165-Day Pacing



Searching for Patterns

Module Pacing: 32 Days

Topic 1: Quantities and Relationships

ELPS: 1.A, 1.C, 1.E, 1.F, 1.G, 2.C, 2.E, 2.I, 3.D, 3.E, 4.B, 4.C, 5.B, 5.F, 5.G

		40.0
Topic	Pacing:	13 Days

Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	A Picture Is Worth a Thousand Words Understanding Quantities and Their Relationships	Students are presented with various scenarios and identify the independent and dependent quantities for each. They then match a graph to the appropriate scenario, label the axes using the independent and dependent quantities, and create the scale for the axes. Students make basic observations about the similarities and differences in the graphs. They then look more deeply at pairs of scenarios along with their graphs to focus on characteristics of the graphs, such as intercepts, increasing and decreasing intervals, and maximum and minimum points. The lesson concludes with students creating their own scenario and a sketch of a graph to model the scenario.	 There are two quantities that change in problem situations. When one quantity depends on another, it is said to be the <i>dependent quantity</i>. The quantity that the dependent quantity depends upon is called the <i>independent quantity</i>. The independent quantity is used to label the <i>x</i>-axis. The dependent quantity is used to label the <i>y</i>-axis. The domain includes the values that make sense for the independent quantity. The range includes the values that make sense for the dependent quantity. Graphs can be used to model problem situations. 	A.3C A.7A A.9D	2
2	A Sort of Sorts Analyzing and Sorting Graphs	Students begin this lesson by cutting out 17 different graphs. They sort the graphs into different groups based on their own rationale, compare their groupings with their classsmates, and discuss the reasoning behind their choices. Next, four different groups of graphs are given, and students analyze the groupings and explain possible rationales behind the choices made. Students explore different representations of relations. Students need to keep their graphs as they will be used in lessons that follow.	 A relationship between two quantities can be graphed on the coordinate plane. Graphical behaviors can reveal important information about a relationship. A graph of a relationship can have a minimum or maximum or no minimum or maximum. A graph can pass through one or more quadrants. A graph can exhibit vertical or horizontal symmetry. A graph can be increasing, decreasing, neither increasing nor decreasing, or both increasing and decreasing. 	A.3C A.7A A.9D	1





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**	
3	F of X Recognizing Functions and Function Families	The definition of <i>relation, function, function notation, domain,</i> and <i>range</i> are introduced in this lesson. For the remainder of the lesson, students use graphing technology to connect equations written in function form to their graph and then identify the function family to which they belong. The terms <i>Vertical Line Test, continuous graph,</i> and <i>discrete graph</i> are defined, and students sort the graphs from the previous lesson into functions and non-functions. Then, the terms <i>increasing function, decreasing function, constant function, discrete function,</i> and <i>continuous function</i> are defined, and students sort the graphs from the previous lesson into these groups and a group labeled for functions that include a combination of increasing and decreasing intervals. The terms <i>function family, linear function,</i> and <i>exponential function</i> are then defined, and students sort the increasing, constant, and decreasing functions into one of these families. Next, the terms <i>absolute minimum</i> and <i>absolute maximum</i> are defined, as well as the terms <i>quadratic function</i> and <i>linear absolute value function</i> . Students sort the functions with an absolute minimum or absolute maximum into one of these families. Finally, students recall the definition of <i>x</i> -intercept and <i>y</i> -intercept. Students then complete a graphic organizer for each function family that describes the graphical behavior and displays graphical examples. In the final activity, students use their knowledge of the function families to demonstrate how the families differ with respect to their <i>x</i> - and <i>y</i> -intercepts. Graphing technology is necessary to help students connect some equations and their graphs.	 A function is a relation that assigns to each element of the domain exactly one element of the range. The family of linear functions includes functions of the form f(x) = ax + b, where a and b are real numbers. The family of exponential functions includes functions of the form f(x) = a · b^x + c, where a, b, and c are real numbers, and b is greater than 0 but is not equal to 1. The family of quadratic functions includes functions of the form f(x) = ax² - bx + c, where a, b, and c are real numbers, and a is not equal to 0. The family of linear absolute value functions includes functions of the form f(x) = a x + b + c, where a, b, and c are real numbers, and a is not equal to 0. 	A.2A A.3C A.6A A.7A A.9A A.9D A.12A	3	
4	Function Families for 2000, Alex Recognizing Functions by Characteristics	Given characteristics describing graphical behavior, students name the possible function family or families that fit each description. Using the scenarios and their graphs from the first lesson of the topic, they complete a table by naming the function family associated with each scenario, identifying the domain, and describing the graphical behavior as increasing, decreasing, constant, or both increasing and decreasing. Students then work with a partner and write equations and sketch graphs to satisfy different lists of characteristics. They conclude the lesson by creating their own list of characteristics, providing two graphs that include those characteristics, and determining that an equation, not just a list of characteristics, is required to generate a unique graph.	 The graph of an exponential or quadratic function is a curve. The graph of a linear or linear absolute value function is a line or pair of lines, respectively. The graph of a linear or exponential function is either increasing or decreasing. The graph of a quadratic function or a linear absolute value function has intervals where it is increasing and intervals where it is decreasing. Each function also has an absolute maximum or absolute minimum. Key characteristics of graphs help to determine the function family to which it belongs. 	A.2A A.3C A.6A A.7A A.9A A.9D A.12A	2	
End of Topic Assessment						
	Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.					

165-Day Pacing



Topic 2: Sequences

ELPS: 1.A. 1.C. 1.E. 1.F. 1.G. 2.C. 2.E. 2.I. 3.D. 3.E. 4.B. 4.C. 5.B. 5.F. 5.G. **Topic Pacing:** 12 Davs

1	Is There a Pattern Here? Recognizing Patterns and Sequences	Students begin by exploring various patterns in Pascal's triangle. Sequences and term of a sequence are defined. Given ten geometric patterns or contexts, students write a numeric sequence to represent each problem. They are guided to represent each sequence as a table of values and conclude that all sequences are functions. Students then organize the sequences in a table, state whether each sequence is increasing or decreasing, and describe the sequence using a starting value and operation. They determine that all sequences have a domain that includes only positive integers. Infinite sequence and finite sequence are defined and included as another characteristic for students to consider as they write sequences.	 A sequence is a pattern involving an ordered arrangement of numbers, geometric figures, letters, or other objects. A term of a sequence is an individual number, figure, or letter in the sequence. A sequence can be written as a function. The domain includes only positive integers. An infinite sequence is a sequence that continues forever, or never ends. A finite sequence is a sequence that terminates, or has an end term. 	A.9A A.12A A.12D	1
2	The Password Is Operations! Arithmetic and Geometric Sequences	Given 16 numeric sequences, students generate several additional terms for each sequence and describe the rule they used for each sequence. They sort the sequences into groups based upon common characteristics of their choosing and explain their rationale. The terms arithmetic sequence, common difference, geometric sequence, and common ratio are then defined, examples are provided, and students respond to clarifying questions. They then categorize the sequences from the beginning of the lesson as arithmetic, geometric, or neither and identify the common difference or common ratio, where appropriate. Students begin to create graphic organizers, identifying four different representations for each arithmetic and geometric sequence. In the first activity, they glue each arithmetic and geometric sequence to a separate graphic organizer and label them, and in the second activity, the corresponding graph is added. The remaining representations are completed in the following lessons. This lesson concludes with students writing sequences given a first term and a common difference or common ratio and identifying whether the sequences are arithmetic or geometric.	 An arithmetic sequence is a sequence of numbers in which the difference between any two consecutive terms is a positive or negative constant. This constant is called the common difference and is represented by the variable d. A geometric sequence is a sequence of numbers in which the ratio between any two consecutive terms is a constant. This constant is called the common ratio and is represented by the variable r. The graph of a sequence is a set of discrete points. The points of an arithmetic sequence lie on a line. When the common difference is positive, the graph is increasing, and when the common difference is negative, the graph is decreasing. The points of a geometric sequence do not lie on a line. When the common ratio is greater than 1, the graph is increasing; when the common ratio is between 0 and 1, the graph is decreasing; and when the common ratio is less than 0, the graph alternates between increasing and decreasing between consecutive points. 	A.12A A.12D	2





