SUPPORT DOCUMENTS FOR THE BIOLOGY SOUTH CAROLINA ACADEMIC STANDARDS AND PERFORMANCE INDICATORS FOR SCIENCE





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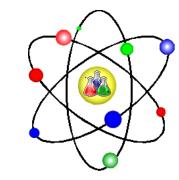


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SOUTH CAROLINA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Local districts, schools and teachers may use this document to construct standards-based science curriculum, allowing them to add or expand topics they feel are important and to organize content to fit their students' needs and match available instructional materials. The support document includes essential knowledge, extended knowledge, connections to previous and future knowledge, and assessment recommendations. Educators may use a feedback form until October 31, 2014 to constructively critique this document and suggest resources and instructional strategies for each performance indicator (see pg. 9).

ACADEMIC STANDARDS

In accordance with the South Carolina Education Accountability Act of 1998 (S.C. Code Ann. § 59-18-110), the purpose of academic standards is to provide the basis for the development of local curricula and statewide assessment. Consensually developed academic standards describe for each grade and high school core area the specific areas of student learning that are considered the most important for proficiency in the discipline at the particular level.

Operating procedures for the review and revision of all South Carolina academic standards were jointly developed by staff at the State Department of Education (SCDE) and the Education Oversight Committee (EOC). According to these procedures, a field review of the first draft of the revised South Carolina science standards was conducted from March through May 2013. Feedback from that review and input from the SCDE and EOC review panels was considered and used to develop these standards.

The academic standards in this document are not sequenced for instruction and do not prescribe classroom activities; materials; or instructional strategies, approaches, or practices. The *South Carolina Academic Standards and Performance Indicators for Science* is not a curriculum.

STATEWIDE ASSESSMENT

The academic standards and performance indicators for Biology 1 should be the basis for the development of classroom and course-level assessments. In addition, the academic standards and performance indicators for Biology 1 will be the basis for the development of the items on the state-required End-of-Course Examination Program (EOCEP) for Biology 1. Test questions will measure the practice and/or the core content of the performance indicator. In addition, most performance indicators may be assessed with items that utilize any of the science and engineering practices. For example, an assessment item for a performance indicator that requires students to *construct explanations* may also ask students to use other practices such as *asking questions, using models*, or *analyzing data* around the core content in the original indicator. Items may also assess students' understanding of the core content without a science and engineering practice.

The high school course standards and performance indicators for Biology 1 will be used as the basis for the state-required End-of-Course Examination Program (EOCEP) for Biology 1.

BIOLOGY OVERVIEW

The academic standards and performance indicators establish the practices and core content for all Biology courses in South Carolina high schools. The core ideas within the standards are not meant to represent an equal division of material and concepts. Therefore, the number of indicators per core idea should not be expected to be equal, nor should equal numbers of performance indicators within each standard be expected.

The five core areas of the Biology 1 course standards include:

- Cells as a System
- Energy Transfer
- Heredity Inheritance and Variation of Traits
- Biological Evolution Unity and Diversity
- Ecosystem Dynamics

The eight science and engineering practices describe how students should learn and demonstrate knowledge of the content outlined in the content standards. Engaging in these practices will help students become scientifically literate and astute consumers of scientific information. The seven core concepts (patterns; cause and effect; scale, proportion, and quantity; systems and system models; energy and matter; structure and function; and stability and change) are reinforced in the appropriate context of the core science content through hands-on instruction in the classroom.

Students should engage in scientific and engineering practices as a means to learn about the specific topics identified for the course. It is critical that educators understand the Science and Engineering Practices are <u>not</u> to be taught in isolation. There should <u>not</u> be a distinct "Inquiry" unit at the beginning of each school year. Rather, the practices need to be employed <u>within the content</u> for each grade level.

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KINDERGARTEN

LIFE SCIENCE: EXPLORING ORGANISMS AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Standard K.L.2: The student will demonstrate an understanding of organisms found in the environment and how these organisms depend on the environment to meet those needs.

K.L.2A. Conceptual Understanding: The environment consists of many types of organisms including plants, animals, and fungi. Organisms depend on the land, water, and air to live and grow. Plants need water and light to make their own food. Fungi and animals cannot make their own food and get energy from other sources. Animals (including humans) use different body parts to obtain food and other resources needed to grow and survive. Organisms live in areas where their needs for air, water, nutrients, and shelter are met.

Performance Indicators: Students who demonstrate this understanding can:

K.L.2A.1 Obtain information to answer questions about different organisms found in the environment (such as plants, animals, or fungi).

K.L.2A.2 Conduct structured investigations to determine what plants need to live and grow (including water and light).

Figure 1: Example from the Kindergarten Curriculum Standards

The code assigned to each performance indicator within the standards is designed to provide information about the content of the indicator. For example, the **K.L.2A.1** indicator decodes as the following--

- K: The first part of each indicator denotes the grade or subject. The example indicator is from Kindergarten. The key for grade levels are as follows—
 - K: Kindergarten
 - 1: First Grade
 - 2: Second Grade
 - 3: Third Grade
 - 4: Fourth Grade
 - 5: Fifth Grade
 - 6: Sixth Grade

7: Seventh Grade
8: Eighth Grade
H.B: High School Biology 1
H.C: High School Chemistry 1
H.P: High School Physics 1
H.E: High School Earth Science

- L: After the grade or subject, the content area is denoted by an uppercase letter. The L in the example indicator means that the content covers Life Science. The key for content areas are as follows—
 - E: Earth Science
 - EC: Ecology
 - L: Life Science
 - P: Physical Science
 - S: Science and Engineering Practices
- 2: The number following the content area denotes the specific academic standard. In the example, the 2 in the indicator means that it is within the second academic standard with the Kindergarten science content.
- A: After the specific content standard, the conceptual understanding is denoted by an uppercase letter. The conceptual understanding is a statement of the core idea for which students should demonstrate understanding. There may be more than one conceptual understanding per academic standard. The A in the example means that this is the first conceptual understanding for the standard.
- 1: The last part of the code denotes the number of the specific performance indicator. Performance indicators are statements of what students can do to demonstrate knowledge of the conceptual understanding. The example discussed is the first performance indicator within the conceptual understanding.

