Unit 1 - Equations: Linear & Quadratic

Content Area: **Mathematics**
Course(s): **Integrated Modern Algebra**
Time Period: **September**
Length: **4 weeks**
Status: **Published**

Enduring Understandings

All of the facts of arithmetic and algebra follow from certain properties.

Useful information about equations can be found by analyzing graphs or tables.

Variety of methods can be used to solve an equation and arrive at the same solution.

Essential Questions

Can equations that appear to be different be equivalent?

How do you represent relationships between quantities that are not equal?

How can you solve quadratic equations using concrete models, tables, graphs, and algebraic method?

Content

Vocabulary

Equation
Quadratic
Zeros
Factor

Complete the Square

Skills

Solve linear equations in one variable justifying each step.

Use a graphing calculator to solve an equation in one variable by graphing both sides of the equation and finding the point of intersection. Explain the solution both in and out of context.

Recognize when linear equations that have one solution, no solution or infinitely many solutions.

Factor quadratics and relate the value of the discriminant to determine if a quadratic is factorable.

Solve quadratic equations by inspection (e.g., for $x^2 = 49$), taking square roots, completing the square, the quadratic formula and factoring, as appropriate to the initial form of the equation.

Relate the value of the discriminant to the type of zero to expect for the graph of a quadratic function. (one real root, two real zeros, no real zeros and rational or irrational)

Use the method of completing the square to transform any quadratic equation in x into an equation of the form $(x – p)^2 = q$ that has the same solutions.

Use a graphing calculator to solve a quadratic equation in one variable by setting equal to zero and calculating zeros.

Construct a viable argument to justify a solution method when solving equations and critique mistakes of others.

Standards

CCSS.Math.Content.HSA-REI.A.1	Explain each step in solving a simple equation as following from the equality of numbers asserted at the previous step, starting from the assumption that the original equation has a solution. Construct a viable argument to justify a solution method.
CCSS.Math.Content.HSA-REI.B.3	Solve linear equations and inequalities in one variable, including equations with coefficients represented by letters.
CCSS.Math.Content.HSA-REI.B.4.b	Solve quadratic equations by inspection (e.g., for $x^2 = 49$), taking square roots, completing the square, the quadratic formula and factoring, as appropriate to the initial form of the equation. Recognize when the quadratic formula gives complex solutions and write them as $a \pm bi$ for real numbers a and b.
CCSS.Math.Content.HSA-REI.D.11	Explain why the x-coordinates of the points where the graphs of the equations $y = f(x)$ and $y = g(x)$ intersect are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = g(x)$; find the solutions approximately, e.g., using technology to graph the functions, make tables of values, or find successive approximations. Include cases where $f(x)$ and/or $g(x)$ are linear, polynomial, rational, absolute value, exponential, and logarithmic functions.
CCSS.Math.Content.HSA-SSE.B.3.a	Factor a quadratic expression to reveal the zeros of the function it defines.

Mathematically proficient students look closely to discern a pattern or structure. Young students, for example, might notice that three and seven more is the same amount as seven and three more, or they may sort a collection of shapes according to how many sides the shapes have. Later, students will see 7 × 8 equals the well remembered 7 × 5 + 7 × 3, in preparation for learning about the distributive property. In the expression $x^2 + 9x + 14$, older students can see the 14 as 2 × 7 and the 9 as 2 + 7. They recognize the significance of an existing line in a geometric figure and can use the strategy of drawing an auxiliary line for solving problems. They also can step back for an overview and shift perspective. They can see complicated things, such as some algebraic expressions, as single objects or as being composed of several objects. 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.

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 make conjectures about the form and meaning of the solution and plan a solution pathway rather than simply jumping into a solution attempt. They consider analogous problems, and try special cases and simpler forms of the original problem in order to gain insight into its solution. They monitor and evaluate their progress and change course if necessary. Older students might, depending on the context of the problem, transform algebraic expressions or change the viewing window on their graphing calculator to get the information they need. Mathematically proficient students can explain correspondences between equations, verbal descriptions, tables, and graphs or draw diagrams of important features and relationships, graph data, and search for regularity or trends. Younger students might rely on using concrete objects or pictures to help conceptualize and solve a problem. Mathematically proficient students check their answers to problems using a different method, and they continually ask themselves, "Does this make sense?" They can understand the approaches of others to solving complex problems and identify correspondences between different approaches.

Mathematically proficient students make sense of quantities and their relationships in problem situations. They bring two complementary abilities to bear on problems involving quantitative relationships: the ability to decontextualize-to abstract a given situation and represent it symbolically and manipulate the representing symbols as if they have a life of their own, without necessarily attending to their referents-and the ability to contextualize, to pause as needed during the manipulation process in order to probe into the referents for the symbols involved. Quantitative reasoning entails habits of creating a coherent representation of the problem at hand; considering the units involved; attending to the meaning of quantities, not just how to compute them; and knowing and flexibly using different properties of operations and objects.

Mathematically proficient students understand and use stated assumptions, definitions, and previously established results in constructing arguments. They make conjectures and build a logical progression of statements to explore the truth of their conjectures. They are able to analyze situations by breaking them into cases, and can recognize and use counterexamples. They justify their conclusions, communicate them to others, and respond to the arguments of others. They reason inductively about data, making plausible arguments that take into account the context from which the data arose. Mathematically proficient students are also able to compare the effectiveness of two plausible arguments, distinguish correct logic or reasoning from that which is flawed, and-if there is a flaw in an argument-explain what it is. Elementary students can construct arguments using concrete referents such as objects, drawings, diagrams, and actions. Such arguments can make sense and be correct, even though they are not generalized or made formal until later grades. Later, students learn to determine domains to which an argument applies. Students at all grades can listen or read the arguments of others, decide whether they make sense, and ask useful questions to clarify or improve the arguments.