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CEUs for Teachers and Educators

Enhancing Algebra Instruction: Tools and Techniques for Educators

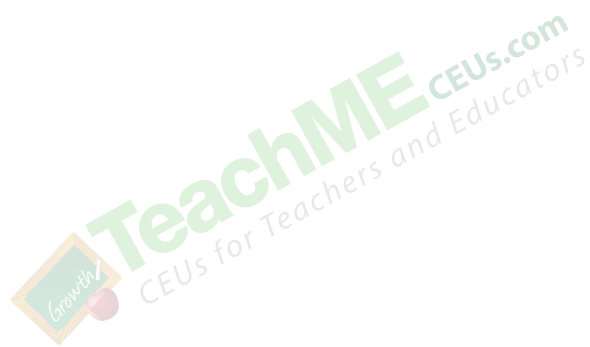
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Introduction

Algebra is a cornerstone of the K–12 mathematics curriculum and a critical gateway to advanced learning, college readiness, and many career pathways. At the same time, it is one of the most challenging subjects students encounter, often marking a turning point in their mathematical trajectories. For educators, teaching algebra effectively requires more than content knowledge alone; it demands an understanding of how students develop algebraic thinking, why they struggle, and how instruction can either widen or narrow opportunity gaps. *Enhancing Algebra Instruction: Tools and Techniques for Educators* is designed to support teachers in strengthening both the quality and equity of algebra instruction.

The course begins by examining why algebra matters, how algebraic thinking develops across grade levels, and why Algebra I plays such a pivotal role in shaping students' academic futures. It then explores research-based instructional strategies that support conceptual understanding, reduce cognitive load, and promote meaningful mathematical reasoning. Finally, the course focuses on reaching every learner through differentiation, targeted supports, and enrichment practices that ensure all students have access to rigorous and engaging algebraic learning experiences. Throughout the course, educators are encouraged to view algebra not as a set of isolated procedures, but as a way of thinking that can be taught, supported, and developed in all students. By grounding instructional decisions in research and reflective practice, teachers can create algebra classrooms that promote understanding, confidence, and long-term success.

Section 1: Why Algebra Matters

Algebra plays a pivotal role in students' mathematical development and serves as a foundation for advanced coursework, problem solving, and real-world applications. Yet despite its importance, algebra remains one of the most challenging areas of the K–12 mathematics curriculum for many learners. Understanding *why* algebra matters, *how* students develop algebraic thinking over time, and *what* barriers limit student success is essential for educators seeking to design instruction that promotes both access and deep understanding. This section examines the central role algebra plays within the mathematics curriculum, how algebraic thinking develops across grade levels, and why Algebra I functions as a critical gateway to future academic and career opportunities. It also explores the common cognitive, emotional, and instructional challenges students face as they transition to algebra, as well as the equity issues embedded in enrollment, placement, and access to high-quality instruction. Together, these perspectives provide important context for understanding not only the significance of algebra, but also the responsibility educators have to teach it effectively and equitably.

1.1 The Role of Algebra in the Mathematics Curriculum

Algebra occupies a central place in the mathematics curriculum because it is foundational to students' ability to think abstractly, model real-world situations, and progress into advanced mathematics courses. Far beyond the memorization of procedures, algebra supports generalization, reasoning, and the capacity to express relationships among quantities — skills that are essential for success in later mathematics, science, and many career pathways.

Algebra Education in K-12 Schools

Algebra instruction in K–12 schools spans a wide range of grade levels and learning contexts, from early elementary classrooms to middle and high school mathematics courses. Research consistently emphasizes that algebra is not a standalone topic introduced only in later grades, but a way of thinking that develops over time; this perspective is often referred to as early algebra, which focuses on building foundational ideas, such as patterns, relationships, and representations, that students need for more formal algebra learning in later years (Veith et al., 2023). Across grade levels, researchers have identified several interconnected ways to describe how students engage with algebraic ideas. Terms such as algebraic reasoning, algebraic thinking, relational thinking, and functional thinking are commonly used to capture different but related aspects of students' understanding. While the terminology varies, these perspectives share a focus on helping students move beyond simple computation to reasoning about structure, relationships, and generalization. For example, algebraic reasoning involves recognizing and formalizing patterns, examining relationships abstracted from specific numerical calculations, and analyzing functions and systems of relationships (Veith et al.).

Relational thinking builds on these ideas by encouraging students to view equations and expressions as complete structures rather than as prompts for calculation. Students learn to notice relationships among numbers and symbols and to reason about equality and equivalence (Veith et al., 2023). Similarly, algebraic thinking emphasizes working with unknown quantities, understanding variables and their relationships, and recognizing underlying algebraic structures. Instruction that supports algebraic thinking often highlights relationships, inverse operations, multiple representations, and the use of symbols to model situations, rather than focusing solely on arriving at correct answers (Veith et al.). A significant body of research in K–12 algebra education examines how students

develop these ways of thinking over time. Learning progressions, such as those designed to support early algebra, provide guidance for helping students gradually build more sophisticated algebraic reasoning from elementary through secondary grades. These progressions emphasize reasoning, representation, and meaning-making as essential components of algebra learning, rather than viewing algebra as a set of isolated procedures (Veith et al.).

Instructional theories have also played an important role in shaping effective algebra teaching practices. Approaches such as Realistic Mathematics Education (RME) emphasize the use of meaningful, real-world contexts to help students explore and make sense of algebraic ideas (Veith et al., 2023). By grounding abstract concepts in familiar situations, teachers can support deeper understanding and promote student engagement. RME and similar frameworks aim to help students see algebra as a tool for describing and analyzing real situations, fostering independence and critical thinking. Research shows that these approaches have been applied successfully not only in K–12 settings but also in higher education, highlighting their broad relevance to algebra instruction (Veith et al.). Overall, effective algebra instruction in K–12 schools is characterized by a sustained focus on reasoning, relationships, and meaning. Rather than treating algebra as a sudden shift to symbols and procedures, research supports an instructional approach that develops algebraic thinking gradually, connects concepts across grade levels, and situates learning in meaningful contexts (Veith et al.).

Algebra as a Gateway to Mathematical Thinking

Algebra is often described as a language of mathematics because it enables students to describe and analyze patterns, relationships, and structures that go beyond specific numerical contexts. This abstract language allows learners to generalize from specific examples and make predictions about broader situations,

which is fundamental to deeper mathematical reasoning (Veith et al., 2023). Teaching and learning algebra well equips students with tools to represent and reason about relationships that appear in statistics, geometry, calculus, and applications in science and technology. The development of algebraic thinking also supports students' capacity for mathematical modeling, where real-world scenarios are translated into symbolic and functional forms (Veith et al.). For example, linear equations can model financial budgeting, population trends, or rates of change - all contexts where algebra supports decision making. This breadth of application helps explain why algebra is consistently central in mathematics standards and curriculum frameworks worldwide.

Shifting Policies and Patterns in Algebra I Enrollment

The enrollment patterns for Algebra I have shifted significantly over the past three decades as policymakers and educators have attempted to balance broader access with student readiness and achievement. These shifts reflect evolving understandings of equity, instructional quality, and the consequences of placing students into Algebra I too early without sufficient preparation (Huffaker, 2025).

In the 1980s and early 1990s, early enrollment in Algebra I was relatively uncommon. In 1986, only about 15% of eighth-grade students took Algebra I, and placement decisions were largely inconsistent (Huffaker, 2025). Schools and districts relied on informal or locally determined criteria, which varied widely and often reinforced existing disparities in academic opportunity. Without clear guidance, access to early algebra tended to favor students who were already advantaged, leaving many capable students without exposure to advanced mathematics (Huffaker). During the late 1990s and 2000s, the *Algebra for All* movement sought to expand access by promoting universal enrollment in eighth-grade Algebra I. As a result, participation increased substantially, and by 2011 nearly half of all eighth graders were enrolled in Algebra I or a more advanced

course (Huffaker). While this policy shift succeeded in broadening access, it also revealed unintended consequences. Many students entered Algebra I without adequate preparation, leading to higher failure rates, declines in test performance, and lower achievement later in high school (Huffaker). In addition, new disparities emerged, as already advanced students increasingly enrolled in even higher-level courses such as eighth-grade Geometry.

In the 2010s, the adoption of the Common Core State Standards prompted another shift in Algebra I enrollment. The more rigorous middle school math sequence reduced the emphasis on eighth-grade Algebra I, and growing concerns about racial and outcome disparities further influenced district-level decisions; some districts delayed Algebra I until ninth grade in an effort to improve equity and student success (Huffaker, 2025). These changes sparked pushback from families who viewed early Algebra I as essential for maintaining access to advanced coursework. Nationally, middle school Algebra I enrollment declined, falling to 39% overall by 2019 and to just 26% among public seventh- and eighth-grade students by the early 2020s (Huffaker). In the 2020s, enrollment patterns continue to evolve. By 2024, only 36% of eighth graders were enrolled in Algebra I or higher. Current policy efforts emphasize targeted strategies designed to expand access while improving outcomes, such as automatic enrollment policies, increased instructional supports like tutoring and double-dose Algebra courses, and personalized learning tools, including emerging uses of generative artificial intelligence (Huffaker). These approaches, which will be discussed in greater depth later in the course, aim to address both readiness and equity rather than relying on universal placement alone.

Importantly, national trends mask substantial variation across states. Historically, enrollment rates in eighth-grade Algebra I have differed widely, reflecting local priorities and policy choices. More recent shifts illustrate this continued divergence, with some states returning placement decisions to districts and others

maintaining universal early Algebra I policies (Huffaker, 2025). Together, these trends underscore the ongoing challenge of designing Algebra I enrollment policies that promote both equitable access and meaningful student success.

1.2 Common Challenges Students Face with Algebra

While algebra plays a critical role in students' mathematical development, it is also one of the most challenging subjects many learners encounter. Students' difficulties with algebra are well documented in recent research and stem from a combination of cognitive, conceptual, linguistic, and affective factors.