FORMAT OF THE CURRICULUM SUPPORT DOCUMENT

The format of this document is designed to be structurally uniformed for each of the academic standards and performance indicators. For each, you will find the following sections--

- Standard
 - This section provides the standard being explicated.
- Conceptual Understanding
 - This section provides the overall understanding that the student should possess as related to the standard.

Performance Indicator

• This section provides a specific set of content with an associated science and engineering practice for which the student must demonstrate mastery.

Assessment Guidance

• This section provides guidelines for educators and assessors to check for student mastery of content utilizing interrelated science and engineering practices.

• Previous and Future Knowledge

• This section provides a list of academic content along with the associated academic standard that students will have received in prior or will experience in future grade levels. Please note that the kindergarten curriculum support document does not

contain previous knowledge. Additionally, although the high school support document may not contain future knowledge, this section may list overlapping concepts from other high school science content areas.

- Essential Knowledge
 - This section illustrates the knowledge of the content contained in the performance indicator for which it is fundamental for students to demonstrate mastery. Mastery of the information in the Essential Knowledge section is measured by state-wide assessments in grades four-eight and high school biology 1.

• Extended Knowledge

- This section provides educators with topics that will enrich students' knowledge related to topics learned with the explicated performance indicator.
- Science and Engineering Practices
 - This section lists the specific science and engineering practice that is paired with the content in the performance indicator. Educators should reference the chapter on this specific science and engineering practice in the *Science and Engineering Practices Support Guide*.

EVALUATING THE SUPPORT DOCUMENTS

As part of the development process, the SCDE would like to give the education community an opportunity to provide constructive feedback on the support documents including the grade/subject curriculum guides, 2005 to 2014 indicator crosswalks, and Science and Engineering Practices Guide. You may provide your comments or suggest curriculum resources by accessing the *Academic Standards and Performance Indicators for Science 2014 Support Document Feedback Form* which is available online—

https://adobeformscentral.com/?f=-fVAZrJqa9jZezpijXmmRg

You will be able to share only one comment per submission, but you may refresh the form to submit additional comments. The feedback form will close at noon on Oct. 31, 2014. If you have questions regarding this process, please contact Dr. Regina E. Wragg at 803-734-0564 or rwragg@ed.sc.gov.

BIOLOGY SUPPORT DOCUMENT

Standard H.B.2 The student will demonstrate the understanding that the essential functions of life take place within cells or systems of cells.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2A The essential functions of a cell involve chemical reactions that take place between many different types of molecules (including carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and nucleic acids) and are catalyzed by enzymes.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2A.1 Construct explanations of how the structures of carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids (including DNA and RNA) are related to their functions in organisms.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *construct explanations* of how the structures of carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids (including DNA and RNA) are related to their functions in organisms. Therefore the primary focus for assessment should be to *construct explanations of phenomena using (1) primary and secondary science evidence and models, (2) conclusions from scientific investigations, or (3) data communicated in graphs, tables, or diagrams to construct explanations as to how the structure of different molecules affect the function of organic molecules in living systems. This could include, but is not limited to interpreting diagrams based on chemical structure of different biological molecules and using evidence from the diagrams in the explanations.*

In addition to constructing explanations, students should be asked to *ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; construct explanations; engage in scientific argument from evidence;* and *obtain, evaluate, and communicate information.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.P.2.A.3 (Properties of compounds)

7.P.2.A.4 (Bonding)

7.L.4 (DNA and RNA)

H.C.3 (Molecular structure, Bonding, Polymers)

Essential Knowledge

All organisms are composed of *organic molecules*.

- Organic molecules contain carbon atoms.
- Most organic molecules are made of smaller units that bond to form larger molecules.
- Energy is stored in the bonds that link these units together. The amount of energy stored in these bonds varies with the type of molecule formed. As a result, not all organic molecules have the same amount of energy available for use by the organism.

Carbohydrates (sugars and starches) are molecules composed of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen.

- The basic carbohydrates are simple sugars such as glucose.
- Simple sugars can bond together to make larger, more complex carbohydrate molecules, for example starch, glycogen, or cellulose.
- Carbohydrates are important as an energy source for all organisms.
 - When carbohydrates are synthesized during the process of photosynthesis, the

plants or other photosynthetic organisms use them as a source of energy or they are stored in the cells. Carbohydrates are used to store energy for short periods of time.

- When complex carbohydrates are consumed, the process of digestion in animals breaks the bonds between the larger carbohydrate molecules so that individual simple sugars can be absorbed into the bloodstream through the walls of the intestines. The bloodstream carries the simple sugars to cells throughout the body where they cross into the cells through the cell membrane.
- Once inside the cells, simple sugars are used as fuel in the process of cellular respiration, releasing energy that is stored in the form of ATP.
- Carbohydrates provide raw materials and serve as structural molecules in many organisms.
 - The carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen that compose carbohydrates serve as raw materials for the synthesis of other types of small organic molecules, such as amino acids and fatty acids.
 - Some carbohydrates (such as cellulose) are used as structural material in plants. For most animals, foods that contain these carbohydrates are important as fiber, which stimulates the digestive system in animals.