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
3	Did You Mean: <i>Recursion?</i> Determining Recursive and Explicit Expressions from Contexts	Scenarios are presented that can be represented by arithmetic and geometric sequences. Students determine the value of terms in each sequence. The term recursive formula is defined and used to generate term values. As the term number increases, it becomes more time-consuming to generate the term value. This sets the stage for explicit formulas to be defined and used. Students practice using these formulas to determine the values of terms in both arithmetic and geometric sequences.	 A recursive formula expresses each new term of a sequence based on a preceding term of the sequence. An explicit formula for a sequence is a formula for calculating each term of the sequence using the term's position in the sequence. The explicit formula for determining the nth term of an arithmetic sequence is a_n = a₁ + d(n - 1), where n is the term number, a₁ is the first term in the sequence, a_n is the nth term in the sequence, and d is the common difference. The explicit formula for determining the nth term of a geometric sequence is g_n = g₁ · r⁽ⁿ⁻¹⁾, where n is the term number, g₁ is the first term in the sequence, g_n is the nth term in the sequence, and r is the common ratio. 	A.12C A.12D	2
4	3 Pegs, N Discs Modeling Using Sequences	Students are introduced to the process of mathematical modeling in this lesson, with each of the four activities representing a specific step in the process. Students are first presented with the Towers of Hanoi puzzle game and invited to play the game, observe patterns, and think about a mathematical question. Students then organize their information and pursue a given question by representing the patterns they notice using mathematical notation. The third step of the modeling process involves analyzing recursive and explicit formulas the students have generated and using these formulas to make predictions. Finally, students test their predictions and interpret their results. They then reflect on the modeling process and summarize what is involved in each phase.	 Mathematical modeling involves noticing patterns and formulating mathematical questions, organizing information and representing this information using appropriate mathematical notation, analyzing mathematical representations and using them to make predictions, and then testing these predictions and interpreting the results. Both recursive and explicit formulas can be used for sequences that model situations. Sequence formulas can be used to make predictions for real-world situations. 	A.9D A.12D	2
	End of Topic Assessment				
		Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHi. Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support st			4

165-Day Pacing



Topic 3: Linear Regressions

	A, 1.C, 1.E, 1.F, 1.G, 2.C, 2.E, 2.I, 3.D	T		cing: 7 Days
Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas TEKS ³	Pacing**
1	Like a Glove Least Squares Regressions	Students informally determine a line of best fit by visual approximation of a hand-drawn line. They are then introduced to a formal method to determine the linear regression line of a data set using graphing technology; the mathematics behind the calculator function is explained using the related terms <i>Least Squares Method</i> , <i>regression line</i> , and <i>centroid</i> . Students then use the line of best fit to make predictions and distinguish between the terms <i>interpolation</i> and <i>extrapolation</i> .	 Interpolation is the process of using a regression equation to make predictions within the data set. Extrapolation is the process of using a regression equation to make predictions beyond the data set. A least squares regression line is the line of best fit that minimizes the squares of the distances of the points from the line. 	2
2	Gotta Keep It Correlatin' Correlation	This lesson provides several definitions related to correlations. The terms <i>correlation</i> and <i>correlation coefficient</i> are defined. The formula to compute the correlation coefficient is given; however, students are only required to use technology to determine the value of <i>r</i> or to estimate correlation coefficients from a list of choices. The distinction is then made between the meanings of <i>r</i> and <i>r</i> ² , the coefficient of determination. Students use these terms to make decisions regarding the model that best fits the data. It is suggested that students revisit the modeling process as they solve these problems in context. The terms <i>causation</i> , <i>necessary condition</i> , and <i>sufficient condition</i> are defined. Examples are provided to help students see the difference between correlation and causation. The terms <i>common response</i> and <i>confounding variable</i> are defined as relationships often mistaken for causation.	 A correlation is a measure of how well a regression model fits a data set. The correlation coefficient, r, is a value between -1 and 1 that indicates the type (positive or negative) of association and the strength of the relationship. Values close to 1 or -1 demonstrate a strong association, while a value of 0 signifies no association. Causation is when one event causes a second event. A correlation is a necessary condition for causation, but not a sufficient condition for causation. Two relationships that are often mistaken for causation are a common response, when some other reason may cause the same result, and a confounding variable, when there are other variables that are unknown or unobserved. 	2
End of Topic Assessment				
		Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHi Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support si		2

165-Day Pacing



Exploring Constant Change

Module Pacing: 59 Days

Topic 1: Linear Functions

ELPS: 1.A, 1.C, 1.D, 1.E, 1.H, 2.C, 2.D, 2.E, 2.G, 2.H, 2.I, 3.A, 3.B, 3.C, 3.D, 3.F, 4.A, 4.B, 4.C, 4.D, 4.F, 4.K, 5.E

Topic Pacing: 28 Days

Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	Connecting the Dots Making Connections Between Arithmetic Sequences and Linear Functions	Students are provided two sequences. They must identify each sequence as arithmetic or geometric, write the explicit formula for the sequence, and graph the sequence. Students then list and compare characteristics of each graphical representation. The remainder of the lesson focuses on connecting arithmetic sequences to linear functions. Students match the explicit formulas for arithmetic sequences and their graphs. A Worked Example demonstrates how to rewrite an arithmetic sequence in explicit form as a linear function in slope-intercept form. Students then use the context of stacking chairs to make connections among the terms of the explicit formula of a sequence and the linear function that models it. Students compare the terms of each equation and recognize that the common difference and the slope are constant and equal; however, the first term of the sequence is equal to f(1) rather than the y-intercept of the linear function. Using tables of values for this context, first differences is defined as a strategy to determine if a relationship is linear. Students move from the concrete example to generalize that the constant difference of an arithmetic sequence is equal to the slope of the corresponding linear function by completing an algebraic proof. Next, average rate of change is defined and presented graphically as a method to determine the unit rate using non-consecutive x-values. Students solidify these new concepts by revisiting the sequences from the start of the lesson, practicing their newly developed skills, and verifying their conclusions. The special case of a constant function is then addressed. Finally, students complete a graphic organizer to summarize the characteristics and representations of linear functions.	 The explicit formula of an arithmetic sequence can be rewritten as the slope-intercept form of a linear function using algebraic properties. The explicit formula of an arithmetic sequence, a_n = a₁ + d(n - 1), includes the first term of the sequence, f(1), and the common difference. The slope-intercept form of a linear function, f(x) = mx + b, includes f(0) and the slope. Both the average rate of change formula and slope formula calculate the unit rate over a given interval. The average rate of change formula refers to the dependent variable as f(x), while the slope formula uses y. First differences is a strategy to determine whether a table of values can be modeled by a linear function. First differences are the values determined by subtracting consecutive output values when the input values have an interval of 1. The domain of an arithmetic sequence is consecutive integers beginning with 1, while the domain of a linear function may include all real numbers. 	A.2A A.2B A.2C A.3A A.3B A.12D	3