Understanding these challenges is essential for educators seeking to design instruction that supports conceptual understanding and long-term success rather than short-term procedural performance.

Cognitive Shift from Arithmetic to Abstraction

Algebra is challenging because it requires a cognitive shift from arithmetic - where numbers often represent specific quantities - to abstraction, where letters and symbols represent general relationships (Mathnasium, 2025). Students must interpret symbols as representing unknown quantities or relationships, and they must apply logical rules to manipulate these representations. For many learners, this is a significant intellectual leap. Research on student learning highlights that the transition from concrete arithmetic thinking to algebraic abstraction is one of the most common points where students struggle (Mathnasium). Difficulties often arise because students may not have fully internalized the underlying mathematical concepts that algebra builds upon, such as number sense, proportional reasoning, and the properties of operations. Without a solid foundation in these areas, algebraic symbols and rules can seem arbitrary, leading to confusion and error. This challenge is not simply a matter of exposure or practice; it reflects the fact that algebra asks learners to reason about generalized

relationships rather than specific numerical cases (Veith et al., 2023). Teachers play a critical role in helping students make this transition by designing instruction that supports conceptual understanding alongside procedural fluency.

Research further suggests that the difficulty students experience with algebra is not solely related to new symbols or procedures, but to a deeper transformation in how they reason mathematically. Algebraic thinking serves as a bridge between arithmetic reasoning and more generalized mathematical structures, requiring students to move beyond computing answers to identifying patterns, expressing relationships, and generalizing regularities across contexts (Ozmantar et al., 2025). This shift challenges learners to interpret mathematics structurally rather than numerically, a transition that many students find difficult without explicit instructional support. Studies consistently show that students struggle with core algebraic ideas such as variables, equivalence, and structural relationships because these concepts require a departure from context-bound arithmetic reasoning. Instead of focusing on specific quantities, students must reason about relationships that hold true across many situations. This represents a fundamental change in how mathematical meaning is constructed, not simply an increase in complexity (Ozmantar et al.). As a result, students may rely on surface-level procedures or memorized rules without fully understanding the relationships those rules represent.

One framework that helps explain this cognitive transition is the concept of *algebraic habits of mind*. These habits describe the ways of thinking that support flexible algebraic reasoning, such as reversing operations, building rules to represent functions, and abstracting general structure from computation (Ozmantar et al., 2025). Developing these habits enables students to move fluidly between procedural, structural, and functional perspectives, strengthening their ability to reason about algebraic relationships rather than merely manipulate symbols (Ozmantar et al.). However, research indicates that classroom instruction

often emphasizes procedural fluency and symbol manipulation at the expense of these reasoning habits. When instruction remains primarily procedural, students' algebraic understanding can become fragmented, limiting their ability to generalize, interpret representations, or apply algebraic reasoning across contexts (Ozmantar et al.). Addressing this challenge requires instructional approaches that intentionally foreground reasoning, structure, and representation alongside skill development.

Math Anxiety

Math anxiety is another significant challenge students face as they transition into algebra, particularly during the middle school years. While feelings of anxiety related to math can emerge in earlier grades, they often intensify as mathematical content becomes more abstract and expectations for performance increase. Research indicates that math anxiety does not simply affect students' confidence; it can directly interfere with their cognitive performance (Mathnasium, 2025). In middle school, anxiety has been shown to disrupt executive functions such as cognitive shifting, which is essential for navigating multi-step algebraic problems and adapting strategies when initial approaches do not work. When students experience anxiety during problem-solving, their working memory and ability to reason effectively may be compromised, making algebraic tasks feel even more difficult (Mathnasium).

Without intentional support, students who experience math anxiety may begin to avoid math-related tasks, participate less in class, or disengage from practice opportunities altogether (Mathnasium, 2025). This avoidance can reinforce existing gaps in understanding and contribute to a cycle of anxiety and underperformance. Addressing math anxiety alongside academic instruction is therefore critical during the transition to algebra. By creating supportive learning environments that emphasize understanding, allow for productive struggle, and

normalize mistakes as part of learning, educators can help reduce anxiety and support students' long-term success in algebra (Mathnasium).

Existing Skill Gaps

Existing skill gaps can significantly exacerbate the challenges students face in algebra, often in ways that are not immediately visible at the surface level. While algebra, geometry, data analysis, and probability are frequently identified as areas of student difficulty, research suggests that struggles in these domains are less about the inherent complexity of the topics and more about weaknesses in foundational mathematical understanding that developed earlier in students' learning experiences (Burleigh & Durkin, n.d.). Students who experience difficulty with algebraic reasoning often demonstrate gaps in core skills such as numerical fluency and fractional understanding. These foundational competencies are typically introduced and developed in elementary grades and serve as the cognitive infrastructure for later mathematical reasoning. When this foundation is weak, students are forced to rely on procedural memorization rather than conceptual understanding, limiting their ability to adapt strategies, interpret relationships, or make sense of unfamiliar algebraic situations (Burleigh & Durkin). As mathematical content becomes more complex, these gaps create a cascading effect, making each subsequent concept increasingly difficult to access.

The impact of weak foundational knowledge becomes particularly pronounced in algebra, where students are expected to synthesize multiple concepts simultaneously and reason about relationships rather than perform isolated calculations. Students with strong underlying knowledge are better equipped to engage in problem solving, recognize structure, and transfer learning across contexts (Burleigh & Durkin, n.d.). In contrast, students with incomplete foundational frameworks may appear to struggle across multiple mathematical topics, masking the root cause of their difficulties and making it challenging to

pinpoint effective instructional responses. Importantly, research indicates that mathematical difficulty does not follow a universal pattern tied to specific topics. Instead, student struggles vary widely based on instructional approaches, classroom environments, and individual learning trajectories (Burleigh & Durkin). This finding challenges the practice of labeling certain concepts as inherently difficult and highlights the need for more nuanced instructional decision-making. Addressing algebra challenges therefore requires a diagnostic approach that traces current difficulties back to their foundational origins, rather than focusing solely on surface-level errors or isolated skills (Burleigh & Durkin).

1.3 Equity and Access in Algebra Instruction

Algebra as a Gatekeeper Course

Algebra I is widely considered a gatekeeper course because success or failure in this subject strongly shapes students' future academic pathways and postsecondary opportunities. Algebra I often serves as the entry point to advanced high school mathematics, including Geometry, Algebra II, Precalculus, and Calculus, which are courses commonly associated with college readiness and STEM preparation (Huffaker, 2025). At the same time, Algebra I has persistently high failure rates, making it one of the most significant barriers students face in secondary education. Research shows that students who complete Algebra I earlier, particularly by eighth grade, are more likely to achieve higher levels of math attainment in high school and to complete advanced coursework; these outcomes are linked to increased likelihood of enrolling in a four-year college, pursuing a STEM major, and experiencing stronger long-term economic outcomes (Huffaker). Importantly, these benefits are especially pronounced for students from historically underserved groups, highlighting Algebra I's role in either expanding or restricting opportunity (Huffaker).

Algebra I also functions as a gatekeeper because of its perceived role in college admissions. Many families believe that competitive colleges expect students to complete a sequence of five high school math courses culminating in Calculus, which requires Algebra I, or an equivalent course, before ninth grade (Huffaker, 2025). While Calculus is rarely a formal admissions requirement, it is often interpreted by admissions officers as a strong indicator of academic preparation and readiness for college-level work. As a result, students who do not access or succeed in Algebra I early may be excluded from these advanced pathways, regardless of their potential (Huffaker). Conversely, students who are not proficient in Algebra I by the end of ninth grade are significantly less likely to graduate from high school on time or meet college admissions requirements (Huffaker). This reality is particularly concerning given that Algebra I failure rates are higher than those of other ninth-grade subjects. For decades, these patterns have placed Algebra I at the center of policy and instructional debates focused on balancing rigor, access, and equity in secondary mathematics education (Huffaker).

Barriers and Opportunities in Algebra I Access

Equity and access remain central challenges in Algebra I instruction, particularly in middle school, where placement decisions can significantly shape students' long-term academic trajectories. Research consistently shows that students from historically underserved groups are less likely to enroll in Algebra I by eighth grade and, when they do enroll, are less likely to succeed, patterns that have persisted and, in some cases, widened over time (Huffaker, 2025). National enrollment data highlight clear racial disparities in early Algebra I access. In 2021, 27% of White eighth graders were enrolled in Algebra I, compared to just 16% of Black eighth graders, a gap that has grown slightly over the past three decades. These differences are not limited to enrollment alone; pass rates also vary by race and

ethnicity. While the majority of Asian and White students pass Algebra I in eighth grade, pass rates are lower for Hispanic and Black students (Huffaker). As a result, students from historically underserved groups are disproportionately represented among those still attempting to pass Algebra I in the later years of high school. Among eleventh- and twelfth-grade students enrolled in Algebra I, more than half are Black or Hispanic, illustrating how early access and success, or lack thereof, can compound over time (Huffaker).

Importantly, disparities in Algebra I enrollment are not fully explained by differences in ability or academic potential. Studies show that many high-achieving students, particularly those from low-income backgrounds or who are English language learners, are missing from accelerated math pathways (Huffaker, 2025). Even when students demonstrate strong proficiency in elementary mathematics, they are not always placed into advanced courses. This suggests that systemic factors, rather than readiness alone, play a significant role in determining who gains access to early algebra opportunities (Huffaker). Four key factors help explain inequities in Algebra I access and timing. First, readiness gaps rooted in unequal early mathematics opportunities mean that students enter middle school with varying levels of preparation. These gaps were exacerbated by post-pandemic learning loss, with students who were already struggling experiencing the steepest declines (Huffaker). Second, placement decisions that rely on teacher or counselor recommendations can be influenced by implicit bias. When subjective referrals are used, qualified Black, Hispanic, low-income, and first-generation students are less likely to be recommended for early Algebra I, even when their test scores suggest readiness (Huffaker).

