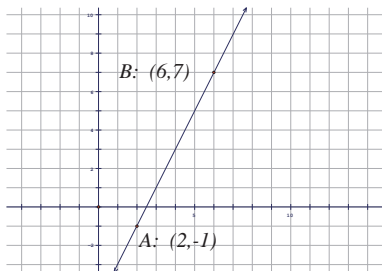
EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

What is an equation for $\ell = \overleftrightarrow{AB}$ if $A = (2, -1)$ and $B = (6, 7)$?



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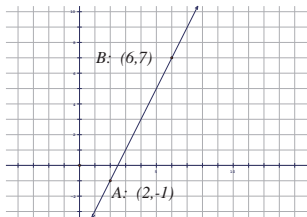
What is an equation for $\ell = \overleftrightarrow{AB}$ if $A = (2, -1)$ and $B = (6, 7)$?



Try some points, keeping track of the steps...

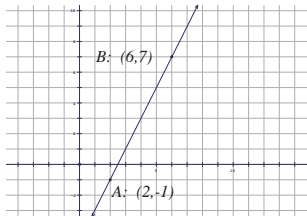
EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

- $A = (2, -1)$ and
 $B = (6, 7)$
- $m(A, B) = 2$



EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

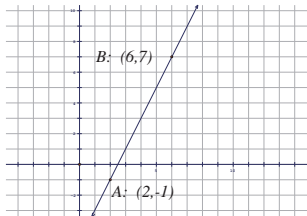
- $A = (2, -1)$ and
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- Test $C = (3, 4)$:
 $m(C, B) = \frac{4-7}{3-6} \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \Rightarrow \text{Nope}$

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

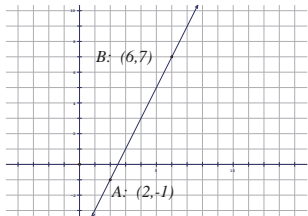
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- Test $D = (5, 5)$:
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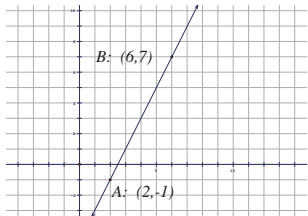
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- The “guess-checker?”
Test $P = (x, y)$:
 $m(P, B) = \frac{y-7}{x-6} \stackrel{?}{=} 2$

EXAMPLE B: EQUATIONS FOR LINES

- $A = (2, -1)$ and $B = (6, 7)$
- $m(A, B) = 2$



- Test $C = (3, 4)$:
 $m(C, B) = \frac{4-7}{3-6} \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \Rightarrow$ Nope
- Test $D = (5, 5)$:
 $m(D, B) = \frac{5-7}{5-6} \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \Rightarrow$ Yup
- The “guess-checker?”
Test $P = (x, y)$:
 $m(P, B) = \frac{y-7}{x-6} \stackrel{?}{=} 2$

And an equation is $\frac{y-7}{x-6} = 2$

OTHER EXAMPLES WHERE THIS HABIT IS USEFUL

- Finding lines of best fit
- Building expressions (“*three less than a number*”)
- Fitting functions to tables of data
- Deriving the quadratic formula
- Establishing identities in Pascal’s triangle
- Using recursive definitions in a CAS or spreadsheet

⋮

FACTORING ACROSS THE AGES

FROM A POPULAR TEXT (~ 1980)



Education Development Center, Inc.



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“Factoring Pattern for $x^2 + bx + c$, c Negative”



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Factor. Check by multiplying factors. If the polynomial is not factorable, write “prime.”

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1. $a^2 + 4a - 5$

4. $b^2 + 2b - 15$

7. $x^2 - 6x - 18$

10. $k^2 - 2k - 20$

13. $p^2 - 4p - 21$

16. $z^2 - z - 72$

19. $p^2 - 5pq - 50q^2$

22. $s^2 + 14st - 72t^2$

2. $x^2 - 2x - 3$

5. $c^2 - 11c - 10$

8. $y^2 - 10c - 24$

11. $z^2 + 5z - 36$

14. $a^2 + 3a - 54$

17. $a^2 - ab - 30b^2$

20. $a^2 - 4ab - 77b^2$

23. $x^2 - 9xy - 22y^2$

3. $y^2 - 5y - 6$

6. $r^2 - 16r - 28$

9. $a^2 + 2a - 35$

12. $r^2 - 3r - 40$

15. $y^2 - 5y - 30$

18. $k^2 - 11kd - 60d^2$

21. $y^2 - 2yz - 3z^2$

24. $p^2 - pq - 72q^2$

FACTORING ACROSS THE AGES

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To factor a trinomial of the form $ax^2 + bx + c$ where $a > 0$, follow these steps:

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A	B	C
F	H	D
G	I	E

FACTORIZING ACROSS THE AGES

FROM A PUBLISHED TEXT (2010)

To factor a trinomial of the form $ax^2 + bx + c$ where $a > 0$, follow these steps:

<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>
<i>F</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>D</i>
<i>G</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>E</i>

- 1 Identify the values of a , b , c . Put a in Box A and c in Box B . Put the product of a and c in Box C .
- 2 List the factors of the number from Box C and identify the pair whose sum is b . Put the two factors you find in Box D and E .
- 3 Find the greatest common factor of Boxes A [sic] and E and put it in box G .

A	B	C
F	H	D
G	I	E

- 4 In Box F , place the number you multiply by Box G to get Box A .
- 5 In Box H , place the number you multiply by Box F to get Box D .
- 6 In Box I , place the number you multiply by Box G to get Box E .

Solution: The binomial factors whose product gives the trinomial are $(Fx + I)(Gx + H)$.

FACTORING USING THE STRUCTURE PRACTICE

Factoring monic quadratics:

“Sum-Product” problems

$$x^2 + 14x + 48$$

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Find two numbers whose sum is 14 and whose product is 48.

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so...

Find two numbers whose sum is 14 and whose product is 48.

$$(x + 6)(x + 8)$$

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What about this one?

$$49x^2 + 35x + 6$$

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$$6(6x^2 + 31x + 35) = (6x)^2 + 31(6x) + 210$$

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$$6x^2 + 31x + 35 = (2x + 7)(3x + 5)$$

FACTORIZING USING THE STRUCTURE PRACTICE

- This technique is perfectly general and can be used to transform a polynomial of any degree into one whose leading coefficient is 1.
- And it fits into the larger landscape of the *theory of equations* that shows how to use similar transformations to
 - remove terms
 - transform roots
 - derive “formulas” for equations of degree 3 and 4
 - extend the notion of *discriminant* to higher degrees

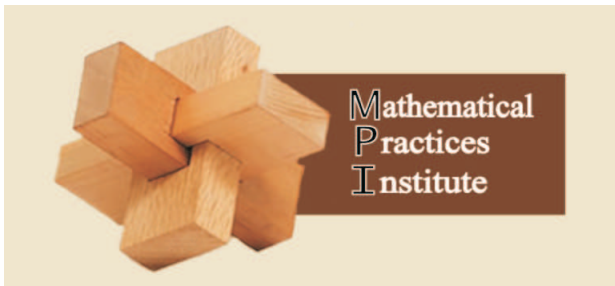
OTHER EXAMPLES WHERE CHUNKING IS USEFUL

- Completing the square and removing terms
- Solving trig equations
- Analyzing conics and other curves
- All over calculus
- Interpreting results from a computer algebra system

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FOR MORE INFORMATION

ABOUT MPI PROGRAMS



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