COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS FOR

Mathematics



Introduction

Toward greater focus and coherence

Mathematics experiences in early childhood settings should concentrate on (1) number (which includes whole number, operations, and relations) and (2) geometry, spatial relations, and measurement, with more mathematics learning time devoted to number than to other topics. Mathematical process goals should be integrated in these content areas.

- Mathematics Learning in Early Childhood, National Research Council, 2009

The composite standards [of Hong Kong, Korea and Singapore] have a number of features that can inform an international benchmarking process for the development of K-6 mathematics standards in the U.S. First, the composite standards concentrate the early learning of mathematics on the number, measurement, and geometry strands with less emphasis on data analysis and little exposure to algebra. The Hong Kong standards for grades 1-3 devote approximately half the targeted time to numbers and almost all the time remaining to geometry and measurement.

- Ginsburg, Leinwand and Decker, 2009

Because the mathematics concepts in [U.S.] textbooks are often weak, the presentation becomes more mechanical than is ideal. We looked at both traditional and non-traditional textbooks used in the US and found this conceptual weakness in both.

– Ginsburg et al., 2005

There are many ways to organize curricula. The challenge, now rarely met, is to avoid those that distort mathematics and turn off students.

- Steen, 2007

For over a decade, research studies of mathematics education in high-performing countries have pointed to the conclusion that the mathematics curriculum in the United States must become substantially more focused and coherent in order to improve mathematics achievement in this country. To deliver on the promise of common standards, the standards must address the problem of a curriculum that is "a mile wide and an inch deep." These Standards are a substantial answer to that challenge.

It is important to recognize that "fewer standards" are no substitute for focused standards. Achieving "fewer standards" would be easy to do by resorting to broad, general statements. Instead, these Standards aim for clarity and specificity.

Assessing the coherence of a set of standards is more difficult than assessing their focus. William Schmidt and Richard Houang (2002) have said that content standards and curricula are coherent if they are:

articulated over time as a sequence of topics and performances that are logical and reflect, where appropriate, the sequential or hierarchical nature of the disciplinary content from which the subject matter derives. That is, what and how students are taught should reflect not only the topics that fall within a certain academic discipline, **but also the key ideas** that determine how knowledge is organized and generated within that discipline. This implies that to be coherent, a set of content standards must evolve from particulars (e.g., the meaning and operations of whole numbers, including simple math facts and routine computational procedures associated with whole numbers and fractions) to deeper structures inherent in the discipline. These deeper structures then serve as a means for connecting the particulars (such as an understanding of the rational number system and its properties). (emphasis added)

These Standards endeavor to follow such a design, not only by stressing conceptual understanding of key ideas, but also by continually returning to organizing principles such as place value or the properties of operations to structure those ideas.

In addition, the "sequence of topics and performances" that is outlined in a body of mathematics standards must also respect what is known about how students learn. As Confrey (2007) points out, developing "sequenced obstacles and challenges for students...absent the insights about meaning that derive from careful study of learning, would be unfortunate and unwise." In recognition of this, the development of these Standards began with research-based learning progressions detailing what is known today about how students' mathematical knowledge, skill, and understanding develop over time.

Understanding mathematics

These Standards define what students should understand and be able to do in their study of mathematics. Asking a student to understand something means asking a teacher to assess whether the student has understood it. But what does mathematical understanding look like? One hallmark of mathematical understanding is the ability to justify, in a way appropriate to the student's mathematical maturity, *why* a particular mathematical statement is true or where a mathematical rule comes from. There is a world of difference between a student who can summon a mnemonic device to expand a product such as (a + b)(x + y) and a student who can explain where the mnemonic comes from. The student who can explain the rule understands the mathematics, and may have a better chance to succeed at a less familiar task such as expanding (a + b + c)(x + y). Mathematical understanding and procedural skill are equally important, and both are assessable using mathematical tasks of sufficient richness.

The Standards set grade-specific standards but do not define the intervention methods or materials necessary to support students who are well below or well above grade-level expectations. It is also beyond the scope of the Standards to define the full range of supports appropriate for English language learners and for students with special needs. At the same time, all students must have the opportunity to learn and meet the same high standards if they are to access the knowledge and skills necessary in their post-school lives. The Standards should be read as allowing for the widest possible range of students to participate fully from the outset, along with appropriate accommodations to ensure maximum participaton of students with special education needs. For example, for students with disabilities reading should allow for use of Braille, screen reader technology, or other assistive devices, while writing should include the use of a scribe, computer, or speech-to-text technology. In a similar vein, speaking and listening should be interpreted broadly to include sign language. No set of grade-specific standards can fully reflect the great variety in abilities, needs, learning rates, and achievement levels of students in any given classroom. However, the Standards do provide clear signposts along the way to the goal of college and career readiness for all students.