165-Day Pacing



Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas T	TEKS*	Pacing**	
2	What's the Point? Point-Slope Form of a Line	Students use the slope formula to derive the point-slope form of a linear equation. They write equations in point-slope and slope-intercept form given different sets of information: a table of values, two points, a context, a slope and the <i>y</i> -intercept, a slope and a point, a graph with a visible <i>y</i> -intercept, and a graph with a non-visible <i>y</i> -intercept. Students explore the slopes, intercepts, and equations of horizontal and vertical lines. Finally, they match equations written in slope-intercept or point-slope form with contexts and tables.		A.2B A.2C	2	
3	The Arts Are Alive Using Linear Equations	Students use three different forms of a linear equation to graph linear relationships. First, they learn how to use the slope-intercept and point-slope forms of a line to graph. Students explore the standard form of a linear equation and connect relationships among the coefficients of the standard form with the <i>x</i> -intercept, <i>y</i> -intercept, and slope of a line. They then practice writing and graphing equations in standard form. Finally, students identify the slope and intercept of linear equations in different forms and evaluate the usefulness of each form of a linear equation.		A.2B A.2C	2	
	Mid-Topic Assessment					





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
4	Fun Functions, Linear Ones Making Sense of Different Representations of a Linear Function	Students determine whether tables of values with non-consecutive input values represent linear functions. They evaluate functions and analyze Worked Examples that demonstrate how to solve equations algebraically and graphically. For the remainder of the lesson, students deal with a context, a graph, and two translations of the graph based on additions to the context. They focus on two equivalent linear functions, one written in general form, $f(x) = ax + b$, and the other written in factored form, $f(x) = a(x - c)$. Students interpret the meaning of the terms of each function, and analyze their structure. The form $f(x) = ax + b$ relates to the slope-intercept form of a line, while $f(x) = a(x - c)$ connects with the slope and zero of the function. Linear functions are placed within the wider framework of polynomial functions. The terms <i>polynomial</i> , <i>degree</i> , <i>leading coefficient</i> , and <i>zero of a function</i> are defined, setting a frame of reference for future work with other functions. Students use a graphic organizer to summarize four representations— general form, factored form, graph, and table—of a linear function.	 If a table represents a linear function, the slope, or average rate of change, is constant between all given points. Using an equation to solve for the independent value given the dependent value always results in an exact answer. Using a graph or a table to determine the independent value sometimes results in an exact answer. The graph of an equation plotted on the coordinate plane represents the set of all its solutions. The general form of a linear function is f(x) = ax + b, where a and b are real numbers and a ≠ 0. In this form, the a-value is the leading coefficient, which describes the steepness and direction of the line. The b-value describes the y-intercept. The factored form of a linear function is f(x) = a(x - c), where a and c are real numbers and a ≠ 0. When a polynomial is in factored form, the value of x that makes each factor equal to zero is the x-intercept. This value is called the zero of the function. A linear function is a polynomial with a degree of one. 	A.2C A.2D A.3A A.3C A.3E A.3F A.12A A.12B	2
5	Move It! Transforming Linear Functions	Students identify key characteristics of several linear functions. A graph and a table of values for the basic linear function $f(x) = x$ is provided, and they investigate $f(x) + D$ and $A \cdot f(x)$. Given a function $g(x)$ in terms of $f(x)$, students graph $g(x)$ and describe each transformation on $f(x)$ to produce $g(x)$. They prove algebraically that a line and its translation are parallel to one another and write equations of lines parallel to a given line through a given point. Finally, students use their knowledge of linear function transformations to test a video game that uses linear functions to shoot targets. They write the function transformations several ways and identify the domains, ranges, slopes, and y -intercepts of the new functions.	 For the basic function f(x) = x, the transformed function y = f(x) + D affects the output values of the function. For D > 0, the graph vertically shifts up. For D < 0, the graph vertically shifts down. The amount of shift is given by D . For the basic function f(x) = x, the transformed function y = A ⋅ f(x) affects the output values of the function. For A > 1, the graph stretches vertically by a factor of A units. For 0 < A < 1, the graph compresses vertically by a factor of A units. For A < 0, the graph reflects across the x-axis. A line and its translation are parallel to one another. 	A.2A A.2C A.2E A.3C A.3E	3





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
6	Get a Move On! Vertical and Horizontal Transformations of Linear Functions	Students identify key characteristics of several linear functions. A graph and a table of values for the basic linear function $f(x) = x$ is provided, and students will translate this function horizontally and vertically to determine which transformations affect the input and output values. They will also dilate the function $f(x) = x$ horizontally and vertically. Students will generalize about equivalent translations for the basic function $f(x) = x$, and determine that these relationships do not hold true for all linear functions. Given a function $g(x)$ in terms of $f(x)$, students will graph $g(x)$ and describe each transformation on $f(x)$ to produce $g(x)$.	 For the basic function f(x) = x, a horizontal translation right n units is equivalent to a vertical translation down n units, and a horizontal translation left n units is equivalent to a vertical translation up n units. For the basic function f(x) = x, the transformed function, For C > 0, the graph horizontally shifts right C units. For C < 0, the graph horizontally shifts left C units. For the basic function f(x) = x, the transformed function y = f(x) + D affects the output values of the function. For D > 0, the graph vertically shifts up D units. For D < 0, the graph vertically shifts down D units. For the basic function f(x) = x, a horizontal dilation by a factor of n units is equivalent to a vertical dilation by a factor of n units is equivalent to a vertical dilation by a factor of n units. For the basic function f(x) = x, the transformed function y = Af(x) affects the output values of the function. For A > 1, the graph vertically stretches by a factor of A units. For 0 < A < 1, the graph vertically compresses by a factor of A units. For A < 0, the graph reflects across the x-axis. For the basic function f(x) = x, the transformed function y = f(Bx) affects the input values of the function. For B > 1, the graph horizontally compresses by a factor of 1/ B units. For 0 < B < 1, the graph horizontally stretches by a factor of 1/ B units. For 0 < part B < 1, the graph reflects across the y-axis. 	A.2A A.2C A.3C A.3E	2





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas TEK	(S* P	Pacing**
7	Amirite? Determining Slopes of Perpendicular Lines	Students rotate a line segment on the coordinate plane in increments of 90° counterclockwise and recognize patterns in the slopes and coordinates of the endpoints of the images. They analyze a proof of a theorem stating that if two lines are perpendicular, the slopes of the lines are negative reciprocals. Students then explore relationships between vertical and horizontal lines. Finally, they write the equation of a line perpendicular to a given line that passes through a given point.	 Transformations can be used to create perpendicular lines. By rotating a line 90°, the preimage and image form perpendicular lines. If two lines are perpendicular, their slopes are negative reciprocals. All horizontal lines have a slope of zero, are parallel to one another, and are perpendicular to vertical lines. All vertical lines have a slope that is undefined, are parallel to one another, and are perpendicular to horizontal lines. 		2
8	Making a Connection Comparing Linear Functions in Different Forms	Students analyze functions represented as tables, graphs, equations, and verbal descriptions. They explore slope with particular attention to parallelism and perpendicularity in different representations. Students compare properties such as slope, <i>y</i> -intercept, and the units for independent and dependent quantities, all in terms of the situations they represent. Students also identify the scale and origin on the graph of a function given a situation description. Finally, they generate and compare their own linear functions using tables, graphs, and equations.	 Functions can be represented using tables, equations, graphs, and with verbal descriptions. Features of linear functions such as <i>y</i>-intercepts, slope, independent quantities, and dependent quantities can be determined from different representations of functions. Lines that are parallel have the same slope. Lines that are perpendicular have slopes that are negative reciprocals. 	3C	2
	End of Topic Assessment				
	Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.				