Third, access to information and support plays a critical role. Families with greater social capital and familiarity with school systems are often better positioned to advocate for accelerated placement and to understand how early Algebra I fits into long-term college and career pathways. Without intentional efforts to provide

clear guidance and encouragement to all families, increased reliance on parent requests can unintentionally widen opportunity gaps rather than close them (Huffaker, 2025). Finally, structural factors such as school resources and course availability further limit access. Middle school Algebra I is less commonly offered in rural districts, high-poverty schools, and schools serving large proportions of Black and Latino students, reducing opportunities before placement decisions even occur (Huffaker; Long et al., 2025).

Best Practice for Assessing Readiness for Algebra I

Universal screening has emerged as a promising strategy for promoting more equitable access to Algebra I and other advanced mathematics courses. Rather than relying on teacher referrals, parent requests, or inconsistent local criteria, universal screening uses objective measures to identify students who demonstrate readiness for advanced coursework. By automatically enrolling high-achieving students into accelerated math pathways, this approach helps ensure that placement decisions are based on demonstrated proficiency rather than on access to resources or advocacy (Long et al., 2025). In addition to being more equitable, universal screening offers practical benefits for schools and districts. It reduces the administrative burden associated with subjective placement processes, streamlines decision-making, and saves staff time. Most importantly, it increases the likelihood that capable students are given access to advanced learning opportunities that might otherwise be overlooked, particularly students from low-income backgrounds and historically marginalized groups (Long et al.).

Research consistently shows that students' long-term academic success in mathematics is stronger when placement in Algebra I is based on academic readiness rather than grade level alone (Huffaker, 2025). When students who demonstrate readiness are given timely access to Algebra I, they achieve higher levels of math attainment and gain greater access to advanced coursework and

postsecondary opportunities. Conversely, placing students into Algebra I without sufficient preparation can lead to higher failure rates and weaker long-term outcomes (Huffaker). Different levels of readiness require different placement and support decisions. Studies show that algebra-ready eighth graders who were given access to Algebra I, including through online options in rural settings, demonstrated stronger high school math achievement than equally prepared peers who were denied access (Huffaker). Similarly, accelerated placement for highly prepared students, including seventh or even sixth graders, has been linked to positive long-term outcomes, such as increased completion of STEM degrees, particularly for female students (Huffaker). These findings indicate that readiness-based acceleration can expand opportunity when paired with attention to students' academic and social-emotional needs.

For borderline-ready students, the research presents a more nuanced picture. Early access can benefit some students, particularly when the group of borderline students is small or when districts can provide targeted supports such as tutoring or double-dose Algebra courses (Huffaker, 2025). However, accelerating large numbers of students with uncertain readiness often produces mixed or negative results, especially for students from low-income backgrounds who lack access to additional supports. These findings underscore the importance of careful placement decisions and the availability of instructional scaffolds when schools consider early Algebra I access for students on the margin (Huffaker). Students who are not academically ready for Algebra I require significant instructional support to be successful. Research from evaluations of the "Algebra for All" movement shows that universal middle school Algebra I access increases failure rates and lowers later math achievement for underprepared students (Huffaker). For these learners, taking Algebra I in ninth grade with strong instructional supports has been shown to be more effective than delaying access to high school mathematics altogether. Successful models emphasize high expectations, student-

centered instruction, and sustained professional development for teachers rather than assigning students to remedial tracks that often limit future opportunities (Huffaker).

Using objective, multi-measure placement criteria is a critical best practice. Placement decisions based on multiple test scores lead to higher participation and achievement in Algebra I, especially for historically underserved students (Huffaker, 2025). Using multiple measures provides a more accurate picture of readiness by capturing different dimensions of mathematical understanding and minimizing the impact of one-time performance issues or test anxiety (Huffaker). While research is mixed on the use of course grades for placement, combining assessment data with predictive tools offers a more reliable approach to identifying readiness. Probabilistic models and diagnostic assessments, including formative tools used throughout the year, can help districts estimate Algebra I success without relying on rigid cutoffs (Huffaker). Auto-enrollment policies further strengthen readiness-based placement systems. Automatically enrolling students who meet readiness criteria into Algebra I has been shown to increase participation and completion rates in accelerated math courses, particularly for students from historically underserved groups (Huffaker). These policies reduce barriers associated with opt-in systems and send a clear message that students belong in advanced pathways. Importantly, most auto-enrollment systems allow families to opt out, preserving flexibility while simplifying access. Research suggests that auto-enrollment is a relatively low-cost strategy compared to more intensive interventions and can be highly effective when paired with appropriate instructional supports (Huffaker)

Several states have implemented universal screening policies with measurable success. States such as Colorado, Nevada, North Carolina, Texas, and Washington have made progress in identifying and supporting high-potential students through automatic enrollment strategies (Long et al., 2025). In North Carolina, for

example, a policy that placed top-performing students from state math assessments into advanced math courses led to an increase in the enrollment of high-achieving Black students in advanced math from 88% to 92% within a single year; similarly, in central Texas, automatic enrollment produced even larger gains over time, substantially increasing eighth-grade Algebra I enrollment among high-achieving Black and Latino students (Long et al.). Building on these outcomes, Texas enacted legislation in 2023 requiring students who score in the top 40 percent statewide in fifth grade to receive advanced math instruction designed to prepare them for Algebra I by eighth grade (Long et al.).

Effective implementation of universal screening depends on the use of high-quality, consistent measures to identify student readiness. Districts can leverage existing interim assessments to support this process, provided they are applied equitably and transparently (Long et al., 2025). When used thoughtfully, tools such as MAP Growth can help schools identify students with strong academic potential and ensure that readiness, rather than subjective judgment, drives access to advanced mathematics pathways. Together, these practices position universal screening as a powerful lever for expanding opportunity and strengthening equity in algebra instruction (Long et al.).

Section 1 Conclusion

Taken together, the research presented in this section highlights that algebra is far more than a collection of symbols and procedures. It represents a fundamental way of thinking that develops gradually, builds on earlier mathematical experiences, and profoundly shapes students' academic trajectories. Students' struggles with algebra are often rooted in predictable challenges, including the cognitive shift from arithmetic to abstraction, math anxiety, gaps in foundational skills, and inequitable access to early and high-quality learning opportunities.

These challenges are not indicators of student inability, but reflections of the instructional, systemic, and contextual conditions in which algebra is taught and learned. For educators, understanding these dynamics is a critical first step. Recognizing why algebra matters and where students commonly encounter obstacles allows teachers to make more informed instructional decisions and to view student difficulties through a lens of opportunity rather than deficit. The next section builds on this foundation by examining research-based strategies for teaching algebra, focusing on instructional approaches that support conceptual understanding, promote equitable access, and help all students develop strong and flexible algebraic reasoning.

Section 1 Key Terms

Abstraction - The process of representing general mathematical relationships using symbols or variables rather than specific numerical values.

Academic Readiness - The degree to which a student possesses the foundational knowledge and reasoning skills needed to succeed in a particular course, such as Algebra I.

Algebraic Reasoning - The ability to analyze patterns, relationships, and structures and to represent them symbolically or functionally.

Algebraic Thinking - A form of mathematical thinking focused on variables, relationships, generalization, and the use of symbols to model situations.

Automatic Enrollment - A placement policy in which students who meet readiness criteria are enrolled in Algebra I by default, with the option to opt out.

Cognitive Load - The amount of mental effort required to process information, which can affect students' ability to reason through complex algebraic tasks.

Early Algebra - Instructional approaches in elementary and middle grades that develop foundational algebraic ideas such as patterns, relationships, and representations.

Equity in Access - The principle of ensuring all students, regardless of background, have fair opportunities to enroll in and succeed in Algebra I.

Functional Thinking - Reasoning about how quantities vary together and how relationships can be represented using functions.

Generalization - The process of identifying patterns or relationships that hold across multiple cases and expressing them in a generalized form.

Implicit Bias - Unconscious attitudes or assumptions that can influence decisions, such as course placement recommendations, in ways that disadvantage certain student groups.

Learning Progressions - Research-based sequences that describe how students' understanding of mathematical ideas develops over time.

Math Anxiety - Feelings of fear, tension, or apprehension related to mathematics that can interfere with problem solving and working memory.

Placement Criteria - The measures and processes used to determine whether students are assigned to Algebra I or other math courses.

Procedural Fluency - The ability to carry out mathematical procedures accurately and efficiently, often contrasted with conceptual understanding.

Readiness Gaps - Differences in students' preparedness for algebra that stem from unequal access to early learning opportunities and foundational instruction.

Relational Thinking - Understanding equations and expressions as relationships among quantities rather than as prompts for computation.

Universal Screening - A systematic process that evaluates all students using objective measures to identify readiness for advanced coursework.

Vertical Mathematical Growth - The development of increasingly sophisticated mathematical understanding over time, built on coherent concepts rather than shortcuts.

Section 1 Reflection Questions

1. Reflect on the mathematical experiences students bring into your classroom. How well do you think earlier grades in your school or district prepare students for algebraic thinking?
2. In what ways do you notice math anxiety affecting student participation, risk-taking, or persistence in algebra tasks? How do you currently respond to these behaviors?
3. How does Algebra I function as a gatekeeper in your school or district? Who benefits most from current placement practices, and who may be unintentionally excluded?
4. How does your school support students who are on the margin of Algebra I readiness? What instructional or structural supports are currently available, and where are there gaps?
5. Based on the research in this section, what is one assumption about algebra instruction or placement that you are beginning to question or reconsider?