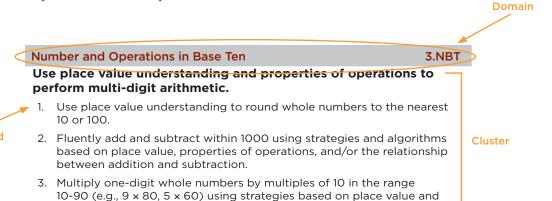
The Standards begin on page 6 with eight Standards for Mathematical Practice.

How to read the grade level standards

Standards define what students should understand and be able to do.

Clusters are groups of related standards. Note that standards from different clusters may sometimes be closely related, because mathematics is a connected subject.

Domains are larger groups of related standards. Standards from different domains may sometimes be closely related.



These Standards do not dictate curriculum or teaching methods. For example, just because topic A appears before topic B in the standards for a given grade, it does not necessarily mean that topic A must be taught before topic B. A teacher might prefer to teach topic B before topic A, or might choose to highlight connections by teaching topic A and topic B at the same time. Or, a teacher might prefer to teach a

topic of his or her own choosing that leads, as a byproduct, to students reaching the

properties of operations.

standards for topics A and B.

What students can learn at any particular grade level depends upon what they have learned before. Ideally then, each standard in this document might have been phrased in the form, "Students who already know ... should next come to learn" But at present this approach is unrealistic—not least because existing education research cannot specify all such learning pathways. Of necessity therefore, grade placements for specific topics have been made on the basis of state and international comparisons and the collective experience and collective professional judgment of educators, researchers and mathematicians. One promise of common state standards is that over time they will allow research on learning progressions to inform and improve the design of standards to a much greater extent than is possible today. Learning opportunities will continue to vary across schools and school systems, and educators should make every effort to meet the needs of individual students based on their current understanding.

These Standards are not intended to be new names for old ways of doing business. They are a call to take the next step. It is time for states to work together to build on lessons learned from two decades of standards based reforms. It is time to recognize that standards are not just promises to our children, but promises we intend to keep.

Standard

Mathematics | Standards for Mathematical Practice

The Standards for Mathematical Practice describe varieties of expertise that mathematics educators at all levels should seek to develop in their students. These practices rest on important "processes and proficiencies" with longstanding importance in mathematics education. The first of these are the NCTM process standards of problem solving, reasoning and proof, communication, representation, and connections. The second are the strands of mathematical proficiency specified in the National Research Council's report Adding It Up: adaptive reasoning, strategic competence, conceptual understanding (comprehension of mathematical concepts, operations and relations), procedural fluency (skill in carrying out procedures flexibly, accurately, efficiently and appropriately), and productive disposition (habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in diligence and one's own efficacy).

1 Make sense of 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 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.

2 Reason abstractly and quantitatively.

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 guantities, not just how to compute them; and knowing and flexibly using different properties of operations and objects.

3 Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others.

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.

4 Model with mathematics.

Mathematically proficient students can apply the mathematics they know to solve problems arising in everyday life, society, and the workplace. In early grades, this might be as simple as writing an addition equation to describe a situation. In middle grades, a student might apply proportional reasoning to plan a school event or analyze a problem in the community. By high school, a student might use geometry to solve a design problem or use a function to describe how one quantity of interest depends on another. Mathematically proficient students who can apply what they know are comfortable making assumptions and approximations to simplify a complicated situation, realizing that these may need revision later. They are able to identify important quantities in a practical situation and map their relationships using such tools as diagrams, two-way tables, graphs, flowcharts and formulas. They can analyze those relationships mathematically to draw conclusions. They routinely interpret their mathematical results in the context of the situation and reflect on whether the results make sense, possibly improving the model if it has not served its purpose.

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, a ruler, a protractor, a calculator, a spreadsheet, a computer algebra system, a statistical package, or dynamic geometry software. Proficient students are sufficiently familiar with tools appropriate for their grade or course to make sound decisions about when each of these tools might be helpful, recognizing both the insight to be gained and their limitations. For example, mathematically proficient high school students analyze graphs of functions and solutions generated using a graphing calculator. They detect possible errors by strategically using estimation and other mathematical knowledge. When making mathematical models, they know that technology can enable them to visualize the results of varying assumptions, explore consequences, and compare predictions with data. Mathematically proficient students at various grade levels are able to identify relevant external mathematical resources, such as digital content located on a website, and use them to pose or solve problems. They are able to use technological tools to explore and deepen their understanding of concepts.

6 Attend to precision.

Mathematically proficient students try to communicate precisely to others. They try to use clear definitions in discussion with others and in their own reasoning. They state the meaning of the symbols they choose, including using the equal sign consistently and appropriately. They are careful about specifying units of measure, and labeling axes to clarify the correspondence with quantities in a problem. They calculate accurately and efficiently, express numerical answers with a degree of precision appropriate for the problem context. In the elementary grades, students give carefully formulated explanations to each other. By the time they reach high school they have learned to examine claims and make explicit use of definitions.