Lipids are organic molecules composed of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen that bond to form fatty acids and glycerols. Lipids have more carbon-hydrogen bonds than carbohydrates, thus contain more energy per gram than carbohydrates or proteins, which explains why fats have a greater caloric value.

- Fats serve a variety of functions such as providing long-term energy storage, cushioning of vital organs, and insulation for the body. Fats are insoluble in water.
- Phospholipids are a major component of cell membranes. They consist of a phosphate group/head and fatty acid tail. The phosphate head is hydrophilic (attracted to water) and the fatty acid tail is hydrophobic (repelled by water).
- Steroids can serve as the raw materials necessary for the production of some vitamins, some hormones, and cholesterol.
- Waxes are lipids that form waterproof coatings for plants and animals

Proteins are molecules composed of chains of *amino acids*. Amino acids are molecules that are composed of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and sometimes sulfur.

- Because of the variety of shapes and structures of protein molecules, proteins have a wide variety of functions. *Proteins* are involved in almost every function in the human body. For example:
 - Contractile proteins help control movement such as proteins in the muscles which help control contraction.
 - Hormone proteins coordinate body activities such as insulin which regulates the amount of sugar in the blood.
 - Enzymatic proteins accelerate the speed of chemical reactions such as digestive enzymes which break down food in the digestive tract. Enzymes are unchanged by the chemical reaction and can be reused.
 - Structural proteins are used for support such as connective tissue and keratin that forms hair and finger nails.

• Transport proteins move many substances throughout the body. An example is hemoglobin that transports oxygen from the lungs to the other parts of the body to be used by cells in cellular respiration.

Nucleic acids are organic molecules that carry and transmit genetic information.

- There are two types of nucleic acids:
 - o Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)
 - o Ribonucleic acid (RNA)
- Both DNA and RNA are composed of small units called nucleotides. The nucleotides that compose nucleic acids have three parts:
 - A nitrogenous base
 - Cytosine (C)
 - Guanine (G)
 - Adenine (A)
 - Thymine (T) (DNA only)
 - Uracil (U) (RNA only)
 - o A simple (pentose) sugar
 - Deoxyribose (DNA only)
 - Ribose (RNA only)
 - A phosphate group

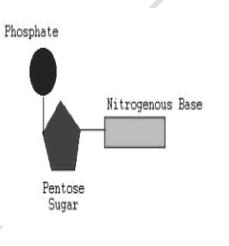


Image Source: 2005 Science Standards Support Document

The structure of DNA and RNA differs:

- DNA consists of two chains of nucleotides that spiral around an imaginary axis to form a double helix. Nitrogenous bases from each strand of DNA are joined by hydrogen bonds through the axis of the helix.
- Each nitrogenous base is hydrogen bonded to its complimentary base:
 - Guanine (G) can only bond with Cytosine (C),
 - Thymine (T) can only bond with Adenine (A).
- RNA consists of a single chain of nucleotides with nitrogenous bases exposed along the side.

• When the nitrogenous bases of RNA hydrogen bond to a strand of DNA, each RNA base can bond with only one type of DNA base. Bases that bond are called *complementary* bases.

- Guanine (G) can only bond with Cytosine (C).
- Uracil (U) can only bond with Adenine (A).

	DNA	RNA
Type of base composing nucleotides	Cytosine (C) Adenine (A) Guanine (G) Thymine(T)	Cytosine(C) Adenine (A) Guanine (G) Uracil (U)
Type of sugar composing nucleotides	deoxyribose	ribose
Molecule structure and shape	Double helix	Single chain

TEACHER NOTE: DNA and RNA will be explored in further detail in H.B.4.

Extended Knowledge

Students could develop and use models to explore saturated versus unsaturated fats versus trans fats along with hydrolysis and dehydration synthesis reactions (condensation reactions).

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.6

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2A The essential functions of a cell involve chemical reactions that take place between many different types of molecules (including carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and nucleic acids) and are catalyzed by enzymes.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2A.2 Plan and conduct investigations to determine how various environmental factors (including temperature and pH) affect enzyme activity and the rate of biochemical reactions.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *plan and carry out investigations* to determine how various environmental factors affect enzyme activity and the rate of biochemical reactions. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be to *plan and conduct* controlled scientific investigations to answer questions, test hypotheses, and develop explanations: (1) formulate scientific questions and testable hypotheses based on credible scientific information, (2) identify materials, procedures, and variables, (3) use appropriate laboratory equipment, technology, and techniques to collect qualitative and quantitative data, and (4) record and represent data in an appropriate form regarding the relationship between environmental factors and reaction rate. This could include, but is not limited to, students planning and conducting investigations and organizing data to answer questions regarding how temperature, pH, and the presence of a catalyst affect enzymatic activity and biochemical reaction rates.

In addition to *planning and conducting investigations*, students should be asked to *ask questions* and *define problems; analyze and interpret data; use mathematical and computational thinking; construct explanations and design solutions; engage in scientific argument from evidence;* and *obtain, evaluate and communicate information.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.P.2B.3 (pH)

7.P.2B.5 (Chemical reactions)

H.C.5 (pH)

H.C.6 (Chemical reactions)

H.C.7 (Catalysts, Activation Energy, Rates of Reaction)

Essential Knowledge

Biochemical reactions allow organisms to grow, develop, reproduce, and adapt. A chemical reaction breaks down some substances and forms other substances.

- Chemical reactions (including biochemical reactions) can occur when reactants collide with sufficient energy to react. The amount of energy that is sufficient for a particular chemical reaction to occur is called the *activation energy*.
- Sometimes a chemical reaction must absorb energy for the reaction to start; often, but not always, this energy is in the form of heat.
- Energy, as heat or light, can also be given off as a result of biochemical reactions, such as

with cellular respiration or bioluminescence.

