Montana Content Standards for Mathematics– Appendix

Montana Content Standards for Mathematical Practices and Mathematics Content

Adopted November 2011

Montana Office of Public Instruction
opi.mt.gov Elsie Arntzen, Superintendent

Montana Mathematics Content Standards

(Adopted November 2011)

Contents

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Montana Mathematics Content Standards

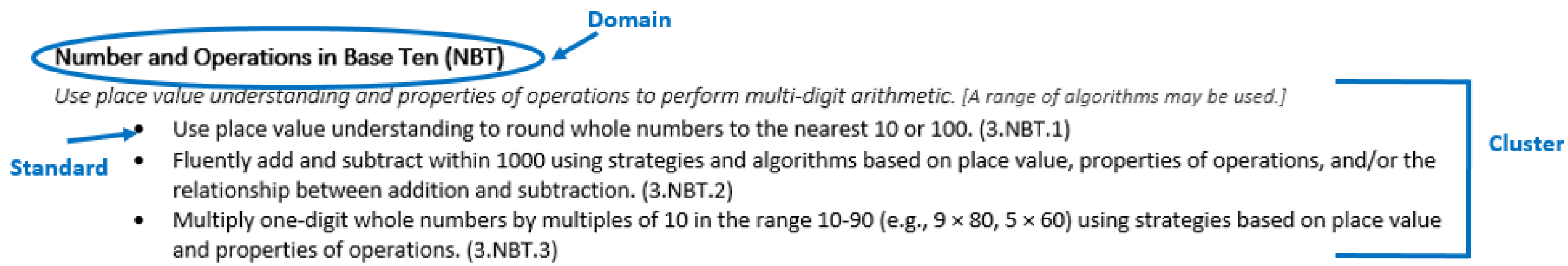
(Adopted November 2011)

How to read the grade level standards (K-8)

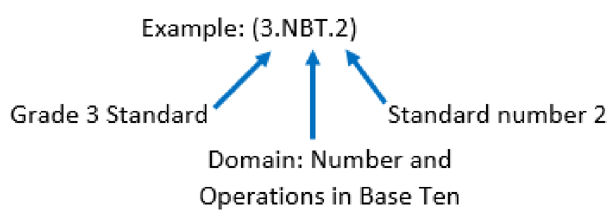
Standards define what students should understand and be able to do.

Clusters summarize 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.



Code is written in the following way: (Grade**.** Domain**.** Standard).



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 standards for topics A and B.

Montana Mathematics Content Standards

(Adopted November 2011)

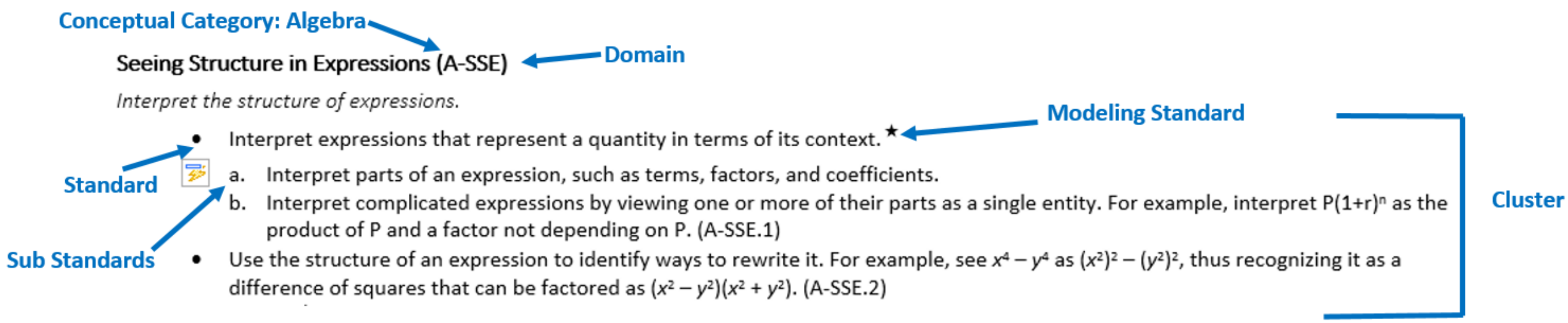
How to read the grade level standards (9-12)