7 Look for and make use of structure.

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.

8 Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning.

Mathematically proficient students notice if calculations are repeated, and look both for general methods and for shortcuts. Upper elementary students might notice when dividing 25 by 11 that they are repeating the same calculations over and over again, and conclude they have a repeating decimal. 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 - 2)/(x - 1) = 3. Noticing the regularity in the way terms cancel when expanding $(x - 1)(x + 1), (x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1), \text{ and } (x - 1)(x^3 + x^2 + x + 1)$ might lead them to the general formula for the sum of a geometric series. As they work to solve a problem, mathematically proficient students maintain oversight of the process, while attending to the details. They continually evaluate the reasonableness of their intermediate results.

Connecting the Standards for Mathematical Practice to the Standards for Mathematical Content

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 throughout the elementary, middle and high school years. Designers of curricula, assessments, and professional development should all attend to the need to connect the mathematical practices to mathematical content in mathematics instruction.

The Standards for Mathematical Content are a balanced combination of procedure and understanding. Expectations that begin with the word "understand" are often especially good opportunities to connect the practices to the content. Students who lack understanding of a topic may rely on procedures too heavily. Without a flexible base from which to work, they may be less likely to consider analogous problems, represent problems coherently, justify conclusions, apply the mathematics to practical situations, use technology mindfully to work with the mathematics, explain the mathematics accurately to other students, step back for an overview, or deviate from a known procedure to find a shortcut. In short, a lack of understanding effectively prevents a student from engaging in the mathematical practices.

In this respect, those content standards which set an expectation of understanding are potential "points of intersection" between the Standards for Mathematical Content and the Standards for Mathematical Practice. These points of intersection are intended to be weighted toward central and generative concepts in the school mathematics curriculum that most merit the time, resources, innovative energies, and focus necessary to qualitatively improve the curriculum, instruction, assessment, professional development, and student achievement in mathematics.

Integrated Pathway: Mathematics II

The focus of Mathematics II is on quadratic expressions, equations, and functions; comparing their characteristics and behavior to those of linear and exponential relationships from Mathematics I as organized into 6 critical areas, or units. The need for extending the set of rational numbers arises and real and complex numbers are introduced so that all quadratic equations can be solved. The link between probability and data is explored through conditional probability and counting methods, including their use in making and evaluating decisions. The study of similarity leads to an understanding of right triangle trigonometry and connects to quadratics through Pythagorean relationships. Circles, with their quadratic algebraic representations, round out the course. The Mathematical Practice Standards apply throughout each course and, together with the content standards, prescribe that students experience mathematics as a coherent, useful, and logical subject that makes use of their ability to make sense of problem situations.

Critical Area 1: Students extend the laws of exponents to rational exponents and explore distinctions between rational and irrational numbers by considering their decimal representations. In Unit 3, students learn that when quadratic equations do not have real solutions the number system must be extended so that solutions exist, analogous to the way in which extending the whole numbers to the negative numbers allows x+1 = 0 to have a solution. Students explore relationships between number systems: whole numbers, integers, rational numbers, real numbers, and complex numbers. The guiding principle is that equations with no solutions in one number system may have solutions in a larger number system.

Critical Area 2: Students consider quadratic functions, comparing the key characteristics of quadratic functions to those of linear and exponential functions. They select from among these functions to model phenomena. Students learn to anticipate the graph of a quadratic function by interpreting various forms of quadratic expressions. In particular, they identify the real solutions of a quadratic equation as the zeros of a related quadratic function. When quadratic equations do not have real solutions, students learn that that the graph of the related quadratic function does not cross the horizontal axis. They expand their experience with functions to include more specialized functions—absolute value, step, and those that are piecewise-defined.

Critical Area 3: Students begin this unit by focusing on the structure of expressions, rewriting expressions to clarify and reveal aspects of the relationship they represent. They create and solve equations, inequalities, and systems of equations involving exponential and quadratic expressions.

Critical Area 4: Building on probability concepts that began in the middle grades, students use the languages of set theory to expand their ability to compute and interpret theoretical and experimental probabilities for compound events, attending to mutually exclusive events, independent events, and conditional probability. Students should make use of geometric probability models wherever possible. They use probability to make informed decisions.

Critical Area 5: Students apply their earlier experience with dilations and proportional reasoning to build a formal understanding of similarity. They identify criteria for similarity of triangles, use similarity to solve problems, and apply similarity in right triangles to understand right triangle trigonometry, with particular attention to special right triangles and the Pythagorean Theorem. It is in this unit that students develop facility with geometric proof. They use what they know about congruence and similarity to prove theorems involving lines, angles, triangles, and other polygons. They explore a variety of formats for writing proofs.