There are several factors that affect the rates of biochemical reactions.

- Changes in temperature (gaining or losing heat energy) can affect a chemical reaction.
- *pH* (a measure of the acidity of a solution) in most organisms needs to be kept within a very narrow range so that pH homeostasis can be maintained. A small change in pH can disrupt cell processes.
- A *catalyst* is a substance that changes the rate of a chemical reaction or allows a chemical reaction to occur (activate) at a lower than normal temperature. Catalysts work by lowering the activation energy of a chemical reaction. A catalyst is not consumed nor altered during a chemical reaction, so, it can be used over and over again. *Enzymes* are proteins that serve as catalysts in living organisms.

 \circ Enzymes are very specific. Each particular enzyme can catalyze only one chemical reaction by working on one particular reactant (substrate).

• Enzymes are involved in many of the chemical reactions necessary for organisms to live, reproduce, and grow, such as digestion, respiration, reproduction, movement and cell regulation.

• The structure of enzymes can be altered by temperature and pH; therefore, each catalyst works best at a specific temperature and pH.

Extended Knowledge

Students could obtain, communicate and evaluate information regarding--

- specific mechanisms by which a catalyst lowers activation energy;
- mechanism of chemical reactions (i.e. atoms, ions, bonding);
- role of cofactors or coenzymes;
- role of enzyme inhibitors.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.3

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2B Organisms and their parts are made of cells. Cells are the structural units of life and have specialized substructures that carry out the essential functions of life. Viruses lack cellular organization and therefore cannot independently carry out all of the essential functions of life.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2.B1 Develop and use models to explain how specialized structures within cells (including the nucleus, chromosomes, cytoskeleton, endoplasmic reticulum, ribosomes and Golgi complex) interact to produce, modify, and transport proteins. Models should compare and contrast how prokaryotic cells meet the same life needs as eukaryotic cells without similar structures.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* to explain how specialized structures in cells interact to produce, modify and transport proteins. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students to *construct 2-D drawings/diagrams, 3-D models, or simulations* that compare and contrast these processes in eukaryotic cells. Please note that a simple cell model showing organelles does not meet this performance indicator. To adequately meet the indicator, students must model how organelles interact to carry out the functions of eukaryotic cells and how those same functions are carried out in prokaryotes.

In addition to *develop and use models*, students should be asked to *ask questions and define problems; analyze and interpret data; construct explanations and design solutions; engage in scientific argument from evidence;* and *obtain, evaluate and communicate information.*

Previous and Future Knowledge:

6.L.4 & 7.L.3. (Prokaryotes and Eukaryotes)

7.L.3 (Cell Structures)

*Teacher Note. Review organelles from previous grades. Organelles may appear in subsequent indicators. (See 7.L.3.3). In 7th grade students learned about how these structures differed between plant, animal and bacterial cells. In H.B.2A.1 Students learn about the structure and functions of proteins.

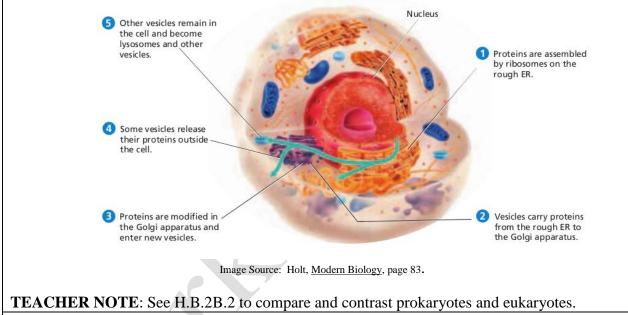
Essential Knowledge

Eukaryotic cells have specialized substructures, called *organelles*, carry out the essential functions of life.

- The *nucleus* contains the chromosomes which are composed of DNA (*deoxyribonucleic acid*, a chemical compound that stores and transmits genetic information); and functions in the genetic control of the cell.
 - A *chromosome* is a structure in the nucleus of a cell consisting essentially of one long thread of DNA that is tightly coiled.
- The *cytoskeleton* is a network of fibrous proteins that helps the cell with maintaining shape, support, and movement.

- *Endoplasmic reticulum (ER)* is a complex, extensive network that transports materials throughout the inside of a cell.
 - Rough ER has ribosomes attached to the surface.
 - Smooth ER has no ribosomes attached.
- *Ribosomes* are the sites of protein synthesis; some are located on the ER, others are found in the cytoplasm.
- The *Golgi complex* modifies, collects, packages, and distributes molecules to be used within the cell or to be used outside the cell.

Cellular processes are carried out by molecules. Proteins carry out most of the work of cells to perform the essential functions of life. One of the major functions of the cell is the production of proteins. The genetic information in DNA provides instructions for assembling protein molecules. In eukaryotic cells the nucleus, ribosomes, endoplasmic reticulum, vesicles, and the Golgi apparatus interact to produce, modify and transport proteins.



Extended Knowledge

Students may develop and use models to:

- understand any additional functions of various organelles stated in the indicator;
- deeper comprehension of the structure of various organelles than what is depicted in the diagram above (such as the parts of the endoplasmic reticulum, the structure of the nucleus, or the structure of the cell membrane);
- understand the structure or function of any additional organelles.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2B Organisms and their parts are made of cells. Cells are the structural units of life and have specialized substructures that carry out the essential functions of life. Viruses lack cellular organization and therefore cannot independently carry out all of the essential functions of life.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2B.2 Collect and interpret descriptive data on cell structure to compare and contrast different types of cells (including prokaryotic versus eukaryotic, and animal versus plant versus fungal).