The high school standards are listed in conceptual categories, rather than by grade:

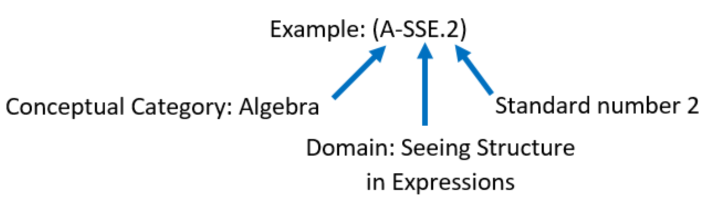
- Number and Quantity (N)
- Algebra (A)
- Functions (F)
- Modeling (★)
- Geometry (G)
- Statistics and Probability (S)

Conceptual categories portray a coherent view of high school mathematics.

- Modeling is best interpreted not as a collection of isolated topics but in relation to other standards. Making mathematical models is a Standard for Mathematical Practice, and specific modeling standards appear throughout the high school standards indicated by a star symbol (★). The star symbol sometimes appears on the heading for a group of standards; in that case, it should be understood to apply to all standards in that group.
- The high school standards specify the mathematics that all students should study in order to be college and career ready. Additional mathematics that students should learn in order to take advanced courses such as calculus, advanced statistics, or discrete mathematics is indicated by (+).



Code is written in the following way: (Conceptual Category **–** Domain**.** Standard).



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.

Mathematics is a human endeavor with scientific, social, and cultural relevance. Relevant context creates an opportunity for student ownership of the study of mathematics. In Montana, the Constitution pursuant to Article X Sect 1(2) and statutes §20-1-501 and §20-9-309 2(c) MCA, calls for mathematics instruction that incorporates the distinct and unique cultural heritage of Montana American Indians. Cultural context and the Standards for Mathematical Practices together provide opportunities to engage students in culturally relevant learning of mathematics and create criteria to increase accuracy and authenticity of resources. Both mathematics and culture are found everywhere, therefore, the incorporation of contextually relevant mathematics allows for the application of mathematical skills and understandings that makes sense for all students.

K-12 Mathematical Practice Standards (At-A-Glace)

Mathematically proficient students

1. MAKE SENSE OF PROBLEMS AND PERSEVERE IN SOLVING THEM
   - explain the meaning of a problem and restate it in their words
   - analyze given information to develop possible strategies for solving the problem
   - identify and execute appropriate strategies to solve the problem
   - evaluate progress toward the solution and make revisions if necessary
   - check their answers using a different method and continually ask "Does this make sense?"

2. REASON ABSTRACTLY AND QUANTITATIVELY
   - make sense of quantities and their relationships in problem situations
   - use varied representations and approaches when solving problems
   - know and flexibly use different properties of operations and objects
   - change perspectives, generate alternatives, and consider different options

3. CONSTRUCT VIABLE ARGUMENTS AND CRITIQUE THE REASONING OF OTHERS
   - understand and use prior learning in constructing arguments
   - habitually ask "why" and seek an answer to that question
   - question and problem-pose
   - develop questioning strategies to generate information
   - seek to understand alternative approaches suggested by others and as a result, adopt better approaches
   - justify their conclusions, communicate them to others, and respond to the arguments of others
   - 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

4. MODEL WITH MATHEMATICS.
   - apply the mathematics they know to solve problems arising in everyday life, society, and the workplace
   - make assumptions and approximations to simplify a complicated situation, realizing that these may need revision later
   - identify important quantities in a practical situation and map their relationships using such tools as diagrams, two-way tables, graphs, flowcharts, and formulas; and analyze mathematical relationships to draw conclusions

5. USE APPROPRIATE TOOLS STRATEGICALLY.
   - use tools when solving a mathematical problem and to deepen their understanding of concepts (e.g., pencil and paper, physical models, geometric construction and measurement devices, graph paper, calculators, computer-based algebra, or geometry systems)