Critical Area 6: In this unit students prove basic theorems about circles, such as a tangent line is perpendicular to a radius, inscribed angle theorem, and theorems about chords, secants, and tangents dealing with segment lengths and angle measures. In the Cartesian coordinate system, students use the distance formula to write the equation of a circle when given the radius and the coordinates of its center, and the equation of a parabola with vertical axis when given an equation of its directrix and the coordinates of its focus. Given an equation of a circle, they draw the graph in the coordinate plane, and apply techniques for solving quadratic equations to determine intersections between lines and circles or a parabola and between two circles. Students develop informal arguments justifying common formulas for circumference, area, and volume of geometric objects, especially those related to circles.

Units	Includes Standard Clusters*	Mathematical Practice Standards
Unit 1 Extending the Number System	 Extend the properties of exponents to rational exponents. Use properties of rational and irrational numbers. Perform arithmetic operations with complex numbers. Perform arithmetic operations on polynomials. 	
Unit 2 Quadratic Functions and Modeling	 Interpret functions that arise in applications in terms of a context. Analyze functions using different representations. Build a function that models a relationship between two quantities. Build new functions from existing functions. Construct and compare linear, quadratic, and exponential models and solve problems. 	Make sense of problems and persevere in solving them. Reason abstractly and quantitatively.
Unit 3 † Expressions and Equations	 Interpret the structure of expressions. Write expressions in equivalent forms to solve problems. Create equations that describe numbers or relationships. Solve equations and inequalities in one variable. Use complex numbers in polynomial identities and equations. Solve systems of equations. 	Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others. Model with mathematics. Use appropriate tools strategically.
Unit 4 Applications of Probability	 Understand independence and conditional probability and use them to interpret data. Use the rules of probability to compute probabilities of compound events in a uniform probability model. Use probability to evaluate outcomes of decisions. 	Attend to precision. Look for and make use of structure. Look for and express regularity in repeated
Unit 5 Similarity, Right Triangle Trigonometry, and Proof	 Understand similarity in terms of similarity transformations. Prove geometric theorems. Prove theorems involving similarity. Use coordinates to prove simple geometric theorems algebraically. Define trigonometric ratios and solve problems involving right triangles. Prove and apply trigonometric identities. 	reasoning.
Unit 6 Circles With and Without Coordinates	 Understand and apply theorems about circles. Find arc lengths and areas of sectors of circles. Translate between the geometric description and the equation for a conic section. Use coordinates to prove simple geometric theorem algebraically. Explain volume formulas and use them to solve problems. 	

^{*}In some cases clusters appear in more than one unit within a course or in more than one course. Instructional notes will indicate how these standards grow over time. In some cases only certain standards within a cluster are included in a unit.

[†]Note that solving equations follows a study of functions in this course. To examine equations before functions, this unit could come before Unit 2.

Unit 1: Extending the Number System

Students extend the laws of exponents to rational exponents and explore distinctions between rational and irrational numbers by considering their decimal representations. In Unit 2, students learn that when quadratic equations do not have real solutions the number system must be extended so that solutions exist, analogous to the way in which extending the whole numbers to the negative numbers allows x+1 = 0 to have a solution. Students explore relationships between number systems: whole numbers, integers, rational numbers, real numbers, and complex numbers. The guiding principle is that equations with no solutions in one number system may have solutions in a larger number system.

Unit 1: Extending the Number System	
Clusters with Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards
• Extend the properties of exponents to rational exponents.	N.RN.1 Explain how the definition of the meaning of rational exponents follows from extending the properties of integer exponents to those values, allowing for a notation for radicals in terms of rational exponents. For example, we define $5^{1/3}$ to be the cube root of 5 because we want $(5^{1/3})^3 = 5^{(1/3)3}$ to hold, so $(5^{1/3})^3$ must equal 5.
	N.RN.2 Rewrite expressions involving radicals and rational exponents using the properties of exponents.
• Use properties of rational and irrational numbers. Connect N.RN.3 to physical situations, e.g., finding the perimeter of a square of area 2.	N.RN.3 Explain why sums and products of rational numbers are rational, that the sum of a rational number and an irrational number is irrational, and that the product of a nonzero rational number and an irrational number is irrational.
 Perform arithmetic operations with complex numbers. 	N.CN.1 Know there is a complex number <i>i</i> such that $i^2 = -1$, and every complex number has the form $a + bi$ with <i>a</i> and <i>b</i> real.
Limit to multiplications that involve i ² as the highest power of i.	N.CN.2 Use the relation $i^2 = -1$ and the commutative, associative, and distributive properties to add, subtract, and multiply complex numbers.
 Perform arithmetic operations on polynomials. Focus on polynomial expressions that simplify to forms that are linear or quadratic in a positive integer power of x. 	A.APR.1 Understand that polynomials form a system analogous to the integers, namely, they are closed under the operations of addition, subtraction, and multiplication; add, subtract, and multiply polynomials.