165-Day Pacing



Topic 2: Linear Equations and Inequalities

FIPS: 1 A 1 C 1 D 1 F 1 H 2 C 2 D 2 F 2 G 2 H 2 I 3 A 3 B 3 C 3 D 3 F 4 A 4 B 4 C 4 D 4 F 4 K 5 F Tonic Pacing: 9 Days

Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	Strike a Balance Solving Linear Equations	Students start with a simple solution statement and create more complex equations by performing the same operation on each side of the equation. They then analyze different equations created by two students and reason about how to verify that the equations have the same solution as the original equation. The Properties of Equality and some basic number properties are reviewed before students practice solving linear equations and justifying their steps. They also compare the different properties two students used to solve the same equation. Next, students investigate a mathematical statement that is always true and a mathematical statement that is always false. The terms <i>no solution</i> and <i>infinite solutions</i> are defined. Finally, students play Tic-Tac-Bingo as they work together to create equations with given solution types from assigned expressions. They then summarize strategies for determining if an equation has no solution or infinite solutions.	 A solution to an equation is any variable value that makes that equation true. Solving equations requires the use of number properties and the Properties of Equality. The Properties of Equality state that if an operation is performed on both sides of the equation, to all terms of the equation, the equation maintains its equality. When the Properties of Equality are applied to an equation, the transformed equation will have the same solution as the original equation. Equations with <i>infinite solutions</i> are created by equating two equivalent expressions. Equations with <i>no solution</i> are created by equating expressions of the form <i>ax</i> + <i>b</i> with the same value for <i>a</i> and different values for <i>b</i>. Equations with a solution <i>x</i> = 0 are created by equating expressions of the form <i>ax</i> + <i>b</i> with different values for <i>a</i> and the same value for <i>b</i>. 	A.5A	1





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
2	It's Literally About Literal Equations Literal Equations	Students begin with a perimeter problem in context to address solving formulas for different variables. They then identify the slope, <i>x</i> -intercept, and <i>y</i> -intercept of linear equations in general, factored, and standard form and consider which form is most efficient in determining these characteristics. Next, the term <i>literal equation</i> is defined. The common literal equation for converting degrees Fahrenheit to degrees Celsius is provided. Students rewrite the formula to convert degrees Celsius to degrees Fahrenheit, identify errors in student work when rewriting the formula, and interpret equivalent equations written in standard form. The lesson concludes by having students solve various literal equations for specific variables.	 The general form of a linear equation is y = ax + b, where a and b are real numbers; a represents the slope, and b represents the y-intercept. The factored form of a linear equation is y = a(x - c), where a and b are real numbers; a represents the slope, and c represents the x-intercept. The standard form of a linear equation is Ax + By = C, where A is a positive integer, B and C are integers, and both A and B ≠ 0. It can be rewritten in general form as y = A/B x + C/B; -A/B represents the slope, C/B represents the y-intercept, and C/A represents the x-intercept. The general form of a linear equation is the most useful form to identify the slope and y-intercept. The factored form of a linear equation is the most useful form to identify the slope and x-intercept. Literal equations can be rewritten to highlight a specific variable. 	A.12E	2
3	Not All Statements Are Made Equal Modeling Linear Inequalities	Students begin with a scenario and table that can be modeled by a linear inequality with a positive rate of change. They then analyze a graph that models the situation. Students use that graph to solve inequalities and graph the solution set on a number line. Next, the term solve an inequality is defined, and students write and solve inequalities algebraically, taking into account the context of the problem situation. They then analyze an inequality with a negative rate of change to make sense of how the sign of the solution to the inequality is affected. Lastly, students analyze methods to solve more complex linear inequalities: ones with the variable on both sides of the equation and ones that require the Distributive Property.	 A linear inequality context can be modeled with a table of values, a graph on a coordinate plane, a graph on a number line, and with an inequality statement. Solutions to linear inequalities can be determined both graphically and algebraically; they can be expressed using a number line or inequality statement. The steps to solving a linear inequality algebraically are the same steps to solve a linear equation, except that when solving a linear inequality with a negative rate of change, the inequality sign of the solution must be reversed to accurately reflect the relationship. 	A.2C A.5B	2
	End of Topic Assessment				
		Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHi. Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support st			3

165-Day Pacing



Topic 3: Systems of Equations and Inequalities

ELPS: 1.A. 1.C. 1.D. 2.C. 2.D. 2.G. 2.H. 2.I. 3.A. 3.B. 3.C. 3.D. 3.F. 4.A. 4.B. 4.C. 4.G. 4.K. 5.E. **Topic Pacing:** 22 Days

Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	The County Fair Using Substitution to Solve Linear Systems	The term <i>system of linear equations</i> is defined. Students use the substitution method to solve systems of linear equations including those with no solution or with infinite solutions. Students define variables, write systems of equations, solve systems, and interpret the meaning of the solution in terms of the problem context. In the last activity, they are given four systems of linear equations and solve each system using the substitution method.	 The substitution method is a process for solving a system of equations. It is an alternative method to graphing, especially when the solution is difficult to read from a graph. To use the substitution method, it is useful if at least one equation is written in slope-intercept form. When a system has no solution, the equation resulting from the substitution step has no solution. When a system has infinite solutions, the equation resulting from the substitution step has infinite solutions. Problem situations can be expressed using systems of equations and solved for unknown quantities using substitution methods. 	A.2I A.3F A.3G A.5C	2

165-Day Pacing



Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
2	Double the Fun Using Graphing to Solve Systems of Equations	Students write an equation in standard form to represent a scenario and determine a solution to the scenario and equation. They graph the linear equation using intercepts, and then analyze a second graph with the independent and dependent variables reversed. A new relationship between the quantities is then provided, and students write the equation expressing the relationship. Finally, they graph the new equation on two separate coordinate planes showing the graphed lines from the original scenario creating a system of linear equations. Students solve the system both graphically and using technology, checking the solution by substituting the values back in to the original equations. Next, they are provided three related scenarios in which they write systems of equations in general form and solve the systems graphically and algebraically using the substitution method. This activity demonstrates that a system of two linear equations may have no solution, one solution, or an infinite number of solutions. The related terms consistent systems and inconsistent systems are defined.	 The standard form of a linear equation is Ax + By = C, where A, B, and C are constants and A and B are not both zero. Linear functions written in standard form can be graphed using the x- and y-intercepts. Understand that the graph of an equation in two variables is the set of all its solutions plotted on the coordinate plane. A linear system of equations is two or more linear equations that define a relationship between quantities. The solution of a linear system is an ordered pair that makes both equations in the system true. Lines that do not intersect describe a system of equations in which each linear equation has the same slope and there is no solution. Lines intersecting at a single point describe a system of equations in which each linear equation has a different slope and there is one solution. Lines intersecting at an infinite number of points describe a system of equations in which each linear equation is the same equation and there are an infinite number of solutions. Consistent systems of equations are systems that have one or many solutions. Inconsistent systems of equations are systems that have no solutions. 	A.2A A.2C A.2I A.3F A.3G A.5C	2