- make sound decisions about when each of these tools might be helpful, recognizing both the insight to be gained and their limitations and detect possible errors by strategically using estimation and other mathematical knowledge

6. ATTEND TO PRECISION.
    - communicate their understanding of mathematics to others
    - use clear definitions and state the meaning of the symbols they choose, including using the equal sign consistently and appropriately
    - specify units of measure and use label parts of graphs and charts
    - strive for accuracy

7. LOOK FOR AND MAKE USE OF STRUCTURE.
    - look for, develop, generalize, and describe a pattern orally, symbolically, graphically, and in written form
    - apply and discuss properties

8. LOOK FOR AND EXPRESS REGULARITY IN REPEATED REASONING.
    - look for mathematically sound shortcuts
    - use repeated applications to generalize properties

Structuring the Standards for Montana Mathematical Practices

Grouping the Practice Standards

1. Make sense of problems and persevere in solving them

6. Attend to precision

Practice Standards	Grouping
	Overarching habits of mind of a productive mathematical thinker.
2. Reason abstractly and quantitatively 3. Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others	Reasoning and explaining
4. Model with mathematics 5. Use appropriate tools strategically	Modeling and using tools
7. Look for and make use of structure 8. look for and expression regularity in repeated reasoning	Seeing structure and generalizing

Adapted from Bill McCallum. *2011. Structuring the Mathematical Practices*

Montana Mathematics Content Standards

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Mathematics Learning Progressions by Domain

<table>
<tr><th colspan="10">Mathematics Learning Progressions by Domain</th></tr>
<tr><th>K</th><th>1</th><th>2</th><th>3</th><th>4</th><th>5</th><th>6</th><th>7</th><th>8</th><th>HS</th></tr>
<tr><td>Counting and Cardinality</td><td colspan="8"></td><td rowspan="3">Number and Quantity</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">Number and Operations in Base Ten</td><td colspan="2">Ratios and Proportional Relationships</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3"></td><td colspan="3">Number and Operations – Fractions</td><td colspan="3">The Number System</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6" rowspan="2">Operations and Algebraic Thinking</td><td colspan="3">Expressions and Equations</td><td>Algebra</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td><td colspan="2">Functions</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="10">Geometry</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">Measurement and Data</td><td colspan="4">Statistics and Probability</td></tr>
</table>

Domain progression Kindergarten through High School.

Glossary

Addition and subtraction within 5, 10, 20, 100, or 1000. Addition or subtraction of two whole numbers with whole number answers, and with sum or minuend in the range 0-5, 0-10, 0-20, or 0-100, respectively. Example: 8 + 2 = 10 is an addition within 10, 14 – 5 = 9 is a subtraction within 20, and 55 – 18 = 37 is a subtraction within 100.

Additive inverses. Two numbers whose sum is 0 are additive inverses of one another. Example: 3/4 and – 3/4 are additive inverses of one another because 3/4 + (– 3/4) = (– 3/4) + 3/4 = 0.

Associative property of addition. See Table 3 in this Glossary.

Associative property of multiplication. See Table 3 in this Glossary.

Bivariate data. Pairs of linked numerical observations. Example: a list of heights and weights for each player on a football team.

Box plot. A method of visually displaying a distribution of data values by using the median, quartiles, and extremes of the data set. A box shows the middle 50% of the data.[1]

Commutative property. See Table 3 in this Glossary.

Complex fraction. A fraction *A*/*B* where *A* and/or *B* are fractions (*B* nonzero).

Computation algorithm. A set of predefined steps applicable to a class of problems that gives the correct result in every case when the steps are carried out correctly. *See also:* computation strategy.

Computation strategy. Purposeful manipulations that may be chosen for specific problems, may not have a fixed order, and may be aimed at converting one problem into another. *See also:* computation algorithm.

Congruent. Two plane or solid figures are congruent if one can be obtained from the other by rigid motion (a sequence of rotations, reflections, and translations).