Section 1 Activities

1. **Placement Policy Reflection:** Review your school or district's Algebra I placement criteria and reflect on how readiness, equity, and access are currently balanced.
2. **Equity Snapshot Analysis:** Examine Algebra I enrollment and pass-rate data by subgroup (e.g., race, gender, language status, income) to identify potential inequities.
3. **Foundational Skills Inventory:** Create a short checklist of prerequisite skills you believe are essential for algebra success and compare it to what students actually demonstrate.
4. **Math Anxiety Observation Log:** Observe student behaviors during algebra lessons and document moments that may indicate anxiety, avoidance, or disengagement.
5. **Student Error Analysis:** Select a set of common algebra errors from your classroom and analyze whether they stem from procedural misunderstandings or deeper conceptual gaps.

Section 2: Research-Based Teaching Strategies for Algebra

Effective algebra instruction requires more than well-designed curricula or increased practice; it depends on instructional strategies grounded in research on how students learn complex mathematical ideas. Algebra introduces new forms of reasoning that place significant cognitive, linguistic, and conceptual demands on learners. As a result, instructional approaches that intentionally support meaning-making, reduce cognitive load, and promote reasoning are essential for student

success. This section examines several research-based strategies that have been shown to strengthen students' algebraic understanding across grade levels and learning contexts. These strategies focus on making abstract concepts more accessible, modeling effective problem-solving processes, and fostering rich mathematical discourse. By grounding instruction in evidence-based practices such as the Concrete–Representational–Abstract framework, worked examples, structured discussion, and visual organization, teachers can support students in developing deeper, more flexible algebraic reasoning while addressing common learning barriers.

2.1 Making Algebra Concepts Concrete with the Concrete-Representational-Abstract (CRA) Framework

The Concrete–Representational–Abstract (CRA) approach is a research-based instructional framework that addresses a common limitation of traditional mathematics instruction: an overemphasis on procedures without sufficient attention to conceptual understanding (Ebner et al., 2025). Math instruction often focuses primarily on teaching students how to carry out mathematical operations, yet fewer approaches explicitly support students in making connections among mathematical concepts. The CRA framework is designed to bridge this gap by intentionally linking conceptual and procedural knowledge, helping students understand not only *how* to solve algebraic problems, but *why* the underlying rules and relationships work (Ebner et al.). In the CRA approach, instruction follows a structured, three-phase progression. Students first engage with concrete materials, using physical objects or manipulatives to explore mathematical ideas in a tangible way. Instruction then moves to the representational phase, where students use visual models such as drawings, diagrams, tables, or graphs to represent the same concepts. Finally, students transition to the abstract phase, working with symbols, equations, and algebraic notation without physical or visual

supports. This graduated sequence supports students in building meaning at each stage and strengthens their ability to connect symbolic algebra to underlying concepts (Ebner et al., 2025).

By emphasizing connections between representations and procedures, the CRA approach is particularly well suited for algebra instruction, where students must reason about relationships, variables, and structures rather than rely solely on computation (Ebner et al., 2025). Research suggests that CRA can be especially effective for supporting students who struggle with abstraction, as it reduces cognitive load and promotes deeper, more flexible understanding of algebraic concepts. (Ebner et al.). According to a review summarized by the Virginia Department of Education, the What Works Clearinghouse assigned this instructional approach a strong level of evidence rating, based on findings from 28 case studies demonstrating positive impacts on student learning outcomes (Virginia Department of Education, 2021).

Classroom Example: Using the CRA Framework in Algebra

Algebra Concept: Solving a linear equation

The teacher introduces the equation $x+4=9$ using concrete materials. Students model the equation with counters by placing a cup labeled x and four counters on one side of a balance and nine counters on the other. Students remove four counters from both sides and observe that the remaining amount shows $x=5$ (Ebner et al., 2025). Next, the teacher transitions to the representational stage, asking students to draw a simple bar model showing the same equation. Students cross out four units on each side of their drawings and identify the remaining value for x . Finally, students move to the abstract stage, solving the equation symbolically by subtracting four from both sides. The teacher explicitly connects each symbolic step to the actions students performed with the manipulatives and

drawings, reinforcing that the algebraic steps represent maintaining balance (Ebner et al.).

2.2 Using Solved Problems to Support Algebraic Reasoning

Using solved problems, often referred to as *worked examples*, is an instructional strategy that helps students develop algebraic reasoning by focusing their attention on the structure and logic of solutions rather than on executing every step independently (What Works Clearinghouse, 2019). Algebra problem solving places high cognitive demands on students because it requires them to process multiple pieces of abstract information at once, such as variables, operations, and relationships. This cognitive load can overwhelm working memory and interfere with learning, particularly for students who are still developing algebraic fluency (What Works Clearinghouse). Solved problems help reduce this cognitive burden by allowing students to view the entire problem and solution process simultaneously. Instead of struggling to determine each step on their own, students can study how a problem unfolds, examine why specific steps are taken, and observe how algebraic rules are applied in context. This approach supports more efficient learning by freeing cognitive resources that students can then use to focus on understanding relationships and reasoning patterns rather than managing procedural complexity (What Works Clearinghouse).

When teachers intentionally incorporate discussion and analysis of solved problems, students are encouraged to think critically about algebraic strategies. Asking students to explain why a solution works, identify key decision points, or analyze incomplete or incorrect solved problems can deepen conceptual understanding and strengthen reasoning skills (What Works Clearinghouse, 2019). Research shows that students benefit particularly when they are prompted to explain solutions or compare correct and incorrect examples, as this process

highlights common misconceptions and reinforces logical connections (What Works Clearinghouse). Evidence reviewed by the What Works Clearinghouse suggests that studying solved problems can improve student achievement compared to practice problems alone. Multiple studies found positive effects on conceptual knowledge when solved problems were used with students in remedial, regular, and honors algebra classes. In several cases, students who examined solved problems alongside practice problems demonstrated stronger understanding than peers who received additional practice without worked examples (What Works Clearinghouse). While findings are not uniformly positive across all studies, the overall evidence indicates that solved problems can be an effective tool when used thoughtfully and in combination with discussion and explanation.

Using Solved Problems in Practice

Effectively using solved problems in algebra instruction requires more than simply showing students worked examples. To support learning, teachers should intentionally structure discussion, problem selection, and instructional routines so that students actively analyze the reasoning behind solutions rather than passively observe them (What Works Clearinghouse, 2019). Research synthesized by the What Works Clearinghouse emphasizes that the instructional value of solved problems lies in how they are used to surface structure, strategy, and mathematical thinking. One key practice is to engage students in discussion of solved problem structures and solution steps. Teachers can prompt students to describe the steps involved in solving a problem, explain why those steps work or don't work, and consider whether the steps could be reordered or simplified. Asking questions such as whether a strategy would always work, how a problem could be altered so that the strategy no longer applies, or what other problems might be solved using the same approach encourages students to make

connections across problems and deepen their reasoning (What Works Clearinghouse). These discussions can be conducted verbally or supported with written prompts, and questions should be adjusted based on students' prior knowledge and the complexity of the task.

Teachers can further strengthen this approach by fostering extended analysis of problem structure. Carefully examining each step of a solved problem helps students recognize how algebraic solutions unfold sequentially and how each step builds on the previous one (What Works Clearinghouse, 2019). Focusing on structure involves drawing attention to the quantities present, the roles of variables, the operations involved, and the relationships expressed through equality or inequality. By explicitly discussing these elements, teachers help students learn to anticipate solution strategies and apply similar reasoning to new problems (What Works Clearinghouse). Selecting appropriate solved problems is also critical. Solved problems should align with the lesson's instructional goals and may include both correct and incorrect examples. Problems that illustrate common student errors can be especially powerful, as they prompt students to analyze misconceptions and justify why a solution is flawed (What Works Clearinghouse). Teachers may choose to present multiple solved problems that share similar structures, arranging them from simple to more complex, or display them simultaneously to help students identify patterns across solutions. Alternatively, presenting examples one at a time can support deeper discussion of individual strategies (What Works Clearinghouse).

Finally, solved problems should be integrated across whole-class instruction, small-group work, and independent practice. Teachers might introduce a new concept using a solved problem during whole-class instruction, then allow students to analyze additional examples collaboratively in small groups. During independent work, students can refer back to solved problems as models when they are unsure how to proceed. This flexible use of worked examples supports

diverse learning needs and helps students build confidence as they develop algebraic reasoning skills (What Works Clearinghouse, 2019).

2.3 Mathematical Discourse and Student Thinking

Think-Aloud Pair Problem Solving (TAPPS) is a collaborative instructional strategy that leverages student discourse to strengthen algebraic reasoning, particularly when working with complex word problems. Algebra word problems are challenging for many students because they require learners to simultaneously interpret language, identify relevant mathematical relationships, translate situations into symbolic representations, and select appropriate solution strategies. These demands place heavy cognitive and linguistic burdens on students, often leading to breakdowns in reasoning before meaningful problem solving can occur (Fadzil et al., 2025). A recent systematic review synthesizing 52 peer-reviewed studies highlights TAPPS as an especially effective approach for addressing these challenges. In TAPPS, students work in pairs, with one student verbalizing their thinking step by step while solving a problem and the other listening, questioning, and prompting clarification. This structured verbalization encourages students to externalize their reasoning, making their thought processes visible and open to feedback. By articulating decisions, assumptions, and strategies aloud, students engage in metacognitive reflection that supports deeper understanding and error detection (Fadzil et al.).