Unit 2: Quadratic Functions and Modeling

Students consider quadratic functions, comparing the key characteristics of quadratic functions to those of linear and exponential functions. They select from among these functions to model phenomena. Students learn to anticipate the graph of a quadratic function by interpreting various forms of quadratic expressions. In particular, they identify the real solutions of a quadratic equation as the zeros of a related quadratic function. When quadratic equations do not have real solutions, students learn that that the graph of the related quadratic function does not cross the horizontal axis. They expand their experience with functions to include more specialized functions—absolute value, step, and those that are piecewise-defined.

Unit 2: Quadratic Functions and Modeling		
Clusters with Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards	
Interpret functions that arise in appli- cations in terms of a context. Focus on quadratic functions; compare with linear and exponential functions studied in Mathematics I.	F.IF.4 For a function that models a relationship between two quantities, interpret key features of graphs and tables in terms of the quantities, and sketch graphs showing key features given a verbal description of the relationship. <i>Key features include: intercepts; intervals where the function is increasing, decreasing, positive, or negative; relative maximums and minimums; symmetries; end behavior; and periodicity.</i> *	
	F.IF.5 Relate the domain of a function to its graph and, where applicable, to the quantitative relationship it describes. For example, if the function $h(n)$ gives the number of person-hours it takes to assemble n engines in a factory, then the positive integers would be an appropriate domain for the function.*	
	F.IF.6 Calculate and interpret the average rate of change of a function (presented symbolically or as a table) over a specified interval. Estimate the rate of change from a graph.*	
• Analyze functions using different representations.	F.IF.7 Graph functions expressed symbolically and show key features of the graph, by hand in simple cases and using technology for more complicated cases.*	
For F.IF.7b, compare and contrast absolute value, step and piecewise-	a. Graph linear and quadratic functions and show intercepts, maxima, and minima.	
defined functions with linear, quadratic, and exponential functions. Highlight issues of domain range	b. Graph square root, cube root, and piecewise-defined functions, including step functions and absolute value functions.	
 Highlight issues of domain, range and usefulness when examining piecewise-defined functions. Note that this unit, and in particular in F.IF.8b, extends the work begun in Mathematics I on exponential functions with integer exponents. For F.IF.9, focus on expanding the types of functions considered to include, linear, exponential, and quadratic. Extend work with quadratics to include the relationship between coefficients and roots, and that once roots are known, a quadratic equation can be factored. 	F.IF.8 Write a function defined by an expression in different but equivalent forms to reveal and explain different properties of the function.	
	a. Use the process of factoring and completing the square in a qua- dratic function to show zeros, extreme values, and symmetry of the graph, and interpret these in terms of a context.	
	b. Use the properties of exponents to interpret expressions for exponential functions. For example, identify percent rate of change in functions such as $y = (1.02)^t$, $y = (0.97)^t$, $y = (1.01)^{12t}$, $y = (1.2)^{t/10}$, and classify them as representing exponential growth or decay.	
	F.IF.9 Compare properties of two functions each represented in a different way (algebraically, graphically, numerically in tables, or by verbal descriptions). For example, given a graph of one quadratic function and an algebraic expression for another, say which has the larger maximum.	
• Build a function that models a relation- ship between two quantities.	F.BF.1 Write a function that describes a relationship between two quantities.*	
Focus on situations that exhibit a	a. Determine an explicit expression, a recursive process, or steps for calculation from a context.	
quadratic or exponential relationship.	b. Combine standard function types using arithmetic operations. For example, build a function that models the temperature of a cooling body by adding a constant function to a decaying expo- nential, and relate these functions to the model.	

Unit 2: Quadratic Functions and Modeling		
Clusters with Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards	
• Build new functions from existing func- tions. For F.BF.3, focus on quadratic functions and consider including absolute value functions For F.BF.4a, focus on linear functions but consider simple situations where the domain of the function must be restricted in order for the inverse to exist, such as $f(x) = x^2, x>0$.	 F.BF.3 Identify the effect on the graph of replacing f(x) by f(x) + k, k f(x), f(kx), and f(x + k) for specific values of k (both positive and negative); find the value of k given the graphs. Experiment with cases and illustrate an explanation of the effects on the graph using technology. Include recognizing even and odd functions from their graphs and algebraic expressions for them. F.BF.4 Find inverse functions. a. Solve an equation of the form f(x) = c for a simple function f that has an inverse and write an expression for the inverse. For example, f(x) = 2 x³ or f(x) = (x+1)/(x-1) for x ≠ 1. 	
Construct and compare linear, quadrat- ic, and exponential models and solve problems. Compare linear and exponential growth studied in Mathematics I to quadratic growth.	F.LE.3 Observe using graphs and tables that a quantity increasing exponentially eventually exceeds a quantity increasing linearly, quadratically, or (more generally) as a polynomial function.	