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to collect and interpret data on cell structure to compare and contrast different types of cells (including prokaryotic versus eukaryotic, and animal versus plant versus fungal). Therefore, the primary focus for assessment should be for students to collect and interpret data from investigations or informational texts using a range of methods to (1) reveal patterns and construct meaning, (2) support or refute hypotheses, explanations, claims, or designs, or (3) evaluate the strength of conclusions. This could include but is not limited to students using a microscope to examine different types of cells and creating labeled drawings or diagrams based on their observations.

In addition to Collect and interpret descriptive data, students should be asked to *ask questions; develop and use models; plan and conduct investigations; analyze and interpret data; construct explanations;* and *engage in scientific argument from evidence.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Prokaryotes and Eukaryotes; Unicellular and Multicellular Organisms; Animal, Plant, Fungi, Protist and Bacteria Kingdoms)

6.L.5 (Chloroplasts)

7.L.3 (Cell Structures; Plant, Animal, Protist and Bacterial cells; Prokaryote and Eukaryote)

Essential Knowledge

Prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells share several similarities

• The presence of ribosomes, cytoplasm, genetic material, and a cell membrane.

The major difference between prokaryotic cells and eukaryotic cells is the presence of a nucleus.

- *Prokaryotic cells* do not have a true nucleus; the DNA in prokaryotic cells is not completely separated from the rest of the cell by a nuclear membrane (envelope) and is not arranged in linear strands (they have a singular circular chromosome).
- In *eukaryotic cells*, the DNA is organized into linear chromosomes and the chromosomes are separated from the cytoplasm by a nuclear membrane.

Prokaryotic cells differ from eukaryotic cells in other ways:

- Prokaryotic cells lack most of the other organelles that are present in the cytoplasm of eukaryotic cells.
- Prokaryotic cells do not contain mitochondria but they can obtain energy from either sunlight or from chemicals in their environment.
- Prokaryotic cells are generally much smaller than eukaryotic cells.

• Most prokaryotes such as bacteria are unicellular organisms.

Plant cells contain almost all the types of organelles that animal cells contain, but plants have three unique structures that are not found in animal cells:

- The cell wall, the central vacuole, and plastids such as chloroplasts.
- Students should understand how these structures are related to the differences between animal and plant functions.

Fungal cells contain a cell wall that is not made of cellulose and may have several nuclei within a single cell.

Extended Knowledge

Teachers may choose to have students analyze and interpret data regarding differences between eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells beyond what is presented above and the evolutionary history of eukaryotic cells (endosymbiosis).

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.4

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2B Organisms and their parts are made of cells. Cells are the structural units of life and have specialized substructures that carry out the essential functions of life. Viruses lack cellular organization and therefore cannot independently carry out all of the essential functions of life.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2B.3 Obtain information to contrast the structure of viruses with that of cells and to explain, in general, why viruses must use living cells to reproduce.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *obtain and evaluate scientific information* to contrast the structure of viruses with that of cells, and to explain why viruses must use living cells to reproduce. Therefore the primary focus of assessment is for students to *construct explanations of phenomena using (1) primary or secondary scientific evidence* in order to contrast viruses with cellular life in terms of structure and function.. This could include, but is not limited to reading about viruses in an appropriate scientific text and writing a summary that compares and contrasts viruses with cellular life.

In addition to constructing explanations, students should be asked to ask questions and define problems; develop and use models; analyze and interpret data; use mathematic and computational thinking; engage in scientific argument from evidence; obtain, evaluate and communicate information.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Characteristics of living organisms)

Essential Knowledge

A virus is a non-living particle made up of a nucleic acid and either a protein or lipid-protein coat. They cause many diseases in living organisms and are useful tools for genetic research.

- Viruses are extraordinarily small; smaller than prokaryotic cells.
- Viruses do not have cytoplasm or organelles and thus cannot carry out cell functions such as metabolism. They cannot grow by dividing.
- To reproduce, viruses must enter a living cell and use that cell's (the host cell's) ribosomes, enzymes, ATP, and other molecules to reproduce.

Extended Knowledge

Students may obtain, communicate and evaluate information regarding viral infection cycles; bacteriophages, retroviruses, and prions; and diseases caused by viruses.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.8

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2C Transport processes which move materials into and out of the cell serve to maintain homeostasis of the cell.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2C.1 Develop and use models to exemplify how the cell membrane serves to maintain homeostasis of the cell through both active and passive transport processes.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is *to develop and use models* to exemplify how the cell membrane serves to maintain homeostasis of the cell through both active and passive transport processes. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations* to investigate how the cell membrane maintains homeostasis of the cell through both active and passive transport processes. This could include but is not limited to students creating diagrams of a cell in various solutions indicating in which direction molecules and/or water will move across a membrane.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.5 & 7.L.3 (Osmosis and diffusion)

H.C.5 (Solutions, Concentration)

Essential Knowledge

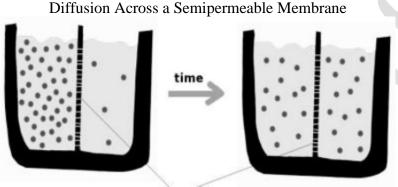
Teacher Note: Indicators H.B.2C1-C3 may be utilized collectively to address the larger concept.

Homeostasis refers to the need for an organism to maintain constant or stable internal conditions. In order to maintain homeostasis, all organisms have processes and structures that respond to stimuli in ways that keep conditions in their bodies conducive for life processes. Homeostasis depends, in part, on appropriate movement of materials across the cell membrane.

