



Teachers Edition

SAXON

Algebra I

An Incremental Development

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Oscar Rose Junior College

GRASSDALE PUBLISHERS, INC.

Algebra I: An Incremental Development
Teachers Edition

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Algebra I

An Incremental Development

To The Student

Algebra is not difficult. Algebra is just different, and time is required in order for different things to become familiar. In this book we provide the necessary time by reviewing all concepts in every Problem Set. Also, the parts of a particular concept are introduced in small units so that they may be practiced for a period of time before the next part of the same concept is introduced. Understanding the first part makes it easier to understand the second part. If you find that a particular problem is troublesome, get help at once because the problem won't go away. It will appear again and again in future Problem Sets.

The Problem Sets contain all the review that is necessary. **Your task is to work all the problems in every Problem Set.** The answers to the Odd-Numbered Problems are in the Appendix. It will be necessary to check the answers to the even problems with a classmate. Don't be discouraged when you continue to make mistakes. Everyone makes these mistakes, and makes them often, and for a long period of time. A large part of learning algebra is devising defense mechanisms to protect you from yourself. If you work at it, you can find ways to prevent these mistakes. Your teacher is an expert because your teacher has made the same mistakes many times and has finally found ways to prevent them. You must do the same. Each person must devise his or her own defense mechanisms.

The repetition is necessary to permit all students to master all of the concepts, and then the application must be practiced for a long time to insure retention. This practice has an element of drudgery to it, but it has been demonstrated that people who are not willing to practice fundamentals often find success elusive. Ask your favorite athletic coach for his opinion on the necessity of practicing fundamental skills.

To The Teacher

The effectiveness of this book was demonstrated during the 1980–1981 school year in twenty Oklahoma public schools. Over 1,360 ninth grade Algebra I students participated. In each school one teacher taught one section from a prototype of this book and one or more sections from the Algebra I book normally used. During the spring, sixteen 10–15 minute tests were given. Each test was on one fundamental skill of beginning algebra and the tests were constructed from problems submitted by the teachers. The topics tested were: signed numbers, evaluation of expressions, solutions of equations in one unknown, adding like terms, number word problems, natural number exponents, factoring, percent word problems, value word problems, addition of rational expressions, simplification of radicals, linear equations, simultaneous equations, and uniform motion word problems. Overall, the students who used this book more than doubled the scores of the students who had the same teacher but used a standard

book. For tests on scientific notation and negative exponents, eight classes of Algebra II students were used as controls. The 9th graders who had used this book more than tripled the scores of the Algebra II students on both of these tests. The test program was monitored by the Oklahoma Federation of Teachers, and they have certified the results.

Students should work every problem in every problem set. This book provides only the problems that are necessary and the problems are not in pairs so that either the odd problems or the even problems may be assigned. Experience with this book will demonstrate that no extra problems of the new kind are necessary or desirable. In this book the learning process is spread out and comprehension will come in time. The emphasis is on review and not on an all out attack on the new concept. This development spreads out the learning process, increases the depth of understanding and improves long term retention. Experience with books that use the traditional development of topics has proved that an intensive initial attack on a new concept lends little to long term retention. Remember that this book never drops a topic once it has been introduced and that the student will continue to wrestle with every concept in every homework problem set.

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I thank Johnny, Selby, Bruce, and Sarah for their support, suggestions, and contributions. I thank Oscar Rose Junior College for the freedom to experiment to develop new teaching techniques.

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Norman, Oklahoma
August 1981

John Saxon

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Basic

1 Review Lesson

110 Algebra Lessons

Course

REVIEW**LESSON A** *Addition and subtraction of fractions***A.A****addition
and subtraction
of fractions**

In order to add or subtract fractions that have the same denominators, the numerators are added or subtracted and the result is recorded over a single denominator, as shown here.

$$\frac{5}{11} + \frac{2}{11} = \frac{7}{11} \quad \frac{5}{11} - \frac{2}{11} = \frac{3}{11}$$

If the denominators are not the same, it is necessary to rewrite the fractions so that they have the same denominators.