Unit 3: Expressions and Equations

Students begin this unit by focusing on the structure of expressions, rewriting expressions to clarify and reveal aspects of the relationship they represent. They create and solve equations, inequalities, and systems of equations involving exponential and quadratic expressions.

Unit 3: Expressions and Equations	
Clusters with Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards
• Interpret the structure of expressions.	A.SSE.1 Interpret expressions that represent a quantity in terms of its context.*
Focus on quadratic and exponential expressions. For A.SSE.1b, exponents are extended from the integer	a. Interpret parts of an expression, such as terms, factors, and coef- ficients.
exponents found in Mathematics I to rational exponents focusing on those	b. Interpret complicated expressions by viewing one or more of their parts as a single entity. For example, interpret P(1+r) ⁿ as the product of P and a factor not depending on P.
that represent square or cube roots.	A.SSE.2 Use the structure of an expression to identify ways to rewrite it. For example, see $x^4 - y^4$ as $(x^2)^2 - (y^2)^2$, thus recognizing it as a difference of squares that can be factored as $(x^2 - y^2)(x^2 + y^2)$.
• Write expressions in equivalent forms to solve problems.	A.SSE.3 Choose and produce an equivalent form of an expression to reveal and explain properties of the quantity represented by the expression.*
It is important to balance conceptual understanding and procedural fluency	a. Factor a quadratic expression to reveal the zeros of the function it defines.
in work with equivalent expressions. For example, development of skill in factoring and completing the square	b. Complete the square in a quadratic expression to reveal the maxi- mum or minimum value of the function it defines.
goes hand-in-hand with understanding what different forms of a quadratic expression reveal.	c. Use the properties of exponents to transform expressions for exponential functions. For example the expression 1.15 ^t can be rewritten as (1.15 ^{1/12}) ^{12t} ≈ 1.012 ^{12t} to reveal the approximate equivalent monthly interest rate if the annual rate is 15%.
• Create equations that describe numbers or relationships.	A.CED.1 Create equations and inequalities in one variable and use them to solve problems. <i>Include equations arising from linear and quadratic functions, and simple rational and exponential functions.</i>
Extend work on linear and exponential equations in Mathematics I to quadratic equations. Extend A.CED.4 to formulas involving squared	A.CED.2 Create equations in two or more variables to represent relationships between quantities; graph equations on coordinate axes with labels and scales.
to formulas involving squared variables.	A.CED.4 Rearrange formulas to highlight a quantity of interest, using the same reasoning as in solving equations. <i>For example, rearrange Ohm's law V = IR to highlight resistance R.</i>
• Solve equations and inequalities in one	A.REI.4 Solve quadratic equations in one variable.
variable. Extend to solving any quadratic equation with real coefficients,	a. 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. Derive the quadratic formula from this form.
including those with complex solutions.	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 .
 Use complex numbers in polynomial identities and equations. 	N.CN.7 Solve quadratic equations with real coefficients that have complex solutions.
Limit to quadratics with real coefficients.	N.CN.8 (+) Extend polynomial identities to the complex numbers. For example, rewrite $x^2 + 4$ as $(x + 2i)(x - 2i)$.
	N.CN.9 (+) Know the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra; show that it is true for quadratic polynomials.

Unit 3: Expressions and Equations	
Clusters with Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards
• Solve systems of equations. Include systems consisting of one linear and one quadratic equation. Include systems that lead to work with fractions. For example, finding the intersections between $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and y = $(x+1)/2$ leads to the point (3/5, 4/5) on the unit circle, corresponding to the Pythagorean triple $3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$.	A.REI.7 Solve a simple system consisting of a linear equation and a quadratic equation in two variables algebraically and graphically. For example, find the points of intersection between the line $y = -3x$ and the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 3$.

Unit 4: Applications of Probability

Building on probability concepts that began in the middle grades, students use the languages of set theory to expand their ability to compute and interpret theoretical and experimental probabilities for compound events, attending to mutually exclusive events, independent events, and conditional probability. Students should make use of geometric probability models wherever possible. They use probability to make informed decisions.