- The cell membrane regulates the passage of material into and out of the cell.
- Materials needed for cellular processes must pass into cells so they can be utilized. For example, oxygen and glucose are continuously needed for the process of cellular respiration.
- Waste materials from cellular processes must pass out of cells as they are produced. For example, carbon dioxide is continuously produced within the cell during the process of cellular respiration.
- Each individual cell exists in a fluid environment, and the cytoplasm within the cell also has a fluid environment. The presence of a liquid makes it possible for molecules (such as nutrients, oxygen, and waste products) to move into and out of the cell.
- A cell membrane is *semipermeable (selectively permeable)*, meaning that some molecules can pass directly through the cell membrane while other molecules cannot.
- Materials can enter or exit through the cell membrane by passive transport or active transport.

Passive transport is a process by which molecules move across a cell membrane but do not require energy from the cell. Types of passive transport are diffusion, facilitated diffusion, and osmosis.

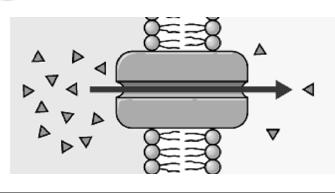
1. *Diffusion* is the spreading out of molecules across a cell membrane until they are equally concentrated. It results from the random motion of molecules and occurs along a *concentration gradient* (molecules move from an area of higher concentration to an area of lower concentration); molecules such as oxygen, carbon dioxide and water that are able to pass directly across the cell membrane can diffuse either into a cell or out of a cell.



Semipermeable Membrane

Image Source: SC Science Academic Standards Support Document 2005

- 2. *Facilitated diffusion* is the process by which some molecules that are not able to pass directly through a cell membrane are able to enter the cell with the aid of *transport proteins*. Facilitated diffusion occurs along a concentration gradient and does not require energy from the cell.
 - Some molecules have chemical structures that prevent them from passing directly through a cell membrane. The cell membrane is not permeable to these molecules.
 - Transport proteins provide access across the cell membrane.
 - Glucose is an example of a molecule that passes through the cellular membrane using facilitated diffusion.
 - Transport proteins provide access across the cell membrane.



Facilitated Diffusion

Image Source: SC Science Academic Standards Support Document 2005

3. *Osmosis* is the diffusion of water molecules through a selectively permeable membrane from an area of greater concentration of water to an area of lesser concentration of water. The diffusion of water molecules is a passive transport process because it does not require the cell to expend energy.

Active transport is another one way that molecules can move through a cell membrane.

- Molecules move against the concentration gradient (from an area of low concentration to an area of high concentration) and require the cell to expend energy.
- Unlike the process of facilitated diffusion, in active transport, molecules are "pumped" across the cell membrane by transport proteins. This pumping process requires an expenditure of chemical energy.
- Because this process does not depend on diffusion, cells can use this process to concentrate molecules within the cell, or to remove waste from a cell.
- Calcium, potassium, and sodium ions are examples of materials that must be forced across the cell membrane using active transport.
- Another process of active transport happens when molecules are too large to pass through a cell membrane even with the aid of transport proteins. These molecules require the use of *vesicles* to help them through the membrane.
 - If the large molecule is passing into the cell, the process is called *endocytosis*.
 - If the large molecule is passing out of the cell, the process is called *exocytosis*.

Extended Knowledge

Students may analyze and interpret data regarding the structure of the cell membrane; the role of aquaporins in osmosis; and the specific mechanisms of active transport function (i.e., sodium-potassium pump, proton pump).

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.2.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2C Transport processes which move materials into and out of the cell serve to maintain homeostasis of the cell.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2C.2 Ask scientific questions to define the problems that organisms face in maintaining homeostasis within different environments (including water of varying solute concentrations).

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students to *ask scientific questions* to define the problems that organisms face in maintaining homeostasis within different environments (including water of varying solute concentrations). Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to ask questions to (1) generate hypotheses for scientific investigations, (2) refine models, explanations, or designs, or (3) extend the results of investigations or challenge scientific arguments or claims* as they relate to the problems different organisms face in maintaining homeostasis within different environments. This could include but is not limited to students generating hypotheses about factors that can impact the maintenance of homeostasis by different kinds of organisms living in different environments, for example a comparison of freshwater and saltwater fish.

In addition to *asking questions*, students should be asked to *plan and carry out investigations*; *analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; develop and use models; and construct devices or define solutions.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.5 & 7.L.3 (Osmosis and diffusion)

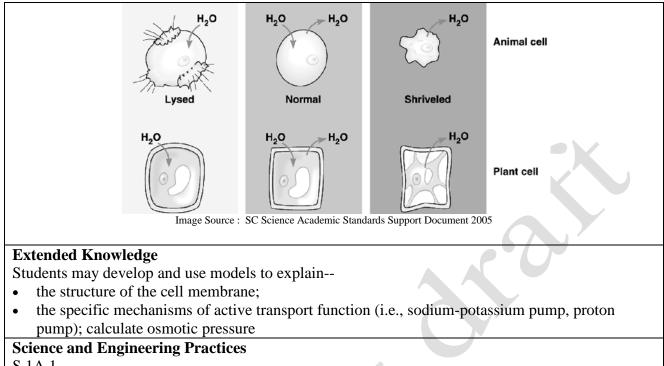
Essential Knowledge

Teacher Note: Indicators H.B.2C1-C3 may be utilized as a collective to address the larger concept.

Diffusion is the spreading out of molecules across a cell membrane until they are equally concentrated. It results from the random motion of molecules and occurs along a *concentration gradient* (molecules move from an area of higher concentration to an area of lower concentration); substances that are able to pass directly across the cell membrane can diffuse either into a cell or out of a cell.