Counting on. A strategy for finding the number of objects in a group without having to count every member of the group. For example, if a stack of books is known to have 8 books and 3 more books are added to the top, it is not necessary to count the stack all over again. One can find the total by *counting on*—pointing to the top book and saying "eight," following this with "nine, ten, eleven. There are eleven books now."

Dot plot. *See:* line plot.

Dilation. A transformation that moves each point along the ray through the point emanating from a fixed center, and multiplies distances from the center by a common scale factor.

Expanded form. A multi-digit number is expressed in expanded form when it is written as a sum of single-digit multiples of powers of ten. For example, 643 = 600 + 40 + 3.

Expected value. For a random variable, the weighted average of its possible values, with weights given by their respective probabilities.

First quartile. For a data set with median *M*, the first quartile is the median of the data values less than *M*. Example: For the data set {1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the first quartile is 6.2 *See also:* median, third quartile, interquartile range.

Fraction. A number expressible in the form *a*/*b* where *a* is a whole number and *b* is a positive whole number. (The word *fraction* in these standards always refers to a non-negative number.) *See also:* rational number.

Identity property of 0. See Table 3 in this Glossary.

Independently combined probability models. Two probability models are said to be combined independently if the probability of each ordered pair in the combined model equals the product of the original probabilities of the two individual outcomes in the ordered pair.

Integer. A number expressible in the form *a* or –*a* for some whole number *a*.

Interquartile Range. A measure of variation in a set of numerical data, the interquartile range is the distance between the first and third quartiles of the data set. Example: For the data set {1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the interquartile range is 15 – 6 = 9. *See also:* first quartile, third quartile.

Line plot. A method of visually displaying a distribution of data values where each data value is shown as a dot or mark above a number line. Also known as a dot plot.[3]

Mean. A measure of center in a set of numerical data, computed by adding the values in a list and then dividing by the number of values in the list.4 Example: For the data set {1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the mean is 21.

Mean absolute deviation. A measure of variation in a set of numerical data, computed by adding the distances between each data value and the mean, then dividing by the number of data values. Example: For the data set {2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the mean absolute deviation is 20.

Median. A measure of center in a set of numerical data. The median of a list of values is the value appearing at the center of a sorted version of the list—or the mean of the two central values, if the list contains an even number of values. Example: For the data set {2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 90}, the median is 11.

Midline. In the graph of a trigonometric function, the horizontal line halfway between its maximum and minimum values.

Multiplication and division within 100. Multiplication or division of two whole numbers with whole number answers, and with product or dividend in the range 0-100. Example: 72 ÷ 8 = 9.

Multiplicative inverses. Two numbers whose product is 1 are multiplicative inverses of one another. Example: 3/4 and 4/3 are multiplicative inverses of one another because 3/4 × 4/3 = 4/3 × 3/4 = 1.

Number line diagram. A diagram of the number line used to represent numbers and support reasoning about them. In a number line diagram for measurement quantities, the interval from 0 to 1 on the diagram represents the unit of measure for the quantity.

Percent rate of change. A rate of change expressed as a percent. Example: if a population grows from 50 to 55 in a year, it grows by 5/50 = 10% per year.

Probability distribution. The set of possible values of a random variable with a probability assigned to each.

Properties of operations. See Table 3 in this Glossary.

Properties of equality. See Table 4 in this Glossary.

Properties of inequality. See Table 5 in this Glossary.

Properties of operations. See Table 3 in this Glossary.

Probability. A number between 0 and 1 used to quantify likelihood for processes that have uncertain outcomes (such as tossing a coin, selecting a person at random from a group of people, tossing a ball at a target, or testing for a medical condition).

Probability model. A probability model is used to assign probabilities to outcomes of a chance process by examining the nature of the process. The set of all outcomes is called the sample space, and their probabilities sum to 1. *See also:* uniform probability model.

Random variable. An assignment of a numerical value to each outcome in a sample space.

Rational expression. A quotient of two polynomials with a non-zero denominator.

Rational number. A number expressible in the form *a*/*b* or – *a*/*b* for some fraction *a*/*b*. The rational numbers include the integers.