The research identifies four dominant challenges in algebra word problem solving: cognitive limitations, reading comprehension difficulties, weak mathematization, and inadequate modeling skills (Fadzil et al., 2025). TAPPS directly addresses these issues by slowing down the problem-solving process and embedding discussion at each stage. As students explain how they interpret the problem context, choose representations, and justify solution steps, they strengthen connections between

language and mathematics. Peer interaction further supports comprehension, as students can question unclear reasoning, offer alternative interpretations, and collaboratively refine solution strategies (Fadzil et al.). Importantly, TAPPS has been shown to improve student performance across diverse backgrounds and learning styles. Its effectiveness lies in its emphasis on discourse rather than speed or procedural recall. Through structured dialogue, students develop verbal reasoning skills and gain confidence in expressing mathematical ideas, which can be particularly beneficial for students who struggle silently during independent work (Fadzil et al.). This aligns with broader research on mathematical discourse, which emphasizes that learning algebra is not only about manipulating symbols but also about communicating, justifying, and critiquing mathematical thinking (Fadzil et al.).

The review also highlights the complementary role of visual strategies such as storyboarding, which help students sequence and represent mathematical ideas visually (Fadzil et al., 2025). While TAPPS strengthens verbal articulation and reasoning, storyboarding supports visualization and planning, together offering a more comprehensive approach to supporting algebraic problem solving. By breaking a word problem into visual steps or frames, students can better manage cognitive load and make sense of abstract situations (Fadzil et al.). Studies have shown that storyboards guide content flow and support visual learning by making the structure of a problem more explicit, leading to measurable gains in students' ability to solve mathematical tasks. However, this research also emphasizes that the greatest benefits occur when storyboarding is paired with opportunities for collaboration, critical thinking, and reflection, rather than used as a standalone visual aid (Fadzil et al.).

The storyboarding component is particularly effective as a collaborative learning tool. When students work in pairs or small groups to construct a storyboard, they engage in extended discussion about how they interpret the problem context,

what information is relevant, and how different steps connect (Fadzil et al., 2025). These conversations help surface misconceptions and encourage students to justify their reasoning. Through this shared sense-making process, students develop a clearer and more consistent understanding of the mathematical situation being modeled (Fadzil et al.). From a mathematical perspective, storyboarding also reinforces the importance of logical progression. Algebraic problem solving requires students to follow a coherent sequence of steps, and constructing a storyboard helps them plan and remember this sequence from start to finish. By visually mapping out their thinking, students develop more methodical problem-solving habits, reduce misunderstandings, and communicate their reasoning more clearly. As part of a broader instructional approach, storyboarding complements discourse-based strategies like TAPPS by supporting visual reasoning and helping students connect language, structure, and mathematical relationships in algebra (Fadzil et al.).

Classroom Example: Using TAPPS to Solve an Algebra Word Problem

Algebra Concept: Writing and solving a linear equation from a word problem

The teacher presents the following problem: *A movie theater charges a \$6 ticket fee plus \$2 per hour. The total cost is \$14. How many hours did the customer stay?* Students are paired and assigned roles. Student A is the thinker and Student B is the listener (Fadzil et al., 2025). Student A reads the problem aloud and begins thinking through it step by step, verbalizing their reasoning: identifying known quantities, deciding what the variable represents, and explaining how to translate the situation into an equation. Student B listens carefully, asking clarifying questions such as “Why did you choose that variable?” or “How does that number relate to the situation?” but does not solve the problem independently. After Student A writes and solves the equation $6+2h=14$, both students discuss whether the solution makes sense in the context of the problem. The roles then switch for

a second problem. Throughout the activity, the teacher circulates, listening for misconceptions and prompting students to explain their thinking more clearly when needed (Fadzil et al).

2.4 Using Tables to Support Algebraic Thinking

Using tables is an effective instructional strategy for supporting students' understanding of algebra because it helps make abstract concepts more visible, organized, and connected to prior learning (Wong & Bukalov, 2023). Many students struggle in algebra when symbols and procedures appear disconnected from ideas they already understand. Tables provide a structured way for students to associate quantities, recognize relationships, and use mathematical structure to reason through problems, rather than relying on memorized steps alone (Wong & Bukalov). Tables are particularly powerful because they reduce the abstraction that often overwhelms students in algebra. By organizing information into rows and columns, tables allow students to work with two or more related quantities at the same time, which is a foundational mathematical skill. This organization supports sense making and helps students see how values change together, an essential idea in algebraic thinking. As students use tables, they begin to recognize structure, which is emphasized in mathematics standards and is critical for understanding why algebraic procedures work (Wong & Bukalov).

One effective use of tables is through the area model, which connects algebra to students' earlier understanding of multiplication, division, and place value (Wong & Bukalov, 2023). Instead of using traditional symbolic procedures that often feel arbitrary, the area model organizes expressions into a table that represents the dimensions of a rectangle. This approach helps students visualize multiplication and division of both numbers and algebraic expressions. When applied to polynomials, the area model reinforces the idea that algebra extends place value

concepts rather than replacing them with new rules. It also helps students see the inverse relationship between multiplication and division more clearly (Wong & Bukalov). Tables are also highly effective for teaching quadratic concepts, particularly completing the square. Rather than memorizing steps with unclear meaning, students use a table or grid to represent an incomplete square and determine what value is needed to complete it. This visual organization helps students understand why the process works and supports retention by engaging visual memory. As a result, students develop both procedural fluency and conceptual understanding (Wong & Bukalov).

In addition, tables are a powerful tool for solving algebra word problems, where students often struggle to translate language into equations. By organizing information into a table, students can clearly represent relationships among quantities and more easily derive equations from the structure of the problem (Wong & Bukalov, 2023). This strategy is especially helpful in contexts such as systems of equations and probability, where multiple conditions must be considered simultaneously. Tables simplify the translation process and reduce reliance on symbolic formulas that can feel inaccessible to students (Wong & Bukalov). As students become more comfortable using tables, they improve their ability to communicate mathematical ideas and connect new learning to prior knowledge. Because tables can be applied across many algebra topics, they promote consistency in reasoning and build confidence. Importantly, using tables also supports equity by making complex algebraic ideas more accessible to a wider range of learners, helping students engage meaningfully with content that might otherwise feel out of reach (Wong & Bukalov).

Section 2 Conclusion

The strategies presented in this section highlight the importance of instructional design that prioritizes conceptual understanding alongside procedural fluency. Research consistently shows that students benefit when algebra instruction makes thinking visible, connects representations, and provides structured opportunities for discussion and reflection. Approaches such as the CRA framework, the use of solved problems, collaborative discourse strategies like TAPPS, and visual tools such as storyboarding and tables help students manage the cognitive demands of algebra and engage more meaningfully with complex ideas. For educators, these research-based strategies offer practical ways to support diverse learners, address common misconceptions, and promote equitable access to rigorous algebra instruction. While strong instructional approaches form the foundation of effective teaching, they are most powerful when paired with thoughtful tools and resources that enhance implementation. The next section will focus on how to reach every learner in the algebra classroom, examining strategies for differentiation, targeted supports, and inclusive instructional practices that help ensure all students can engage meaningfully with algebra and succeed at high levels.

Section 2 Key Terms

Abstract Representation - The use of symbols, equations, and formal algebraic notation to express mathematical relationships without physical or visual supports.

Area Model - A visual representation that uses the dimensions of a rectangle to illustrate multiplication, division, or factoring, helping students connect algebra to geometric reasoning.

Concrete Representation - The use of physical objects or manipulatives to model mathematical ideas in a tangible and hands-on way.

Conceptual Understanding - A deep comprehension of mathematical ideas that allows students to explain why procedures work and apply concepts flexibly across contexts.

Evidence-Based Instruction - Teaching practices that are grounded in rigorous research demonstrating positive effects on student learning outcomes.

Mathematical Discourse - Structured opportunities for students to communicate, justify, critique, and refine mathematical thinking through discussion.

Metacognitive Reflection - The process of thinking about one's own reasoning, strategies, and decision-making during problem solving.

Modeling Skills - The ability to represent real-world situations mathematically using equations, diagrams, tables, or graphs.

Problem Structure - The underlying mathematical features of a problem, including quantities, relationships, operations, and constraints.

Procedural Knowledge - Knowledge of how to perform mathematical operations and steps, often paired with but distinct from conceptual understanding.

Representational Fluency - The ability to interpret, connect, and move between multiple representations of the same mathematical idea.

Scaffolding - Instructional supports that guide student learning and are gradually removed as understanding increases.

Sequential Reasoning - The ability to follow and justify a logical progression of steps when solving a mathematical problem.

Solved Problems - Fully worked examples that show both the problem and the steps used to reach a solution.

Storyboarding - A visual strategy in which students sequence and represent steps in problem solving using diagrams or frames.

Think-Aloud Pair Problem Solving (TAPPS) - A collaborative strategy where one student verbalizes their thinking while solving a problem and a partner listens, questions, and prompts clarification.

Visual Organization - The use of structured visuals such as diagrams, charts, or tables to clarify relationships and reduce cognitive demands.

Worked Examples - Instructional examples that explicitly demonstrate solution strategies and reasoning, often used to support learning efficiency.

Section 2 Reflection Questions

1. Reflect on your current algebra instruction. Which strategies discussed in this section align most closely with what you already do, and which feel least familiar or most challenging to implement?
2. In your experience, which algebra topics tend to overload students' working memory the most? How could solved problems or worked examples reduce cognitive demand in those areas?
3. How do you currently support students who struggle silently during independent problem solving? What role could think-aloud strategies play in making their thinking visible?
4. How do collaborative strategies like TAPPS or storyboarding fit with your classroom culture and student dynamics? What adaptations might be necessary for your context?

5. Looking across all the strategies discussed, which do you believe would have the greatest impact on your students' algebraic reasoning over time, and what supports would you need to implement it effectively?

Section 2 Activities

1. **CRA Lesson Redesign:** Select one upcoming algebra lesson and redesign it explicitly using the Concrete–Representational–Abstract sequence, documenting materials and transitions.
2. **Create an Incorrect Example:** Design an intentionally flawed solved problem that reflects a common student misconception and write discussion questions to guide analysis.
3. **Discussion Question Bank:** Create a reusable set of questions that prompt students to explain, critique, and compare algebraic solution strategies.
4. **Student Strategy Collection:** Gather student work from one assignment and categorize the different strategies students used. Reflect on patterns and instructional implications.
5. **Implementation Reflection Log:** Keep a short reflective log for two weeks documenting when you use strategies from this section and how students respond.