Osmosis is the facilitated diffusion of water molecules through a selectively permeable membrane from an area of greater concentration of water to an area of lesser concentration of water.

- If two solutions with the same solute concentration are separated by a selectively permeable membrane, water molecules will pass through the membrane in both directions at the same rate so the concentration of the solutions will remain constant.
- If cells are placed in solutions that are very different in concentration from that of the cell, the cells may be damaged and even shrivel or burst.



Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2C The essential functions of a cell involve chemical reactions that take place between many different types of molecules (including carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and nucleic acids) and are catalyzed by enzymes.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2C.3 Analyze and interpret data to explain the movement of molecules (including water) across a membrane.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students to *analyze and interpret data* to explain the movement of molecules (including water) across a membrane. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to analyze and interpret data from informational texts and data collected from investigations from a range of methods to reveal patterns and construct meaning to explain the movement of molecules (including water) across a membrane. This could include but is not limited to students using data from hands-on investigations as evidence to construct an explanation of how molecules (including water) move across a membrane.*

In addition to *analyzing and interpreting data*, students should be asked to *ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; develop and use models; and construct devices or define solutions.*

Previous and Future Knowledge:

6.L.5 & 7.L.3 (Osmosis and diffusion)

Essential Knowledge

Teacher Note: Indicators H.B.2C1-C3 may be utilized as a collective to address the larger concept. See the Essential Knowledge sections for H.B.2C1-2.

Extended Knowledge

Students may use mathematical and computational thinking to calculate osmotic pressure.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.4

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2D The cells of multicellular organisms repeatedly divide to make more cells for growth and repair. During embryonic development, a single cell gives rise to a complex, multicellular organism through the processes of both cell division and differentiation.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2D.1 Construct models to explain how the processes of cell division and cell differentiation produce and maintain complex multicellular organisms.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* to explain how the processes of cell division and cell differentiation produce and maintain complex multicellular organisms. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings / diagrams that represent / explain* how the process of cell division and cell differentiation produce and maintain complex multicellular organisms. This could include but is not limited to students drawing a diagram illustrating a stem cell undergoing differentiation into cell types found in that organism based on evidence obtained from informational texts.

In addition, to *develop and use models*, students should be asked to *ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 & 7.L.3 (Unicellular and Multicellular Organisms)

7.L.3 (Levels of Organization)

Essential Knowledge

In the development of most multicellular organisms, a single cell (fertilized egg) gives rise to many different types of cells, each with a different structure and corresponding function.

The fertilized egg gives rise to a large number of cells through *mitotic cell division*, but the process of cell division alone could only lead to increasing numbers of identical cells.

As cell division (cell division is covered in H.B.2D.2) proceeds, the cells not only increase in number but also undergo *differentiation*, a process through which a cell becomes specialized in order to perform a specific function.

The various types of cells (such as blood, muscle, or epithelial cells) arrange into tissues which are organized into organs, and, ultimately, into organ systems.

- Nearly all of the cells of a multicellular organism have exactly the same chromosomes and DNA.
 - During the process of differentiation, only specific parts of the DNA are activated; the parts of the DNA that are activated determine the function and

specialized structure of a cell.

• Because all cells contain the same DNA, all cells initially have the potential to become any type of cell.

Once a cell differentiates, the process cannot be reversed.

Teacher Note: Stem cells are discussed in H.B.2D.4

Extended Knowledge

Students could construct explanations regarding:

- how the process of transcriptional regulation in a cell produces specific proteins that results in cell differentiation.
- how a cell's position in an embryo affects determination.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2D The cells of multicellular organisms repeatedly divide to make more cells for growth and repair. During embryonic development, a single cell gives rise to a complex, multicellular organism through the processes of both cell division and differentiation.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2D.2 Develop and use models to exemplify the changes that occur in a cell during the cell cycle (including changes in cell size, chromosomes, cell membrane/cell wall, and the number of cells produced) and predict, based on the models, what might happen to a cell that does not progress through the cycle correctly.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* to exemplify the changes that occur in a cell during the cell cycle (including changes in cell size, chromosomes, cell membrane/cell wall, and the number of cells produced) and predict, based on the models, what might happen to a cell that does not progress through the cycle correctly. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings / diagrams* and that represent the changes that occur in a cell during the cell cycle (including changes in cell size, chromosomes, cell membrane/cell wall, and the number of cells produced) and predict, based on the models, what might happen to a cell that does not progress through the cycle correctly. This could include but is not limited to students using previously constructed models to evaluate what would happen to a cell if it does not progress through the cell cycle correctly.

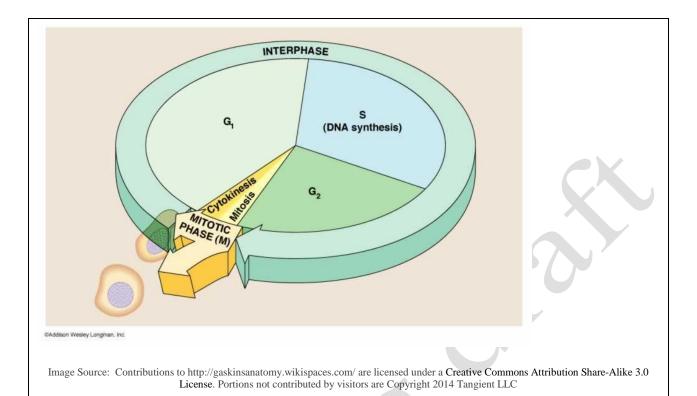
In addition, to *develop and use models*, students should be asked to ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.3 (Asexual and Sexual Reproduction, Cell Structures, Mitosis and Meiosis 7.L.4 (Gametes and Somatic Cells, Chromosomes)

Essential Knowledge

The cell cycle is a repeated pattern of growth and division that occurs in eukaryotic cells. This cycle consists of two phases. The first phase represents cell growth while the last phase represents nucleic division (mitosis) and cytoplasmic division (cytokinesis).