Unit 4: Applications of Probability		
Clusters and Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards	
• Understand independence and con- ditional probability and use them to interpret data.	S.CP.1 Describe events as subsets of a sample space (the set of outcomes) using characteristics (or categories) of the outcomes, or as unions, intersections, or complements of other events ("or," "and," "not").	
Build on work with two-way tables from Mathematics I Unit 4 (S.ID.5) to develop understanding of conditional probability and independence.	S.CP.2 Understand that two events A and B are independent if the probability of A and B occurring together is the product of their probabilities, and use this characterization to determine if they are independent.	
	S.CP.3 Understand the conditional probability of A given B as $P(A \text{ and } B)/P(B)$, and interpret independence of A and B as saying that the conditional probability of A given B is the same as the probability of A, and the conditional probability of B given A is the same as the probability of B.	
	S.CP.4 Construct and interpret two-way frequency tables of data when two categories are associated with each object being classified. Use the two-way table as a sample space to decide if events are independent and to approximate conditional probabilities. For example, collect data from a random sample of students in your school on their favorite subject among math, science, and English. Estimate the probability that a randomly selected student from your school will favor science given that the student is in tenth grade. Do the same for other subjects and compare the results.	
	S.CP.5 Recognize and explain the concepts of conditional probability and independence in everyday language and everyday situations. For example, compare the chance of having lung cancer if you are a smoker with the chance of being a smoker if you have lung cancer.	
• Use the rules of probability to compute probabilities of compound events in a uniform probability model.	S.CP.6 Find the conditional probability of A given B as the fraction of B 's outcomes that also belong to A , and interpret the answer in terms of the model.	
	S.CP.7 Apply the Addition Rule, $P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$, and interpret the answer in terms of the model.	
	S.CP.8 (+) Apply the general Multiplication Rule in a uniform probability model, $P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A)P(B A) = P(B)P(A B)$, and interpret the answer in terms of the model.	
	S.CP.9 (+) Use permutations and combinations to compute probabilities of compound events and solve problems.	
 Use probability to evaluate outcomes of decisions. 	S.MD.6 (+) Use probabilities to make fair decisions (e.g., drawing by lots, using a random number generator).	
This unit sets the stage for work in Mathematics III, where the ideas of statistical inference are introduced. Evaluating the risks associated with conclusions drawn from sample data (i.e. incomplete information) requires an understanding of probability concepts.	S.MD.7 (+) Analyze decisions and strategies using probability concepts (e.g., product testing, medical testing, pulling a hockey goalie at the end of a game).	

Unit 5: Similarity, Right Triangle Trigonometry, and Proof

Students apply their earlier experience with dilations and proportional reasoning to build a formal understanding of similarity. They identify criteria for similarity of triangles, use similarity to solve problems, and apply similarity in right triangles to understand right triangle trigonometry, with particular attention to special right triangles and the Pythagorean theorem.

It is in this unit that students develop facility with geometric proof. They use what they know about congruence and similarity to prove theorems involving lines, angles, triangles, and other polygons. They explore a variety of formats for writing proofs.

Unit 5: Similarity, Right Triangle Trigonometry, and Proof		
Clusters and Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards	
• Understand similarity in terms of simi- larity transformations.	G.SRT.1 Verify experimentally the properties of dilations given by a center and a scale factor.	
	a. A dilation takes a line not passing through the center of the dila- tion to a parallel line, and leaves a line passing through the center unchanged.	
	b. The dilation of a line segment is longer or shorter in the ratio given by the scale factor.	
	G.SRT.2 Given two figures, use the definition of similarity in terms of similarity transformations to decide if they are similar; explain using similarity transformations the meaning of similarity for triangles as the equality of all corresponding pairs of angles and the proportionality of all corresponding pairs of sides.	
	G.SRT.3 Use the properties of similarity transformations to establish the AA criterion for two triangles to be similar.	
 Prove geometric theorems. Encourage multiple ways of writing proofs, such as in narrative paragraphs, using flow diagrams, 	G.CO.9 Prove theorems about lines and angles. Theorems include: vertical angles are congruent; when a transversal crosses parallel lines, alternate interior angles are congruent and corresponding angles are congruent; points on a perpendicular bisector of a line segment are exactly those equidistant from the segment's endpoints.	
in two-column format, and using diagrams without words. Students should be encouraged to focus on the validity of the underlying reasoning while exploring a variety of formats for expressing that reasoning. Implementation of G.CO.10 may be extended to include concurrence of perpendicular bisectors and angle bisectors as preparation for G.C.3 in Unit 6.	 G.CO.10 Prove theorems about triangles. Theorems include: measures of interior angles of a triangle sum to 180°; base angles of isosceles triangles are congruent; the segment joining midpoints of two sides of a triangle is parallel to the third side and half the length; the medians of a triangle meet at a point. G.CO.11 Prove theorems about parallelograms. Theorems include: opposite sides are congruent, opposite angles are congruent, the diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other, and conversely, rectangles are parallelograms with congruent diagonals. 	
• Prove theorems involving similarity.	G.SRT.4 Prove theorems about triangles. <i>Theorems include: a line parallel to one side of a triangle divides the other two proportionally, and conversely; the Pythagorean Theorem proved using triangle similarity.</i>	
	G.SRT.5 Use congruence and similarity criteria for triangles to solve problems and to prove relationships in geometric figures.	
• Use coordinates to prove simple geo- metric theorems algebraically.	G.GPE.6 Find the point on a directed line segment between two given points that partitions the segment in a given ratio.	
 Define trigonometric ratios and solve problems involving right triangles. 	G.SRT.6 Understand that by similarity, side ratios in right triangles are properties of the angles in the triangle, leading to definitions of trigonometric ratios for acute angles.	
	G.SRT.7 Explain and use the relationship between the sine and cosine of complementary angles.	
	G.SRT.8 Use trigonometric ratios and the Pythagorean Theorem to solve right triangles in applied problems.	