Section 3: Reaching Every Learner in Algebra Instruction

Algebra classrooms are inherently diverse. Students enter with varying levels of prior knowledge, confidence, language proficiency, and access to mathematical opportunities, all of which shape how they engage with algebraic ideas. As a

result, effective algebra instruction must be intentionally designed to reach every learner, not by lowering expectations, but by expanding access to meaningful mathematical thinking. Research consistently shows that equitable outcomes in algebra depend on instructional practices that respond to learner variability while maintaining a shared focus on core concepts, reasoning, and structure. This section explores how educators can support all students through differentiation, targeted instructional supports, and enrichment and extension opportunities. Rather than treating these approaches as separate or optional, the strategies presented here position differentiation, support, and enrichment as interconnected components of high-quality algebra instruction. Together, they help ensure that all students are challenged, supported, and given opportunities to grow as algebraic thinkers.

3.1 Differentiation in Algebra Instruction

Differentiation in the mathematics classroom refers to the intentional planning of multiple access points that allow all students to engage with, make sense of, and discuss rich mathematical ideas (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). Rather than designing a single pathway through content, differentiated instruction recognizes that students vary in how they approach learning and provides flexible structures to support those differences while maintaining shared learning goals (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). In practice, differentiation can include a range of instructional elements, such as supporting student autonomy, adjusting pacing, allowing opportunities for revision and editing, and encouraging multiple solution strategies. It also encompasses decisions about how students work, whether independently or collaboratively, and where learning takes place within the classroom environment. These approaches help students engage with mathematical ideas in ways that align with their readiness, interests, and learning preferences, without reducing rigor (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center).

Importantly, differentiation is not synonymous with intervention or ability grouping. Research indicates that ability grouping often does more harm than good by limiting access to challenging content and reinforcing inequities (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). Instead, differentiation is most effective when embedded within Tier 1 instruction, where teachers plan proactively for how all learners will engage with the same core learning objective. Flexible grouping based on recent formative data is one example of how teachers can respond to student needs without permanently tracking students or lowering expectations (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center).

Differentiation also includes the intentional use of tools, manipulatives, and drawings to create physical and visual models alongside more symbolic representations such as tables, equations, and graphs. These varied representations provide multiple entry points to the same mathematical standard and allow students to engage with algebraic ideas at different levels of abstraction (Minnesota STEM Center, 2023). Teachers may also vary number ranges or contexts so that students can access the core concept without changing the learning goal. In this way, differentiation supports access without lowering expectations (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). An important feature of effective differentiation is the emphasis on comparing and contrasting multiple solution strategies. When students examine different approaches to the same problem, the focus shifts from individual answers to the shared mathematical structures that make the strategies work. This comparison helps learners identify key relationships, operations, and patterns that hold across different numbers and representations, strengthening conceptual understanding and transfer (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center).

Above all, differentiated learning is designed to support vertical growth in mathematical thinking (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). Instruction prioritizes coherence and progression, helping students build increasingly

sophisticated understanding over time. For this reason, shortcuts and tricks are intentionally avoided, as they often bypass underlying structure and can limit students' ability to extend their learning to more advanced mathematics. Instead, differentiation supports sustained growth by keeping students connected to core ideas and structures that underpin algebraic reasoning (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center).

Why is Differentiation Important?

Research synthesized by Hayden et al. (2023) demonstrates that when teachers implement differentiated instruction effectively, students are more likely to experience improved academic performance, increased engagement, and stronger motivation. Multiple studies across mathematics contexts have found that students taught with differentiated approaches outperform peers who receive uniform instruction, particularly in areas requiring higher-order thinking such as problem solving and spatial reasoning. Evidence suggests that differentiation benefits not only students who are already high achieving but also those with emerging skills (Hayden et al.). For example, research examining mathematics instruction that embedded differentiation showed that students who entered with stronger prior achievement benefited from increased challenge, while students with weaker academic profiles in high-performing schools also experienced gains when instruction was adjusted to meet their needs. These findings highlight that differentiation does not lower expectations; rather, it allows teachers to maintain rigor while providing multiple pathways for students to access complex algebraic ideas (Hayden et al.).

In algebra specifically, where abstract reasoning, symbolic manipulation, and multi-step problem solving are required, a one-size-fits-all approach can unintentionally widen gaps in understanding (Hayden et al., 2023). Differentiated instruction supports students by varying tasks, representations, pacing, and

supports so that all learners can engage meaningfully with the same core concepts. This flexibility is particularly important for developing algebraic thinking, as students may need different entry points or scaffolds to reason about variables, relationships, and structures (Hayden et al.). Differentiation also plays a critical role in advancing equity in mathematics classrooms. Treating all students the same does not necessarily result in equitable outcomes, especially in diverse classrooms where students' cultural, linguistic, socioeconomic, and learning backgrounds influence how they engage with instruction. Research emphasizes that equitable teaching requires teachers to intentionally respond to student differences rather than assume uniform instructional approaches will meet everyone's needs (Hayden et al.). By designing instruction that acknowledges and values these differences, teachers can create algebra classrooms where all students feel supported, challenged, and capable of success.

Differentiation Strategies in the Algebra Classroom

Effective differentiation in the algebra classroom is not about creating entirely separate lessons for different students, but about designing learning experiences that offer multiple pathways to the same mathematical goals. The following strategies provide practical ways for teachers to respond to student variability while maintaining high expectations and a shared focus on core algebraic ideas. Each approach supports student engagement, autonomy, and conceptual understanding by allowing learners to access content, demonstrate thinking, and collaborate in ways that align with their readiness and learning preferences.

Math Centers

Rather than delivering instruction solely through whole-class lessons, math centers create structured opportunities for students to engage in targeted, meaningful activities at their own pace and level of readiness (Ullman, 2022). This approach supports both independent learning and small-group instruction,

making it well suited for algebra classrooms where students often vary widely in prior knowledge and confidence. In a differentiated classroom model, teachers may begin with a brief whole-class mini-lesson that introduces or reviews an algebraic concept. Following this, students rotate through a series of math centers that reinforce the lesson in different ways. According to instructional leaders interviewed by Ullman, these centers may include working with the teacher in a small group for additional support or enrichment, using digital tools to practice skills, engaging in hands-on or game-based activities, or completing independent work aligned to the day's objective. This structure allows teachers to provide targeted instruction to specific groups while other students remain actively engaged in purposeful learning.

Math centers are particularly powerful in algebra because they allow teachers to tailor activities to students' strengths, misconceptions, and interests. For example, if a group of students is struggling with a foundational skill such as fraction operations, a center can be designed to provide focused practice using visual models or guided tasks that support conceptual understanding before applying the skill in algebraic contexts (Ullman, 2022). Meanwhile, other students may engage in extension activities that deepen their reasoning or explore multiple solution strategies. When thoughtfully designed, math centers promote flexibility without sacrificing rigor. They allow teachers to adjust grouping based on formative data, provide timely feedback, and incorporate a range of instructional tools and representations (Ullman).

Use of Multiple Strategies

Allowing students to use multiple strategies is a powerful form of differentiation in the algebra classroom, particularly when students are encountering new or complex ideas. Rather than prescribing a single method, this approach gives students choice in how they engage with a mathematical task, creating essential

access points to the underlying concepts (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). Some students may rely on drawn models or manipulatives to reason through a problem, while others may use charts, tables, or symbolic reasoning at the numerical or algebraic level. Each of these strategies represents a valid way of making sense of the mathematics and reflects students' differing readiness and ways of thinking. From an instructional perspective, the value of allowing multiple strategies lies not only in the variety of approaches students use, but in how those approaches are interpreted and leveraged by the teacher. By examining students' chosen strategies, teachers gain insight into their conceptual understanding, misconceptions, and reasoning processes (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). This information helps guide instructional decisions, such as when to provide clarification, pose probing questions, or introduce more formal representations.

Equally important is the role of comparison and discussion. When students share and compare different strategies, the emphasis shifts from getting the correct answer to identifying common mathematical structures and relationships across representations (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). Through this process, students begin to recognize efficiencies, make connections among ideas, and refine their thinking. Over time, these discussions help students progress toward more formal and abstract levels of algebraic understanding without abandoning conceptual meaning (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). In this way, allowing multiple strategies serves as a form of differentiation that balances access and rigor. Students are supported in entering mathematics in ways that make sense to them, while instruction intentionally guides the class toward shared, more sophisticated understandings (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center).

Flexible Grouping

Flexible grouping is a differentiated instructional strategy that allows teachers to intentionally organize students into small, purposeful groups based on the

demands of a task and the needs of learners, rather than fixed ability levels (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). In the algebra classroom, flexible grouping is most effective when students work in groups of two or three, allowing for meaningful discussion while ensuring that each student has opportunities to contribute. Group composition may be informed by a range of factors, including mathematical readiness, language needs, and the social dynamics of the classroom (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). Research-informed grouping models offer guidance for using this strategy effectively. One approach involves publicly visible, randomly assigned groups, which can reduce status issues and promote risk taking when students engage in problem solving (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). Another model, known as Mixed Strength Strong Groups, intentionally considers students' social skills alongside their mathematical understanding when forming groups. This approach recognizes that productive collaboration depends not only on content knowledge but also on students' ability to listen, explain, and support one another (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center).