Rectilinear figure. A polygon all angles of which are right angles.

Rigid motion. A transformation of points in space consisting of a sequence of a sequence of one or more translations, reflections, and/or rotations. Rigid motions are here assumed to preserve distance and angle measurement.

Repeating decimal. The decimal form of a rational number. *See also:* terminating decimal.

Sample space. In a probability model for a random process, a list of the individual outcomes that are to be considered.

Scatter plot. A graph in the coordinate plane representing a set of Bivariate data. For example, the heights and weights of a group of people could be displayed on a scatter plot.[5]

Similarity transformation. A rigid motion followed by a dilation.

Tape diagram. A drawing that looks like a segment of tape, used to illustrate number relationships. Also known as a strip diagram, bar model, fraction strip, or length model.

Terminating decimal. A decimal is called terminating if its repeating digit is 0.

Third quartile. For a data set with median *M*, the third quartile is the median of the data values greater than *M*. Example: For the data set {2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 22, 120}, the third quartile is 15. *See also:* median, first quartile, interquartile range.

Transitivity principle for indirect measurement. If the length of object A is greater than the length of object B, and the length of object B is greater than the length of object C, then the length of object A is greater than the length of object C. This principle applies to measurement of other quantities as well.

Uniform probability model. A probability model which assigns equal probability to all outcomes. *See also:* probability model*.*

Vector. A quantity with magnitude and direction in the plane or in space, defined by an ordered pair or triple of real numbers.

Visual fraction model. A tape diagram, number line diagram, or area model.

Whole numbers. The numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ….

[1] Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction.
[2]Many different methods for computing quartiles are in use. The method defined here is sometimes called the Moore and McCabe method. See Langford, E., "Quartiles in Elementary Statistics," *Journal of Statistics Education* Volume 14, Number 3 (2006).
[3]Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, *op. cit*.
[4]To be more precise, this defines the *arithmetic mean*. one or more translations, reflections, and/or rotations. Rigid motions are here assumed to preserve distances and angle measures.
[5]Adapted from Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, *op. cit*.

Table 1. Common addition and subtraction situations*

	Result Unknown	Change Unknown	Start Unknown
Add to	Two bunnies sat on the grass. Three more bunnies hopped there. How many bunnies are on the grass now? 2 + 3 = ?	Two bunnies were sitting on the grass. Some more bunnies hopped there. Then there were five bunnies. How many bunnies hopped over to the first two? 2 + ? = 5	Some bunnies were sitting on the grass. Three more bunnies hopped there. Then there were five bunnies. How many bunnies were on the grass before? ? + 3 = 5
Take from	Five apples were on the table. I ate two apples. How many apples are on the table now? 5 – 2 = ?	Five apples were on the table. I ate some apples. Then there were three apples. How many apples did I eat? 5 – ? = 3	Some apples were on the table. I ate two apples. Then there were three apples. How many apples were on the table before? ? – 2 = 3
	Total Unknown	**Addend Unknown**	**Both Addends Unknown[2]**
Put Together/ Take Apart[1]	Three red apples and two green apples are on the table. How many apples are on the table? 3 + 2 = ?	Five apples are on the table. Three are red and the rest are green. How many apples are green? 3 + ? = 5, 5 – 3 = ?	Grandma has five flowers. How many can she put in her red vase and how many in her blue vase? 5 = 0 + 5, 5 = 5 + 0 5 = 1 + 4, 5 = 4 + 1 5 = 2 + 3, 5 = 3 + 2
	Difference Unknown	**Bigger Unknown**	**Smaller Unknown**
Compare[2]	("How many more?" version):Lucy has two apples. Julie has five apples. How many more apples does Julie have than Lucy? ("How many fewer?" version):Lucy has two apples. Julie has five apples. How many fewer apples does Lucy have than Julie? 2 + ? = 5, 5 – 2 = ?	(Version with "more"):Julie has three more apples than Lucy. Lucy has two apples. How many apples does Julie have? (Version with "fewer"):Lucy has 3 fewer apples than Julie. Lucy has two apples. How many apples does Julie have? 2 + 3 = ?, 3 + 2 = ?	(Version with "more"):Julie has three more apples than Lucy. Julie has five apples. How many apples does Lucy have? (Version with "fewer"):Lucy has 3 fewer apples than Julie. Julie has five apples. How many apples does Lucy have? 5 – 3 = ?, ? + 3 = 5