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
3	The Elimination Round Using Linear Combinations to Solve a System of Linear Equations	Students are given a problem scenario and use reasoning to determine the two unknowns. They then write a system of linear equations in standard form to represent a problem situation. Students analyze two solution paths, one using substitution and one using the <i>linear combinations method</i> in its most basic form prior to its formal definition later in the activity. They practice the linear combinations method with systems in which the coefficients of one variable are additive inverses. Next, Worked Examples guide students to multiply one, and then both, equations by a constant to create equations in which a variable has coefficients that are additive inverses. Students concentrate on creating coefficients that are additive inverses with several systems without entirely solving the system, and then they solve two problems in context, one with fractional coefficients. The lesson concludes with students addressing when it is appropriate to use the graphing, substitution, or linear combinations methods.	 The linear combinations method is a process to solve a system of linear equations by adding two equations together, resulting in an equation in one variable. When using the linear combinations method, it is often necessary to multiply one or both equations by a constant to create two equations in which the coefficients of one of the variables are additive inverses. 	A.2I A.5C	3
		Mid-Topic Assessment			1
4	Throwing Shade Graphing Inequalities in Two Variables	Students explore a linear inequality in two variables through a scenario. They write an inequality, complete a table of values, graph the coordinate pairs from the table, and determine which parts of the graph are solutions to the inequality. Students then formalize the process of graphing inequalities through practice without context; they graph the corresponding equation of an inequality as a boundary line, determine whether the line should be solid or dashed, and identify which half plane to shade by testing the point (0, 0) in the original inequality. Students also match inequalities to graphs and write inequalities presented as graphs. They then solve a problem in context where they use a table of values to write and graph a linear inequality and refer to the inequality and/ or its graph to respond to questions. Finally, students summarize the difference between the graphs of linear equations and linear inequalities and compare the solution sets of linear equations and linear inequalities.	 The graph of a linear inequality is a half-plane, or half of a coordinate plane. Shading is used to indicate which half-plane describes the solution to the inequality. Dashed and solid lines are used to indicate if the line itself is included in the solution set of an inequality. Linear inequalities and their graphs can be used to represent and solve problems in context. 	A.2H A.3D	2





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas TEK	S* Pacing**	
5	Working with Constraints Systems of Linear Inequalities	Students represent a scenario with a system of linear inequalities and graph the system. Overlapping shaded regions identify the possible solutions to the system. Students then practice graphing several systems of inequalities and representing the solution set. A different scenario is given that students model with a system of linear inequalities. They then graph the system, determine two different solutions, and algebraically prove that the solutions satisfy both constraints defined by the system. Finally, students match systems, graphs, and possible solutions of systems that have identical terms with different inequality symbols.	 In a system of linear inequalities, the inequalities are known as constraints because the values of the expressions are constrained to lie within a certain region. The solution of a system of linear inequalities is the intersection of the solutions to each inequality. Every point in the intersecting region satisfies all inequalities in the system. 	D 3	
6	Working the System Solving Systems of Equations and Inequalities	Students solve problems in context requiring a system of linear equations. While most problems can be modeled by a system of two equations, they are guided through the process of solving a system of four equations, and another context can be modeled by a system of three equations. Students have the opportunity to solve the systems using any method and sometimes must respond in the format of an email or proposal. Solutions involve making a decision based upon inputs that lie before or after the point of intersection, thus requiring solutions written as inequalities.	 Contexts about choosing between two options can sometimes be modeled by a system of linear equations or inequalities. The point of intersection of two lines separates the input values, with x-values less than and x-values greater than the x-value of the point of intersection. The solution to a problem in context may be dependent upon where the input values lie relative to the point of intersection. Based upon a context, the solution of a system may be represented by inequalities rather than a single coordinate pair. 	PI	
End of Topic Assessment					
	Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.				

165-Day Pacing



3

Investigating Growth and Decay

Module Pacing: 29 Days

Topic 1: Introduction to Exponential Functions

ELPS: 1.A, 1.C, 1.D, 1.E, 1.G, 2.C, 2.D, 2.F, 2.G, 2.H, 2.I, 3.A, 3.B, 3.C, 3.D, 3.F, 4.A, 4.B, 4.C, 4.D, 4.K, 5.E

Topic Pacing: 16 Days

Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	It's a Generational Thing Properties of Powers with Integer Exponents	The terms <i>power</i> , <i>base of a power</i> , and <i>exponent of a power</i> are defined. Students write and evaluate expressions with positive integer exponents. They begin with a context using the power with a base of 2. Students then investigate positive and negative integer bases where the negative sign may or may not be raised to a power depending on the placement of parentheses. Some expressions also contain variables.	 Large numbers that have factors that are repeated can be written as a product of powers. Placement of parentheses in an expression with an exponent determines what portion of the expression is raised to a power. When a negative value is raised to a power with an exponent that is an even integer, the simplified expression is a positive value. When a negative value is raised to a power with an exponent that is an odd integer, the simplified expression is a negative value. 	A.11B	3
2	Show What You Know Analyzing Properties of Powers	Students use the properties of powers to justify each step when rewriting expressions with exponents. They solve additional practice problems and examine student work. Students demonstrate their understanding of the properties of powers by creating graphic organizers.	 Large numbers that have factors that are repeated can be written as a product of powers. Placement of parentheses in an expression with an exponent determines what portion of the expression is raised to a power. When a negative value is raised to a power with an exponent that is an even integer, the simplified expression is a positive value. When a negative value is raised to a power with an exponent that is an odd integer, the simplified expression is a negative value. 	A.11B	2
Mid-Topic Assessment					1





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**	
3	A Constant Ratio Geometric Sequences and Exponential Functions	In an earlier lesson, Connecting the Dots, students rewrote the explicit form of an arithmetic sequence as a linear function and proved algebraically that the common difference in a linear function is the slope of the line. This lesson follows a similar process where they revisit geometric sequences as a launch to exponential functions. Students know that all geometric sequences are functions, and through investigation they learn that some geometric sequences are exponential functions, while others are not. They identify the fact that the constant ratio must be positive for a geometric sequence to be an exponential function. Through a context, student work, and a Worked Example, students use properties of exponents to rewrite the explicit form of a geometric sequence as a function in the form $f(x) = a \cdot b^x$ and make connections between the two forms. Students then explore a situation modeled by an exponential function. They are guided to demonstrate that the ratio between consecutive output values of any exponential function is constant and is represented by the variable b in the function form $f(x) = a \cdot b^x$, and the y-intercept is represented by the ordered pair $(0, a)$. Students then solve a problem in context that is represented by a decreasing exponential function.	 All geometric sequences are functions; however, only geometric sequences with a positive constant ratio are exponential functions. If a geometric sequence represents an exponential function, then the Product of Powers Rule and the definition of negative exponents can be used to rewrite the explicit formula for the sequence as an exponential function. The form of an exponential function is f(x) = a · b^x, where b represents the constant ratio and (0, a) represents the y-intercept. For an exponential function in the form f(x) = a · b^x, the ratio f(x+1)/f(x) is constant and equal to b. 	A.9B A.9C A.9D A.11B A.12D	2	
4	The Power Within Rational Exponents and Graphs of Exponential Functions	Students explore a context modeled by an exponential function, first with output values that are between two integers, then with output values that are rational exponents. This helps students make sense of the fact that $\sqrt{a} = a^{\frac{1}{2}}$. They then expand upon this idea to learn that the properties of powers apply to expressions with rational exponents, rewrite expressions with rational exponents as radicals, and then connect the two concepts to perform and justify operations involving radicals. Students explore the effects of a negative exponent, learn the meaning of a <i>horizontal asymptote</i> , and analyze this idea of end behavior on several graphs.	 If the difference in the input values is the same, an exponential function shows a constant ratio between output values, no matter how large or how small the gap between input values. Multiple representations such as tables, equations, and graphs are used to represent exponential problem situations. Properties of powers can be used to rewrite numeric and algebraic expressions involving integer and rational exponents. Because rational exponents can be rewritten as radicals, the properties of powers apply to radical expressions, as well. A rational expression of the form a^m/_n can be written as a radical expression of the form a^m/_n. Common bases and properties of exponents are used to solve simple exponential equations. 	A.9B A.9C A.9D A.11A A.11B A.12B	3	
	End of Topic Assessment					
	Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.					