Across these models, a key principle is the strategic placement of emergent learners with more capable peers (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center, 2023). When implemented thoughtfully, flexible grouping allows students to learn from one another through explanation, questioning, and shared reasoning, while avoiding the negative effects associated with permanent ability grouping. To ensure equity and effectiveness, teachers must also build structures that promote both individual accountability and shared responsibility. Establishing clear norms, roles, and expectations for participation helps ensure that all students engage meaningfully and that no single student dominates or withdraws from the work (Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). Flexible groups can be used for varying lengths of time depending on instructional goals. Some groups may remain intact for an entire unit to support sustained collaboration, while others may shift frequently for short skill-building tasks or targeted exploration of specific algebraic concepts

(Minnesota STEM Teacher Center). This adaptability allows teachers to respond to formative assessment data and evolving student needs.

Choice Boards

Choice boards are a flexible differentiation strategy that supports student autonomy while keeping instruction aligned to clear learning goals. A choice board is a graphic organizer that presents students with a set of activity options, allowing them to decide how they will engage with content and demonstrate their understanding (Ullman, 2022). In the algebra classroom, choice boards can be designed to target specific skills or concepts while offering varied approaches that reflect students' interests, readiness levels, and learning preferences. One of the key benefits of choice boards is that they increase student ownership of learning. When students are given structured choices, they are more likely to engage meaningfully with tasks because they have a sense of control over how they work. Choice boards also support self-paced learning, allowing students to spend more time on tasks that challenge them or move more quickly through activities they already understand (Ullman).

Teachers can implement choice boards in a variety of ways to support differentiation. Some may create multiple versions of the same board to better align with different learning needs, while others may use color coding or labels to indicate topic focus, type of activity, or level of challenge (Ullman, 2022). For example, one option might emphasize visual modeling, another symbolic reasoning, and a third real-world application, all addressing the same algebraic standard. Regardless of format, the key is that each option remains connected to the learning objective and provides meaningful mathematical engagement (Ullman).

Healthy Competition

Healthy competition can be a motivating element in the algebra classroom when it is intentionally structured to value understanding, growth, and collaboration rather than speed (Ironsides, 2025). Competition that rewards fast processing can unintentionally privilege the same students repeatedly and discourage others from participating. Research-informed practice emphasizes the importance of designing competitive experiences that recognize a broader range of mathematical strengths and learning behaviors over speed (Ironsides). One effective approach is to redefine what it means to “win” in math. Instead of focusing on who finishes first, teachers can create opportunities for recognition based on qualities such as clear reasoning, creative representations, or effective collaboration. For example, students might be acknowledged for developing the most insightful explanation, creating the strongest visual model, or working most effectively as a team (Ironsides). These forms of competition honor deep thinking and collective problem solving, reinforcing the idea that algebra is about sense making rather than speed.

Even more importantly than competing against peers or teams is encouraging students to compete against themselves. When students track their own progress, such as noticing increased accuracy, improved reasoning, or stronger explanations over time, the focus shifts from comparison with peers to personal growth. This approach supports a growth mindset and helps students view learning as a process of continuous improvement rather than a race to correct answers (Ironsides, 2025).

3.2 Effective Instructional Supports

Effective student supports are essential for helping students succeed in Algebra, particularly those who enter the course with gaps in foundational skills. Research

consistently shows that increasing access alone is not sufficient; students are most likely to achieve positive outcomes when access is paired with well-designed, evidence-based supports that address both content knowledge and learning conditions (Huffaker, 2025).

Extended or Supplementary Algebra

One of the most well-documented instructional supports is extended or supplementary Algebra I instruction during the school day. “Double-dose” Algebra I, in which students receive two math periods per day, has been shown to improve both short-term achievement and long-term educational outcomes for underprepared students (Huffaker, 2025). When Chicago Public Schools required underprepared ninth graders to enroll in two Algebra I periods instead of one, students demonstrated higher algebra test scores, as well as longer-term gains in college entrance exam performance, high school graduation rates, and college enrollment (Huffaker). A related approach, supplementary math support models, enroll students in a standard Algebra I course alongside an additional support class focused on just-in-time remediation of foundational skills. This structure, which emphasizes targeted support aligned with current coursework, has repeatedly shown positive effects in postsecondary education and offers promise at the secondary level as well (Huffaker).

Scheduling decisions play a role in the effectiveness of extended instruction. Staggered math blocks that are not scheduled back to back can promote spaced practice, which improves retention of mathematical concepts (Huffaker, 2025). However, research is mixed on whether staggered scheduling is consistently more effective than block scheduling overall. Districts must also weigh trade-offs, as increasing instructional time can carry high staffing costs and may limit students’ access to electives or reduce effort in other subject areas, which can affect overall school engagement (Huffaker).

High-Impact Tutoring

Tutoring is another highly effective support for Algebra I success, particularly when delivered in small groups, multiple times per week, and during the school day. A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials found that math tutoring produces substantial learning gains, making it one of the most effective academic interventions available (Huffaker, 2025). High-impact tutoring programs share several key features, including integration into the school schedule, data-informed instruction, consistent and well-supported tutors, high-quality materials, and frequent sessions (Huffaker). In Chicago, ninth-grade students who received high-impact tutoring outperformed peers enrolled in double-dose Algebra I on end-of-course exams. Notably, providing tutoring during the school day proved more cost-effective than traditional double-dose models, suggesting that districts may have multiple viable pathways for supporting students effectively (Huffaker).

Technology-Based Supports

Technology-based supports, including online platforms and generative artificial intelligence tools, offer additional possibilities for personalized instruction, though the research base is still emerging. Online tutoring has been shown to be more effective than no tutoring, but generally less effective than in-person models (Huffaker, 2025). Personalized learning platforms can adapt instruction to individual students' needs, but many have not yet been independently evaluated. Research on AI-based tutoring tools highlights the importance of thoughtful implementation and clear guardrails. Studies suggest that AI tools are most effective when they provide hints and prompts that encourage student thinking rather than replacing active problem solving. GenAI also shows promise as a support for tutors themselves, with early evidence indicating that AI coaching tools can improve instructional quality and student mastery, particularly for less experienced tutors (Huffaker).

Summer Bridge Programs

Finally, summer bridge programs can help students build foundational skills and confidence before entering Algebra I, though evidence of their long-term effectiveness remains limited (Huffaker, 2025). Short-term programs focused on strengthening core skills, such as fractions, decimals, and rational numbers, have been shown to increase the number of students deemed Algebra-ready. These findings suggest that well-designed bridge programs may play a valuable role in supporting readiness, especially when aligned with known areas of student difficulty and followed by continued support during the school year (Huffaker).

3.3 Enrichment and Extension in Algebra

Algebra enrichment and extension are essential components of equitable mathematics instruction because they provide all students with opportunities to engage in challenging, meaningful mathematical thinking beyond routine procedures. Research consistently shows that students from historically underserved groups, including African American, Latino, and Native American students, English learners, students with disabilities, and students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, are significantly underrepresented in traditional gifted and talented programs. These disparities are often the result of biased identification criteria, unequal access to high-quality instruction, and limited exposure to mathematically rich learning experiences (Resanovich, 2024). When students are consistently placed in low-level or remedial tracks, they have fewer opportunities to demonstrate their potential or engage in advanced mathematical reasoning. An “enrichment for all” approach reframes enrichment not as a separate pathway reserved for a small group of students, but as a core instructional practice embedded within the general classroom (Resanovich). This perspective aligns with NCTM’s position that increasing opportunities to learn requires ensuring all students have access to challenging curriculum, innovative

learning experiences, and differentiated supports that promote growth at continually advancing levels. Research suggests that students' mathematical potential is not a fixed trait but a dynamic characteristic that emerges in mathematically rich situations. When students experience meaningful challenge and success in such environments, their potential can be nurtured and developed over time (Resanovich).

Providing enrichment and extension within algebra instruction helps address the problem of chronic underchallenge. Students who are rarely exposed to cognitively demanding tasks have limited opportunities to demonstrate their strengths, build confidence, or develop positive mathematical identities (Resanovich, 2024). Studies show that access to enriching math content is associated with improved student engagement, attitudes, and confidence. For example, students participating in enrichment-focused programs have reported greater enjoyment of mathematics and stronger beliefs in their own mathematical ability, factors that research has linked to accelerated learning and long-term achievement (Resanovich). These findings underscore that enrichment is not only about advancing content but also about shaping students' relationships with mathematics.

Effective algebra enrichment emphasizes depth over acceleration. Rather than moving students more quickly through topics, enrichment strategies deepen understanding of on-grade content through rich problems, open-ended tasks, and opportunities for exploration (Resanovich, 2024). Design principles for enrichment for all include engaging students with mathematically rich problems, using low-floor, high-ceiling tasks that allow for multiple entry points, valuing reasoning and sense making over polished answers, and fostering positive engagement through discussion of students' ideas. These approaches ensure that all students can participate meaningfully while still providing opportunities for extension and challenge (Resanovich).

Classroom discourse plays a particularly important role in algebra enrichment. When students are encouraged to explain their thinking, critique reasoning, and make connections to broader mathematical ideas, they engage in higher-order thinking that extends beyond procedural problem solving (Resanovich, 2024). Research indicates that high-level questions focused on underlying structures and big ideas lead to stronger learning outcomes than questions focused solely on steps or answers. Open-ended prompts such as “How does this work?” or “Is this always true?” support deeper reasoning and allow students to explore algebraic concepts more flexibly (Resanovich). Rich problem types also serve as powerful tools for algebra extension. Tasks that require students to make assumptions, test ideas, and revise strategies, such as open-ended modeling problems or estimation-based challenges, promote perseverance and creative thinking. Low-floor, high-ceiling problems are especially effective because they allow all students to begin the task while offering significant challenge for those ready to extend their thinking (Resanovich).

Section 3 Conclusion

Reaching every learner in the algebra classroom requires more than well-intentioned equity goals; it requires deliberate instructional choices grounded in research and responsive to student needs. The practices described in this section demonstrate that differentiation, effective supports, and enrichment are not competing priorities, but complementary approaches that strengthen access, engagement, and achievement. By planning for multiple entry points, offering targeted supports for students who need them, and embedding rich opportunities for challenge and extension, teachers can create algebra classrooms where all students are positioned to succeed. These strategies emphasize growth over sorting, understanding over speed, and potential over labels. When algebra instruction is designed to honor learner variability while keeping mathematical

structure and reasoning at the center, students are more likely to develop confidence, competence, and a positive mathematical identity.