Unit 5: Similarity, Right Triangle Trigonometry, and Proof	
Clusters and Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards
• Prove and apply trigonometric identi- ties.	F.TF.8 Prove the Pythagorean identity $\sin^2(\theta) + \cos^2(\theta) = 1$ and use it to find sin (θ), cos (θ), or tan (θ), given sin (θ), cos (θ), or tan (θ), and the quadrant of the angle.
In this course, limit θ to angles between 0 and 90 degrees. Connect with the Pythagorean theorem and the distance formula. A course with a greater focus on trigonometry could include the (+) standard F.TF.9: Prove the addition and subtraction formulas for sine, cosine, and tangent and use them to solve problems. This could continue to be limited to acute angles in Mathematics II.	
Extension of trigonometric functions to other angles through the unit circle is included in Mathematics III.	

Unit 6: Circles With and Without Coordinates

In this unit students prove basic theorems about circles, such as a tangent line is perpendicular to a radius, inscribed angle theorem, and theorems about chords, secants, and tangents dealing with segment lengths and angle measures. They study relationships among segments on chords, secants, and tangents as an application of similarity. In the Cartesian coordinate system, students use the distance formula to write the equation of a circle when given the radius and the coordinates of its center, and the equation of a parabola with vertical axis when given an equation of its directrix and the coordinates of its focus. Given an equation of a circle, they draw the graph in the coordinate plane, and apply techniques for solving quadratic equations to determine intersections between lines and circles or a parabola and between two circles. Students develop informal arguments justifying common formulas for circumference, area, and volume of geometric objects, especially those related to circles.

Unit 6: Circles With an Without Coordinates		
Clusters and Instructional Notes	Common Core State Standards	
• Understand and apply theorems about	G.C.1 Prove that all circles are similar.	
circles.	G.C.2 Identify and describe relationships among inscribed angles, radii, and chords. <i>Include the relationship between central, inscribed, and</i> <i>circumscribed angles; inscribed angles on a diameter are right angles;</i> <i>the radius of a circle is perpendicular to the tangent where the radius</i> <i>intersects the circle.</i>	
	G.C.3 Construct the inscribed and circumscribed circles of a triangle, and prove properties of angles for a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle.	
	G.C.4 (+) Construct a tangent line from a point outside a given circle to the circle.	
• Find arc lengths and areas of sectors of circles. Emphasize the similarity of all circles. Note that by similarity of sectors with the same central angle, arc lengths are proportional to the radius. Use this as a basis for introducing radian as a unit of measure. It is not intended that it be applied to the development of circular trigonometry in this course.	G.C.5 Derive using similarity the fact that the length of the arc intercepted by an angle is proportional to the radius, and define the radian measure of the angle as the constant of proportionality; derive the formula for the area of a sector.	
 Translate between the geometric de- scription and the equation for a conic section. 	G.GPE.1 Derive the equation of a circle of given center and radius using the Pythagorean Theorem; complete the square to find the center and radius of a circle given by an equation.	
Connect the equations of circles and parabolas to prior work with quadratic equations. The directrix should be parallel to a coordinate axis.	G.GPE.2 Derive the equation of a parabola given a focus and directrix.	
Use coordinates to prove simple geo- metric theorems algebraically. Include simple proofs involving circles.	G.GPE.4 Use coordinates to prove simple geometric theorems algebraically. For example, prove or disprove that a figure defined by four given points in the coordinate plane is a rectangle; prove or disprove that the point $(1, \sqrt{3})$ lies on the circle centered at the origin and containing the point $(0, 2)$.	
 Explain volume formulas and use them to solve problems. Informal arguments for area and volume formulas can make use of the way in which area and volume scale under similarity transformations: when one figure in the plane results from another by applying a similarity transformation with scale factor k, its area is k² times the area of the first. Similarly, volumes of solid figures scale by k³ under a similarity transformation with scale factor k. 	 G.GMD.1 Give an informal argument for the formulas for the circumference of a circle, area of a circle, volume of a cylinder, pyramid, and cone. Use dissection arguments, Cavalieri's principle, and informal limit arguments. G.GMD.3 Use volume formulas for cylinders, pyramids, cones, and spheres to solve problems.* 	