165-Day Pacing



Topic 2: Using Exponential Equations

ELPS: 1.A	x, 1.C, 1.D, 1.E, 1.G, 2.C, 2.D, 2.G, 2.	.H, 2.I, 3.A, 3.B, 3.C, 3.D, 3.F, 4.A, 4.B, 4.C, 4.D, 4.K, 5.E	То	pic Pacin	ig: 13 Days
Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	Uptown and Downtown Exponential Equations for Growth and Decay	Students begin this lesson by analyzing the structure of linear and exponential functions to sort them as either increasing or decreasing functions. Students compare linear and exponential functions in the context of simple interest and compound interest situations. They then identify the values in the exponential function equation that indicate whether it is a growth or decay function and apply this reasoning in context. Finally, for a situation modeled by an exponential decay function, students write the function, sketch its graph, and then use the graph to answer a question about the problem situation.	 Simple interest can be represented by a linear function. Compound interest can be represented by an exponential function. An exponential growth function is of the form y = a · (1 + r)^x, where r is the rate of growth. An exponential decay function is of the form y = a · (1 - r)^x, where r is the rate of decay. 	A.3B A.3C A.9B A.9C A.9D A.12B	2
2	Powers and the Horizontal Line Interpreting Parameters in Context	Students begin by using what they know about exponential functions to match four exponential equations to their graphs. Next, for a scenario based on exponential depreciation, students write the function, complete a table of values, and graph the function. They recall how to solve an equation graphically by graphing both sides of the equation and determining the point of intersection. They use this strategy to solve exponential equations and answer questions about given scenarios. Given a function that represents an annual increase in a mutual fund, students use the properties of exponents to rewrite the function to reveal approximate equivalent rates for the monthly and quarterly increases. Finally, they use what they know about the structure of exponential equations to identify equations that model a given situation and justify why others do not.	 Multiple representations such as tables, equations, and graphs can be used to represent and compare exponential problem situations. Graphs can be used to solve exponential equations by graphing both sides of the equation and estimating the point of intersection. A quantity increasing exponentially eventually exceeds a quantity increasing linearly. Properties of exponential functions can be compared using different representations. Transforming exponential functions into equivalent forms can reveal different properties of the quantities represented. 	A.9B A.9C A.9D A.11B	1
		Mid-Topic Assessment			1





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
3	Savings, Tea, and Carbon Dioxide Modeling Using Exponential Functions	Students model two savings scenarios, one with an exponential function $f(x)$ and one using a constant function $g(x)$. They then create a third function $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$, graph all three functions on the same graph, and explain how they are related. For each of two new data sets, students create a scatterplot, write a regression equation, use the function to calculate output values, and interpret the reasonableness of a prediction based upon the scenario. For the first scenario, students are told to use an exponential function to model the scenario; in the second scenario, students must decide if the scenario is best modeled by a linear or exponential function. The lesson concludes with students making a list of contexts from this module and generalizing what they have in common that identifies them as best modeled by exponential functions. They also describe the shape of a scatterplot representing an exponential function and sketch possible graphs of exponential functions.	 An exponential function and a constant function can be added to create a third function that is the sum of the two functions, resulting in a graph that is a vertical translation of the original exponential function. Technology can be used to determine exponential regression equations to model real-world situations. The regression equation can then be used to make predictions. Sometimes referring to the scenario or obtaining further information may be required to determine whether a scatterplot is best modeled by a linear or exponential function. 	A.9A A.9D A.9E	2
4	BAC Is Bad News Choosing a Function to Model Data	Students analyze a context involving the blood alcohol content (BAC) of a driver and the driver's relative probability of causing an accident. Given BAC levels and their corresponding relative probability, they calculate the likelihood that each given driver causes an accident. Students are then given data from a study connecting BAC and the relative probability of causing an accident. They apply the relationship from the data to create a model predicting the likelihood of a person causing an accident based on their BAC. They summarize their learning by writing an article for a newsletter about the seriousness of drinking and driving. The lesson concludes with students connecting their process in this lesson to the steps in the mathematical modeling process.	 Determining and using a regression equation is sometimes a step in the process of solving a more complex mathematical problem, rather than the final solution. The mathematical modeling process is an effective structure to solve complex mathematical problems. 	A.9E	2
End of Topic Assessment					1
	Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.				

165-Day Pacing



Maximizing and Minimizing

Module Pacing: 45 Days

Topic 1: Introduction to Quadratic Funtions

ELPS: 1.A, 1.B, 1.C, 1.D, 1.E, 1.G, 2.A, 2.C, 2.D, 2.G, 2.H, 2.I, 3.A, 3.B, 3.C, 3.D, 3.F, 3.G, 3H, 4.A, 4.B, 4.C, 4.D, 4.G, 4.H, 4.I, 4.J, 4.K, 5.B, 5.C, 5.E, 5.F

Topic Pacing: 20 Days

Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	Up and Down or Down and Up Exploring Quadratic Functions	Students are introduced to quadratic functions through a sequence of pennies. They are then provided four different contexts that can be modeled using quadratic functions. The first context involves area and is used to compare and contrast linear and quadratic relationships, to define the term <i>parabola</i> , and to begin identifying key characteristics of the graphs of quadratic functions. The second context involves handshakes with a parabola that has a minimum. The third context involves a function written in general form using the vertical motion formula. The final context involves revenue and demonstrates that a quadratic function can be written as the product of two linear functions. It is expected that students use technology to graph each function, allowing them to explore the key characteristics of the graphs of quadratic functions and interpret them in terms of their corresponding context. Students will revisit these same scenarios in the next lesson.	 Quadratic functions can be used to model certain real-world situations. The graph of a quadratic function is called a parabola. A parabola is a smooth curve with reflectional symmetry. A parabola has an absolute maximum or absolute minimum point and an interval where it is increasing and an interval where it is decreasing. A parabola has one y-intercept and at most two x-intercepts. The domain of a quadratic function is the set of all real numbers. The range is a subset of the real numbers that is limited based upon the y-coordinate of the absolute maximum or absolute minimum point. 	A.6A A.7A	3