PROBLEM	REWRITTEN WITH EQUAL DENOMINATORS	ANSWER
(a) $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{5}$	$\frac{5}{15} + \frac{6}{15}$	$\frac{11}{15}$
(b) $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{16}{24} - \frac{3}{24}$	$\frac{13}{24}$

A mixed number is the sum of a whole number and a fraction. Thus the notation

$$13\frac{3}{5}$$

does not mean 13 multiplied by $\frac{3}{5}$ but instead 13 plus $\frac{3}{5}$.

$$13 + \frac{3}{5}$$

When we add and subtract mixed numbers, we handle the fractions and the whole numbers separately. In some subtraction problems it is necessary to borrow, as shown in (e).

PROBLEM	REWRITTEN WITH EQUAL DENOMINATORS	ANSWER
(c) $13\frac{3}{5} + 2\frac{1}{8}$	$13\frac{24}{40} + 2\frac{5}{40}$	$15\frac{29}{40}$
(d) $13\frac{3}{5} - 2\frac{1}{8}$	$13\frac{24}{40} - 2\frac{5}{40}$	$11\frac{19}{40}$

BORROWING

(e)	$13\frac{3}{5} - 2\frac{7}{8}$	$13\frac{24}{40} - 2\frac{35}{40} = 12\frac{64}{40} - 2\frac{35}{40}$	$10\frac{29}{40}$
-----	--------------------------------	---	-------------------

problem set A Add or subtract as indicated. Write answers as proper fractions reduced to lowest terms or as mixed numbers.

1. $\frac{1}{5} + \frac{2}{5}$

2. $\frac{3}{8} - \frac{2}{8}$

3. $\frac{4}{3} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{8}{3}$

4. $\frac{2}{7} + \frac{13}{7} - \frac{5}{7}$

5. $\frac{18}{11} - \frac{4}{11} + \frac{1}{11}$

Different denominators:

6. $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5}$

7. $\frac{3}{8} - \frac{1}{5}$

8. $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{8}$

9. $\frac{1}{13} + \frac{1}{5}$

10. $\frac{17}{15} - \frac{2}{3}$

11. $\frac{5}{9} + \frac{2}{5}$

12. $\frac{7}{8} - \frac{4}{5}$

13. $\frac{12}{13} - \frac{3}{4}$

14. $\frac{17}{20} - \frac{4}{5}$

15. $\frac{14}{17} - \frac{6}{34}$

16. $\frac{5}{13} + \frac{1}{26}$

17. $\frac{4}{7} - \frac{2}{5}$

18. $\frac{4}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{2}$

19. $\frac{3}{5} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}$

20. $\frac{5}{11} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{2}{3}$

21. $\frac{3}{8} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{5}$

22. $\frac{3}{5} + \frac{15}{3} + \frac{17}{10}$

Addition and subtraction of mixed numbers:

23. $2\frac{1}{2} + 3\frac{1}{5}$

24. $7\frac{3}{8} + 4\frac{7}{3}$

25. $1\frac{1}{8} + 7\frac{2}{5}$

26. $6\frac{1}{3} + 1\frac{2}{5}$

27. $8\frac{13}{3} - 2\frac{2}{5}$

28. $41\frac{1}{3} - 24\frac{2}{15}$

Subtraction with borrowing:

29. $15\frac{1}{3} - 7\frac{4}{5}$

30. $42\frac{3}{8} - 21\frac{3}{4}$

31. $22\frac{2}{5} - 13\frac{7}{15}$

32. $421\frac{1}{11} - 17\frac{4}{3}$

33. $78\frac{2}{5} - 14\frac{7}{10}$

34. $43\frac{1}{13} - 6\frac{5}{8}$

35. $21\frac{1}{5} - 15\frac{7}{13}$

36. $21\frac{2}{19} - 7\frac{7}{10}$

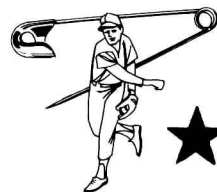
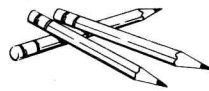
37. $43\frac{3}{17} - 21\frac{9}{10}$

LESSON 1 *Real numbers and the number line • Multiplication and division of fractions*

1.A

numerals and numbers

A number is an idea. A numeral is a single symbol or a collection of symbols that we use to express the idea of a particular number.



The three drawings above all have the quality of *threeness*. The three children and the three pencils both bring to mind the idea of *three*. The drawing at the right also brings to mind the idea of *three*, although all the things in the drawing are not of the same kind.