Section 3 Key Terms

Ability Grouping - A practice of placing students into fixed groups based on perceived skill level; often limits access to rigorous tasks for some students and can reinforce long-term achievement gaps.

Autonomy - Students' sense of ownership over how they approach tasks (e.g., choosing a method or tool), which can increase engagement and persistence in algebra.

Choice Board - A structured menu of task options aligned to the same learning objective, allowing students to select how they will practice or demonstrate understanding.

Collaborative Norms - Agreed-upon expectations for how students work together (e.g., listening, explaining, taking turns), designed to ensure equitable participation in group problem solving.

Culturally Responsive Teaching - Instruction that connects math learning to students' lived experiences and values diverse ways of reasoning and communicating, with the goal of strengthening belonging and engagement.

Double-Dose Algebra - A scheduling model in which students receive two periods of Algebra I (or algebra plus a support class) to provide additional learning time and targeted skill-building.

Emergent Learner - A student who is developing proficiency in a skill or concept and benefits from structured supports and opportunities to learn alongside more confident peers.

Extension - Tasks or prompts that push students beyond the core lesson goal by asking them to generalize, justify, model, or explore “what if” variations.

Flexible Grouping - A strategy where teachers change student groupings based on learning goals, task demands, and recent evidence of student needs rather than fixed labels.

Formative Data - Information gathered during learning (e.g., exit tickets, student explanations, work samples) used to adjust instruction and group students responsively.

Growth Mindset - The belief that mathematical ability can improve through effort, effective strategies, and support—often strengthened when classrooms value reasoning over speed.

High-Impact Tutoring - Tutoring designed for strong results—typically frequent, consistent, aligned with class content, and delivered in small groups or 1:1 with trained support.

Intervention - Additional instruction beyond the core program designed to address specific learning needs; most effective when it complements (not replaces) strong grade-level instruction.

Just-in-Time Support - Targeted assistance provided at the moment students need it for current coursework, rather than reteaching broad prerequisite content in isolation.

Low-Floor, High-Ceiling Task - A problem designed so all students can begin (low floor) while still allowing advanced reasoning and multiple solution pathways (high ceiling).

Math Center - A structured station or rotation model where students work on different activities aligned to the lesson goal while the teacher meets with small groups for targeted instruction.

Mixed-Strength Grouping - Intentional grouping that includes a range of readiness levels and emphasizes shared reasoning, explanation, and collaboration (not simply “high with low”).

Participation Structures - Deliberate routines (e.g., roles, turn-taking, discussion protocols) that ensure every student contributes and learns during partner or group work.

Spaced Practice - A learning approach that distributes practice over time (rather than in one block) to improve retention and long-term understanding.

Summer Bridge Program - A short-term program (often in summer) designed to strengthen foundational skills and confidence before students enter Algebra I.

Tier 1 Instruction - The core, grade-level instruction provided to all students; differentiation and supports are ideally embedded here before relying on separate interventions.

Underchallenge - A condition where students receive tasks that are consistently too easy, limiting opportunities to develop reasoning, persistence, and deeper algebraic thinking.

Section 3 Reflection Questions

1. When you picture “differentiation,” what do you personally associate it with (scaffolds, pacing, grouping, task design, etc.), and how does that definition align or conflict with how your school talks about differentiation?

2. Recall a time when you used ability grouping. What was the intention, what actually happened, and what did you notice about student confidence and access to rigorous thinking?
3. The section notes that enrichment should emphasize depth over acceleration. In your setting, how is enrichment typically handled—and what would “enrichment for all” look like in your classroom?
4. Reflect on your school’s current supports for students who enter Algebra I underprepared (e.g., tutoring, double-dose algebra, support classes). Which supports exist, and how well are they integrated with what happens in the core algebra classroom?
5. Choose one strategy from the section (flexible grouping, multiple strategies, centers, choice boards, supports, enrichment). What is one concrete change you could try in the next two weeks, and what evidence would you collect to determine whether it improved access and learning for more students?

Section 3 Activities

1. **Differentiation Self-Audit:** Review a recent algebra lesson plan and highlight where differentiation is present (task design, grouping, pacing, representations). Identify at least two concrete changes you could make to expand access without lowering rigor.
2. **Math Center Prototype:** Create a three-station math center rotation for a current algebra topic. Include a teacher-led support station, an independent reasoning task, and an extension or enrichment activity.
3. **Choice Board Creation:** Design a choice board aligned to one algebra learning objective, ensuring that all options address the same standard while varying approach and representation.

4. **Peer Observation Protocol:** Observe a colleague's algebra lesson with a focus on differentiation and equity strategies. Document effective practices and plan how to adapt them in your own classroom.
5. **Action Research Mini-Study:** Select one differentiation strategy from this section to implement over a four-week period. Collect student work, engagement data, and reflections, then analyze the impact on learning and participation.

Course Conclusion

Effective algebra instruction sits at the intersection of content knowledge, instructional design, and equity-minded practice. As this course has emphasized, helping students succeed in algebra requires understanding why algebra matters, how students learn algebraic concepts, and what instructional choices most effectively support reasoning, access, and growth. When teachers intentionally connect research-based strategies with inclusive instructional practices, algebra becomes a powerful tool for developing students' problem-solving abilities and expanding future opportunities. By examining the role of algebra in the curriculum, exploring evidence-based teaching strategies, and focusing on ways to reach every learner, this course highlights that strong algebra instruction is both a pedagogical and an ethical responsibility. Differentiation, targeted supports, and enrichment are not add-ons, but essential components of high-quality instruction that ensure all students can engage meaningfully with algebraic ideas. Ultimately, enhancing algebra instruction is about positioning students to see themselves as capable mathematical thinkers, equipping them with tools to reason about complex relationships, and ensuring that algebra serves as a bridge rather than a barrier.

Classroom Example

Mr. Alvarez teaches eighth-grade Algebra I at a diverse middle school in a mixed urban-suburban district. His classroom includes students with a wide range of prior math experiences, language backgrounds, confidence levels, and access to academic support outside of school. Some students entered middle school already demonstrating strong algebraic reasoning, while others continue to struggle with foundational concepts such as fractions, variables, and proportional reasoning. Mr. Alvarez is deeply committed to helping all students see algebra as a tool for understanding patterns and relationships rather than a collection of rules to memorize. Over the past few years, Mr. Alvarez has noticed a familiar pattern: a small group of students participates frequently and moves quickly through symbolic work, while others disengage, rely on guesswork, or fall behind as concepts become more abstract. He recognizes that traditional whole-class instruction and procedural practice alone are not sufficient to support every learner. Motivated by a desire to improve both understanding and equity, Mr. Alvarez begins redesigning his algebra instruction.

Challenges

- **Supporting Conceptual Understanding, Not Just Procedures:** Mr. Alvarez observes that many students can follow steps to solve equations but struggle to explain why those steps work. As algebra becomes more abstract, students who lack conceptual grounding become increasingly confused. He wants to help students build connections between concrete models, visual representations, and symbolic notation so that algebraic rules make sense rather than feel arbitrary.
- **Addressing Wide Variability in Readiness:** Students in Mr. Alvarez's class enter Algebra I with significantly different levels of preparedness. Some are

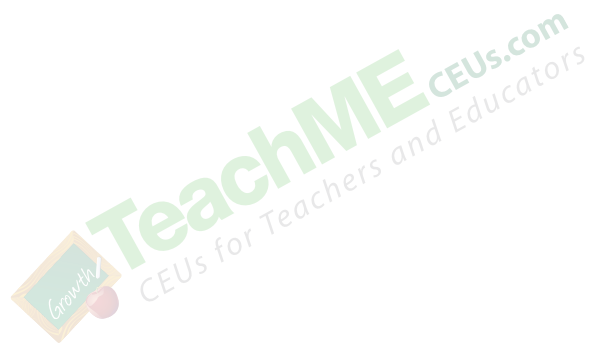
ready for extension and challenge, while others need continued support with foundational skills. He is concerned about how to meet these varied needs without lowering expectations or resorting to fixed ability groups that limit opportunity.

- **Encouraging Mathematical Discourse and Confidence:** Many students are reluctant to explain their thinking, particularly those who fear making mistakes or who are still developing academic language skills. Mr. Alvarez wants to create a classroom culture where reasoning, discussion, and questioning are valued, and where students feel safe sharing incomplete or developing ideas.
- **Making Abstract Concepts Accessible:** Algebraic symbols and notation often feel disconnected from students' prior learning. Mr. Alvarez wants to make abstract ideas more accessible through the use of visuals, models, tables, and real-world contexts, while still helping students progress toward formal algebraic reasoning.
- **Ensuring Equitable Access to Challenge and Enrichment:** Mr. Alvarez is concerned that enrichment opportunities often reach only a small subset of students. He wants to design tasks that allow all students to engage in rich problem solving, offering multiple entry points while still providing meaningful extension for those ready to go deeper.

Considerations for Support and Improvement

- How can Mr. Alvarez help students connect physical models, visual representations, and symbolic equations in algebra lessons?

- In what ways might strategies like worked examples, structured discussion, and Think-Aloud Pair Problem Solving support students in developing algebraic reasoning and metacognition?
- How can Mr. Alvarez respond to varied readiness levels while maintaining shared learning goals?
- How can enrichment and extension tasks be embedded into daily instruction so that all students, not just a select few, have opportunities to engage in challenging, meaningful algebraic thinking?
- What classroom norms and routines can Mr. Alvarez establish to promote mathematical discourse, risk-taking, and a growth-oriented view of learning algebra?



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