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
2	Endless Forms Most Beautiful Key Characteristics of Quadratic Functions	Students revisit the four scenarios from the previous lesson as a way to introduce equivalent quadratic equations with different structures to reveal different characteristics of their graphs. They learn that a table of values represents a quadratic function if its second differences are constant. The terms <i>general form</i> and <i>factored form</i> are defined. Students analyze the effect of the leading coefficient on whether the parabola opens <i>up</i> or <i>down</i> . They identify the axis of symmetry and vertex for graphs using the equations in each form. Finally, students determine the <i>x</i> - and <i>y</i> -intercepts along with intervals of increase and decrease, using a combination of technology, symmetry, and equations.	 A table of values representing a quadratic function has constant second differences. A quadratic function may be written in general form, f(x) = ax² + bx + c, where a ≠ 0, and in factored form, f(x) = a(x - r₁)(x - r₂), where a ≠ 0. When the a-value of a quadratic function in general form or factored form is positive, the graph opens upward and has an absolute minimum; when the leading coefficient is negative, the graph opens downward and has an absolute maximum. The vertex (or maximum/minimum) of a parabola lies on its axis of symmetry. The axis of symmetry can be determined by the formula x = (r₁ + r₂)/2 from the factored form or by x = -b/2a from the general form of the quadratic equation. In factored form, f(x) = a(x - r₁)(x - r₂), the values of (r₁, 0) and (r₂, 0) are the x-intercepts of the quadratic function. In general form, f(x) = ax² + bx + c, (0, c) is the y-intercept of the quadratic function. 	A.6A A.6C A.7A	3
		Mid-Topic Assessment			1





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
3	Parabolas in Motion Quadratic Function Transformations	Students are already familiar with the general shape of the graphs of quadratic functions, and they have studied transformations of linear functions. In this lesson, students experiment with the quadratic function family. They expand their understanding of transformations to include quadratic functions and interpret functions in the form $f(x) = A(x - C) + D$. They distinguish between the effects of changing values inside the argument of the function (the <i>C</i> -value) and changing values outside the function (the <i>A</i> - and <i>D</i> -values). Finally, students consider different ways to rewrite and interpret equations of function transformations.	 A function g(x) of the form g(x) = f(x) + D is a vertical translation of the function f(x). The value D describes the number of units the graph of f(x) is translated up or down. If D > 0, the graph is translated up; if D < 0, the graph is translated down. A function g(x) of the form g(x) = Af(x) is a vertical dilation of the function f(x). For A > 1, the graph is vertically stretched by a factor of A units; for 0, A < 1, the graph vertically compresses by a factor of A units. For A < 0, the graph also reflects across the x-axis. A function g(x) of the form g(x) = f(x - C) is a horizontal translation of the function f(x). The value C describes the number of units the graph of f(x) is translated right or left. If C > 0, the graph is translated to the left. A reflection across the x-axis can be expressed using the notation (x, y) → (x, -y). It affects the y-coordinate of each point on the graph. A reflection across the y-axis can be expressed using the notation (x, y) → (-x, y). It affects the x-coordinate of each point on the graph. 	A.7A A.7C	2





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
4	Keep It Moving Transformations of Quadratic Functions	Students explore horizontal dilations (<i>B</i> -value transformations). They sketch a graph of the transformation, compare characteristics of the transformed graph with the graph of the basic function, and represent the transformation using coordinates. Students practice writing quadratic functions in vertex form, general form, and factored form and convert from one form to another to reveal properties of the function it defines. They identify the location of the zeros, the vertex, and the orientation of the parabola from the equation of the function. Students write quadratic equations in vertex form using the coordinates of the vertex and another point on the graph and in factored form using the zeros and another point on the graph.	 The general transformation equation is y = Af(B(x - C)) + D, where the A-value describes a vertical dilation or reflection, the B-value describes a horizontal dilation or reflection, the C-value describes a horizontal translation, and the D-value describes a vertical translation. Given f(x) = x² as the basic quadratic function, reference points can be used to graph y = Af(B(x - C)) + D such that any point (x, y) on f(x) maps to the point (1/B)x + C, Ay + D). The vertex form for a quadratic function is f(x) = a(x - h)² + k, where (h, k) is the location of the vertex, and the sign of a indicates whether the parabola opens upward or downward. A function written in equivalent forms can reveal different characteristics of the function it defines. You can write a quadratic function in vertex form if you know the coordinates of the vertex and another point on the graph. You can write a quadratic function in factored form if you know the zeros and another point on the graph. 	A.6B A.6C A.7A A.7C	3
5	You Lose Some, You Lose Some Comparing Functions Using Key Characteristics and Average Rate of Change	Students complete a graphic organizer to compare quadratic functions in standard form, factored form, and vertex form, and then analyze the properties of each form. Students then answer questions and compare a linear, quadratic, and exponential function. They compute some of the average rates of change for the functions across different intervals and then compare the change in the average rates of change across the different intervals. Quadratic equations in different forms are compared by identifying key characteristics of their representations.	 The average rate of change of any function over an interval is the slope of a linear function passing through the beginning and end points of the interval. A quantity increasing exponentially eventually exceeds a quantity increasing linearly or quadratically. The average rate of change of an increasing exponential function will eventually exceed the average rate of change for an increasing linear and quadratic function. A function written in equivalent forms can reveal different characteristics of the function it defines. Quadratic equations in different forms are compared by identifying key characteristics of their representations or by changing one representation to match the other for comparison purposes. 	A.7A A.7C	2
End of Topic Assessment					1
Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.					5

165-Day Pacing



Topic 2: Solving Quadratic Equations

ELPS: 1.A, 1.D, 1.E, 1.G, 2.C, 2.D, 2.G, 2.H, 2.I, 3.A, 3.B, 3.C, 3.D, 3.F, 3.I, 3.J, 4.A, 4.B, 4.C, 4.E, 4.G, 4.K, 5.A, 5.D, 5.E, 5.G

Topic	Pacing:	25	Day	15
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Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
1	This Time with Polynomials Adding, Subtracting, and Multiplying Polynomials	Students begin the lesson with an open-ended sort of twelve mathematical expressions prior to being given the formal definitions regarding polynomials. The terms <i>polynomial, monomial, binomial, trinomial,</i> and <i>degree of a polynomial</i> are defined. The graphs of two functions in context provide meaning to subtraction of functions and introduce the concept of performing addition, subtraction, and multiplication of polynomial functions. Students add and subtract functions both graphically and algebraically within a context, and then focus on common errors and the concept of closure of polynomials over addition and subtraction. Next, the focus turns to multiplication of polynomials. Students revisit two contexts where they wrote functions as the product of two linear factors and now rewrite them in general form using multiplication. Students compare two methods to multiply polynomials: an area model and the Distributive Property. They then practice multiplying polynomials and conclude that polynomials are closed under the operation of multiplication. Finally, students investigate patterns in special products to recognize perfect square trinomials and the difference of two squares expressed both in their general form and as the linear factors that produce them.	 A polynomial is a mathematical expression involving the sum of powers in one or more variables multiplied by coefficients. A polynomial in one variable is the sum of terms of the form ax*, where a is any real number and k is a non-negative integer. In general, a polynomial is of the form a₁x* + a₂x*-1 + + a₁x°. Polynomials with only one term are monomials. Polynomials with exactly two terms are binomials. Polynomials with exactly three terms are trinomials. Polynomials can be added, subtracted, and multiplied using algebraic operations. Polynomials are closed under addition, subtraction, and multiplication. The difference of two squares and perfect square trinomials are special products that can be recognized when multiplying binomials. 	A.10A A.10B A.10D	3
2	The Great Divide Polynomial Division	Students analyze the graph of a quadratic function that appears to have two real zeros. The Factor Theorem is stated, and a Worked Example demonstrates how to determine whether a linear expression is a factor of the quadratic function. Polynomial long division is introduced, and a Worked Example is provided. Students perform polynomial long division to determine the linear function that is the other factor, and they use this information to determine the zeros and rewrite the quadratic function as a product of linear factors. The Remainder Theorem is stated, and students use this theorem to answer questions involving polynomial division with remainders.	 Factors of polynomials divide into a polynomial without a remainder. Polynomial long division is an algorithm for dividing one polynomial by another of equal or lesser degree. The Factor Theorem states that a polynomial function p(x) has x - r as a factor if and only if the value of the function at r is 0, or p(r) = 0. The Remainder Theorem states that when any polynomial equation or function f(x) is divided by a linear expression of the form (x - r), the remainder is R = f(r), or the value of the function when x = r. 	A.10C	2