If we wish to use a symbol to designate the idea of three, we could write any of the following:

$$\text{III}, \quad 3, \quad \frac{30}{10}, \quad \frac{27}{9}, \quad \frac{33}{11}, \quad 2 + 1, \quad 6 \div 2, \quad 11 - 8$$

Each of these is a symbolic representation of the idea of 3. Throughout the book when we use the word *number*, we are describing the idea; and we will use numerals to designate the numbers. But we will remember that none of the marks we make on paper are numbers because

A number is an idea!

Since the symbols

$$3 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{30}{10}$$

are both numerals that represent the same number, we say that they have the same value. **Thus, the value of a numeral is the number represented by the numeral, and we see that the words value and number have the same meaning.**

1.B natural or counting numbers

The system of numeration that we use to designate numbers is called the decimal system. It was invented by the Hindus of India, passed to their Arab neighbors, and finally transmitted to Europe circa 1200 A.D. The decimal system uses 10 symbols that we call **digits**. These digits are

$$0, \quad 1, \quad 2, \quad 3, \quad 4, \quad 5, \quad 6, \quad 7, \quad 8, \quad 9$$

We use these digits by themselves or in combination with one another to form the numerals that we use to designate decimal numbers.

We call the numbers that we use to count objects or things the natural numbers or the counting numbers. When we begin counting, we always begin with the number 1 and follow it with the number 2, etc.

$$1, \quad 2, \quad 3, \quad 4, \quad 5, \quad 6, \quad 7, \quad 8, \quad 9, \quad 10, \quad 11, \quad 12, \quad 13, \dots$$

It would not be natural to try to count by using numbers such as $\frac{1}{2}$ or 0 or $\frac{3}{4}$, so these numbers are not called natural or counting numbers. We designate the natural or counting numbers with the listing above. The three dots after the number 13 indicate that this listing continues without end.

1.C real numbers

The numbers of arithmetic are zero and the positive real numbers. **We say that a positive real number is any number that can be used to describe a physical distance greater than zero.**

Thus, all of the numbers shown here

$$\frac{3}{4} \quad .000163 \quad 363 \quad 3\frac{3}{8} \quad 46 \quad \frac{11}{7} \quad 400.1623232323$$

are positive real numbers, for all of them can be used to describe physical distances when used with descriptive units such as feet, yards, etc.

$$\frac{3}{4} \text{ mile} \quad .000163 \text{ yard} \quad 363 \text{ feet} \quad 3\frac{3}{8} \text{ meters}$$

$$46 \text{ inches} \quad \frac{11}{7} \text{ kilometers} \quad 400.16232323 \text{ centimeters}$$

The number zero is not a positive number, but it can be used to describe a physical distance of no magnitude, and we say that zero is also a real number. In addition to the positive numbers and zero, in algebra we use numbers that we call **negative numbers** and these numbers are also called real numbers. The ancients did not understand or use negative numbers. A man could not own negative 10 sheep. If he owned any sheep at all, the number of sheep had to be designated by a number greater than zero. The ancients could subtract 4 from 6 and get 2, but they felt that it was impossible to subtract 6 from 4 because that would result in a number that was less than zero itself. To their way of thinking, this was clearly impossible.

While some might tend to agree with the ancients, to the modern mathematician, physicist, or chemist, the idea or concept of negative numbers does exist, and it is a useful concept. **We say that every positive real number has a negative counterpart, and we call these numbers the negative real numbers.** We must always use a minus sign when we designate a negative number as we see here by writing negative seven.

$$-7$$

We may use a plus sign to designate a positive number as we see by writing positive seven,

$$+7$$

or we may leave off the plus sign as we did in arithmetic and just write the numerical part with no sign.

$$7$$

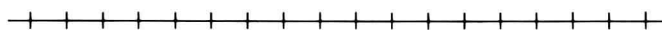
We must remember that when we write a numeral with no sign, we designate a positive number. When we are talking about negative numbers as well as positive numbers, we say that we are talking about **signed numbers**. As we shall see later, the use of signed numbers will enable us to lump the operations of addition and subtraction into a single operation which we will call algebraic addition.

1.D

number lines

In the 1950s the so-called new math appeared, and among other things it introduced the **number line** at the elementary algebra level. The number line can be used as a graphic aid when discussing signed numbers, and it is especially useful when discussing the addition of signed numbers.

To construct a number line, we first draw a line and divide it into equal units of length. The units may be any length as long as they are all the same length.



Many books show small arrows on the ends of number lines to emphasize that the lines continue without end in both directions. The arrowheads are not necessary and may be omitted.