[1]These take apart situations can be used to show all the decompositions of a given number. The associated equations, which have the total on the left of the equal sign, help children understand that the = sign does not always mean makes or results in but always does mean is the same number as.[2]Either addend can be unknown, so there are three variations of these problem situations. Both Addends Unknown is a productive extension of this basic situation, especially for small numbers less than or equal to 10.[3]For the Bigger Unknown or Smaller Unknown situations, one version directs the correct operation (the version using more for the bigger unknown and using less for the smaller unknown). The other versions are more difficult.

*Adapted from Box 2-4 of Mathematics Learning in Early Childhood, National Research Council (2009, pp. 32, 33).

Table 2. Common multiplication and division situations*

	Unknown Product **3 × 6 = ?**	**Group Size Unknown** **("How many in each group?" Division)** **3 × ? = 18, and 18 ÷ 3 = ?**	**Number of Groups Unknown** **("How many groups?" Division)** **? × 6 = 18, and 18 ÷ 6 = ?**
Equal Groups	There are 3 bags with 6 plums in each bag. How many plums are there in all? *Measurement example*. You need 3 lengths of string, each 6 inches long. How much string will you need altogether?	If 18 plums are shared equally into 3 bags, then how many plums will be in each bag? *Measurement example*. You have 18 inches of string, which you will cut into 3 equal pieces. How long will each piece of string be?	If 18 plums are to be packed 6 to a bag, then how many bags are needed? *Measurement example*. You have 18 inches of string, which you will cut into pieces that are 6 inches long. How many pieces of string will you have?
Arrays,[4] Area[5]	There are 3 rows of apples with 6 apples in each row. How many apples are there? *Area example*. What is the area of a 3 cm by 6 cm rectangle?	If 18 apples are arranged into 3 equal rows, how many apples will be in each row? *Area example*. A rectangle has area 18 square centimeters. If one side is 3 cm long, how long is a side next to it?	If 18 apples are arranged into equal rows of 6 apples, how many rows will there be? *Area example*. A rectangle has area 18 square centimeters. If one side is 6 cm long, how long is a side next to it?
Compare	A blue hat costs $6. A red hat costs 3 times as much as the blue hat. How much does the red hat cost? *Measurement example*. A rubber band is 6 cm long. How long will the rubber band be when it is stretched to be 3 times as long?	A red hat costs $18 and that is 3 times as much as a blue hat costs. How much does a blue hat cost? *Measurement example*. A rubber band is stretched to be 18 cm long and that is 3 times as long as it was at first. How long was the rubber band at first?	A red hat costs $18 and a blue hat costs $6. How many times as much does the red hat cost as the blue hat? *Measurement example*. A rubber band was 6 cm long at first. Now it is stretched to be 18 cm long. How many times as long is the rubber band now as it was at first?
General	$a \times b = ?$	$a \times ? = p$, and $p \div a = ?$	$? \times b = p$, and $p \div b = ?$

[4]The language in the array examples shows the easiest form of array problems. A harder form is to use the terms rows and columns: The apples in the grocery window are in 3 rows and 6 columns. How many apples are in there? Both forms are valuable.[5]Area involves arrays of squares that have been pushed together so that there are no gaps or overlaps, so array problems include these especially important measurement situations.

*The first examples in each cell are examples of discrete things. These are easier for students and should be given before the measurement examples.

Table 3. The properties of operations.

Here *a*, *b* and *c* stand for arbitrary numbers in a given number system. The properties of operations apply to the rational number system, the real number system, and the complex number system.