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**	
3	Solutions, Plus or Minus Representing Solutions to Quadratic Equations	Students investigate how to solve quadratic equations using graphs and writing solutions in terms of their respective distances from the axis of symmetry. They also use their knowledge of square roots to solve basic quadratic equations algebraically. The axis of symmetry is used to express solutions to basic quadratic equations, with solutions situated symmetrically to the right and to the left of the vertical line. Students also identify double roots, estimate square roots, and extract perfect roots where possible. They show graphically that a quadratic function is the product of two linear functions, and use the Zero Product Property to explain that the zeros of a quadratic function are the same as the zeros of its linear factors. Students also generalize what they know about the difference of two squares to rewrite any quadratic in the form $f(x) = ax^2 - c$ as the product of two linear factors, including when a and a are not perfect square numbers.	 Every whole number has two square roots, a positive <i>principal square root</i> and a negative square root. A quadratic function is a polynomial of degree 2. Thus, a quadratic function has two zeros or two solutions at f(x) = 0. If both solutions are the same, the quadratic function is said to have a double zero. The x-coordinates of the x-intercepts of a graph of a quadratic function are called the zeros of the quadratic function. The zeros are called the <i>roots</i> of the quadratic equation. The real solutions to a quadratic equation can be represented as the x-value of the axis of symmetry plus or minus a constant. The Zero Product Property states that if the product of two or more factors is equal to zero, then at least one factor must be equal to zero. Therefore, the zeros of a quadratic function are the same as the zeros of its linear factors. Any quadratic function in the form f(x) = ax² - c can be rewritten as the product of two linear factors, (√ax + √c)(√ax - √c). 	A.7A A.7B A.8A A.10F A.11A	2	
4	Transforming Solutions Solutions to Quadratic Equations in Vertex Form	In the previous lesson, students solved quadratic functions of the form $f(x) = ax^2 - c$. In this lesson, they learn to determine the roots of any quadratic function written in vertex form. Students make sense of the solution process as they analyze increasingly complex transformations of the basic quadratic function, from $y = (x - c)^2$, to $y = a(x - c)^2 + d$. For each form of the function, they solve equations and generalize about the solutions. Students also learn that a quadratic function can have one unique real zero, two real zeros, or no real zeros, and how the number of real zeros relates to the graph of the function.	 The solutions to a quadratic equation can be represented as the <i>x</i>-value of the axis of symmetry plus or minus a constant. A quadratic function written in the form f(x) = a(x - h)² + k, where a ≠ 0, is in vertex form. The solutions for a quadratic equation of the form y = (x - c)² are x = c ± √ȳ. The solutions for a quadratic equation of the form y = a(x - c)² are x = c ± √ȳā. The solutions for a quadratic equation of the form y = a(x - c)² + d are x = c ± √(ȳ-d̄ā). 	A.7A A.7C A.8A	2	
	Mid-Topic Assessment					





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
5	The Missing Link Factoring and Completing the Square	Students learn to solve quadratic equations of the form $y=ax^2+bx+c$. First, they factor trinomials using a multiplication table, and then solve quadratic equations by factoring and using the Zero Product Property. Students are introduced to the method of completing the square both conceptually and procedurally. They practice solving equations that are not factorable by completing the square. Students analyze a Worked Example that converts a quadratic equation in general form, $y=ax^2+bx+c$ into vertex form, proving that the vertex of any quadratic equation is located at $\left(-\frac{b}{2a},c-\frac{b^2}{4a}\right)$. Students complete the square to rewrite equations in vertex form, graph the function, and identify the zeros in terms of the axis of symmetry.	 One method of solving quadratic equations in the form y = ax² + bx + c is to set the equation equal to zero, factor the trinomial expression, and use the Zero Product Property to determine the roots. Completing the square is a method for rewriting a quadratic equation in the form y = ax² + bx + c as a quadratic equation in vertex form. When a quadratic equation in the form y = ax² + bx + c is not factorable, completing the square is an alternative method of determining the roots of the equation. Completing the square is a useful method for converting a quadratic function written as f(x) = ax² + bx + c to vertex form for graphing purposes and determining the maximum or minimum in problem situations. Given a quadratic equation in the form y = ax² + bx + c, the vertex of the function is located at (x, y) such that x = -b/2a and x = c - b²/4a. 	A.7A A.8A A.10E	3
6	Ladies and Gents, Please Welcome the Quadratic Formula! The Quadratic Formula	Students are guided through a Worked Example to derive the Quadratic Formula. They then use the Quadratic Formula to solve problems in and out of context and analyze common student errors. They connect the terms of the Quadratic Formula to its symmetric graph and repeat the process with numeric solutions. The term discriminant is defined, and students use the discriminant to identify the number of real roots for a quadratic equation.	 The Quadratic Formula, x = (-b ± √b² - 4ac)/(2a), can be used to calculate the solutions to any quadratic equation written in general form, f(x) = ax² + bx + c, where a, b, and c represent real numbers and a ≠ 0. On the graph of a quadratic function, ± √(b² - 4ac)/(2a) is the distance from (-b/2a), 0) to each root. When a quadratic equation is in the form, ax² + bx + c = 0, where a, b, and c represent real numbers and a ≠ 0, the discriminant is b² - 4ac. When b² - 4ac < 0, the quadratic equation has no real roots. When b² - 4ac = 0, the quadratic equation has one real root. When b² - 4ac > 0, the quadratic equation has two real roots. 	A.7A A.8A A.11A	3





Lesson	Lesson Title	Highlights	Essential Ideas	TEKS*	Pacing**
7	Fit This Model Using Quadratic Functions to Model Data	Students begin the lesson by determining a quadratic regression equation to model a set of data and use the regression equation to make predictions. Throughout the lesson, students identify the independent and dependent quantities and domain and range of functions.	Some data in context can be modeled by a quadratic regression equation. The regression equation can be used to make predictions; however, there may be limitations on the domain depending on the context.	A.6A A.7A A.8B	1
	End of Topic Assessment				
Learning Individually with Skills Practice or MATHia Schedule these days strategically throughout the topic to support student learning.				7	

Total Days: 165

Learning Together: 102 Learning Individually: 47 Assessments: 16