Associative property of addition	$(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$
Commutative property of addition	$a + b = b + a$
Additive identity property of 0	$a + 0 = 0 + a = a$
Existence of additive inverses	For every a there exists $-a$ so that $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$
Associative property of multiplication	$(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$
Commutative property of multiplication	$a \times b = b \times a$
Multiplicative identity property of 1	$a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a$
Existence of multiplicative inverses	For every $a \neq 0$ there exists $1/a$ so that $a \times 1/a = 1/a \times a = 1$
Distributive property of multiplication over addition	$a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$

Table 4. The properties of equality.

Here *a*, *b* and *c* stand for arbitrary numbers in the rational, real, or complex number systems.

Reflexive property of equality	$a = a$
Symmetric property of equality	If $a = b$, then $b = a$
Transitive property of equality	If $a = b$ and $b = c$, then $a = c$
Addition property of equality	If $a = b$, then $a + c = b + c$
Subtraction property of equality	If $a = b$, then $a - c = b - c$
Multiplication property of equality	If $a = b$, then $a \times c = b \times c$
Division property of equality	If $a = b$ and $c \neq 0$, then $a \div c = b \div c$
Substitution property of equality	If $a = b$, then b may be substituted for a in any expression containing a.

Table 5. The properties of inequality.

Here a, b and c stand for arbitrary numbers in the rational or real number systems.

Exactly one of the following is true: $a < b$, $a = b$, $a > b$.
If $a > b$ and $b > c$ then $a > c$.
If $a > b$, then $b < a$.
If $a > b$, then $-a < -b$.
If $a > b$, then $a \pm c > b \pm c$.
If $a > b$ and $c > 0$, then $a \times c > b \times c$.
If $a > b$ and $c < 0$, then $a \times c < b \times c$.
If $a > b$ and $c > 0$, then $a \div c > b \div c$.
If $a > b$ and $c < 0$, then $a \div c < b \div c$.

Montana Mathematics Content Standards

(Adopted November 2011)

Montana Program Standards

10.55.904 BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM OFFERINGS: HIGH SCHOOL

(1) The basic education program, aligned to the program area standards, for grades 9 through 12 shall be at least 20 units of coursework that enable all students to meet the content standards and content-specific grade-level learning progressions.

(2) Instruction in reading literacy and writing literacy shall be incorporated into all required and elective program areas as required in the Montana Common Core Standards, ARM Title 10, chapter 53.

(3) Minimum offerings shall include at least the following:

- (a) 4 units of English language arts
- (b) 3 units of mathematics
- (c) 3 units of science
- (d) 3 units of social studies
- (e) 2 units of career and technical education
- (f) 2 units of arts
- (g) 1 unit of health enhancement
- (h) 2 units of world languages
- (i) 2 units of electives

History: 20-2-114, MCA; IMP, 20-2-121, 20-3-106, 20-7-101, MCA; NEW, 1989 MAR p. 342, Eff. 7/1/89; AMD, 1998 MAR p. 2707, Eff. 10/9/98; AMD, 2000 MAR p. 3340, Eff. 12/8/00; AMD, 2012 MAR p. 2042, Eff. 7/1/13.

10.55.1401 MATHEMATICS PROGRAM DELIVERY STANDARDS

(1) In general, a basic mathematics program, shall:

- (a) meet the following conditions:
  - (i) provide a well-articulated curriculum that challenges students to learn increasingly more sophisticated mathematical ideas.
  - (ii) provide conceptual mathematical understanding as well as factual knowledge and procedural facility.
- (b) include the following practices:
  - (i) create, enrich, maintain, and adapt instruction to meet mathematical goals.
  - (ii) incorporate appropriate technology into the math program.
  - (iii) connect the development of skills and procedures to the more general development of mathematical understanding.
  - (iv) effectively observe students, listen carefully to students' ideas and explanations, have mathematical goals, and use the information to make instructional decisions.

History: Sec. 20-2-114, MCA; IMP, Sec. 20-2-121, 20-3-106, 20-7-101, MCA; NEW, 1989 MAR p. 342, Eff. 7/1/89; AMD, 2001 MAR p. 953, Eff. 6/8/01.