Interphase

- Cells spend the majority of the cell cycle in interphase. The purpose of interphase is for cell growth and preparation for mitosis and cytokinesis. By the end of interphase a cell has two full sets of DNA (chromosomes) and is large enough to begin the division process.
- Interphase is divided into three phases. Each phase is characterized by specific processes involving different structures.
 - During the G1 (gap 1) phase, the cell grows and synthesizes proteins.
 - During the S (synthesis) phase, chromosomes replicate and divide to form identical sister chromatids.
 - During the G2 (gap 2) phase, cells continue to grow and produce the proteins necessary for cell division.

Mitotic Phase (which in includes Mitosis and Cytokinesis)

Mitosis

- The purpose of mitosis is the division of the nucleus; making two identical nuclei, each with the same number of chromosomes.
- The result of mitosis is two identical daughter cells. This is a form of asexual reproduction.
- Mitosis, which follows Interphase, is divided into four phases. Each phase is characterized by specific processes involving different structures.
- The characteristics of the phases of mitosis:

- Prophase
 - Chromosomes condense and are more visible.
 - The nuclear membrane (envelope) disappears.
 - By the end of prophase, the centrosomes (organelles that produce spindle fibers) have separated and have moved to opposite poles of the cell.
 - The formation of the spindle apparatus from the centrosomes.
- *Metaphase* (the shortest phase of mitosis)
 - Chromosomes line up across the middle of the cell.
 - Spindle fibers connect the centromere of each sister chromatid to the poles of the cell.

Chromosome composed of two sister chromatids

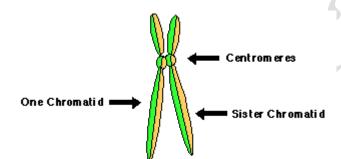
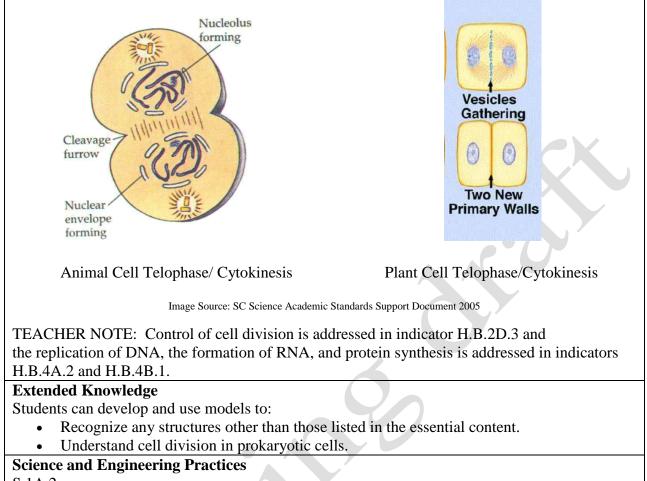


Image Source: SC Science Academic Standards Support Document 2005

- Anaphase
 - Sister chromatids separate.
 - Separated chromatids move to opposite poles of the cell.
- *Telophase* (the last phase of mitosis)
 - Chromosomes (each consisting of a single chromatid) uncoil.
 - A nuclear envelope forms around the chromosomes at each pole of the cell.
 - Spindle fibers break down and dissolve.
 - Cytokinesis begins.
- *Cytokinesis* is the division of the cytoplasm into two individual cells. The process of cytokinesis differs somewhat in plant and animal cells.
 - In animal cells the cell membrane forms a cleavage furrow that eventually pinches the cell into two nearly equal parts, each part containing its own nucleus and cytoplasmic organelles.
 - In plant cells a structure known as a cell plate forms midway between the divided nuclei, which gradually develops into a separating membrane. The cell wall forms in the cell plate.



S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2D The cells of multicellular organisms repeatedly divide to make more cells for growth and repair. During embryonic development, a single cell gives rise to a complex, multicellular organism through the processes of both cell division and differentiation.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2D.3 Construct explanations for how the cell cycle is monitored by check point systems and communicate possible consequences of the continued cycling of abnormal cells.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students to *construct explanations* for how the cell cycle is monitored by checkpoint systems and to communicate possible consequences of the continued cycling of abnormal cells. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct explanations* of how the cell cycle is monitored using checkpoint systems and communicate possible consequences of continued cycling of abnormal cells *using: (1) primary or secondary scientific evidence and models, (2) conclusions from scientific investigations, (3) predictions based on observations and measurements, or (4) data communicated in graphs, tables, or diagrams.* This could include but is not limited to students using evidence from appropriate sources to describe the causes and effects (including consequences) of continued cycling of abnormal cells.

In addition to constructing explanations, students should be asked to ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; develop and use models and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.3 (Human Body Systems)

Essential Knowledge

It is essential for students to understand that the cell cycle is driven by a chemical control system that both triggers and coordinates key events in the cell cycle. The cell cycle control system is regulated at certain checkpoints.

- Proteins regulate the progress of cell division at certain *checkpoints*
- A *checkpoint* in the cell cycle is a critical control point where stop and go signals can regulate the cycle. The cell division mechanism in most animal cells is in the "off" position when there is no stimulus present. Specific stimuli are required to start the processes.
- Other types of control over cell division:
 - Cells respond when they are too closely packed and cell division is turned off.
 - Cells respond when they are not in contact with a surface and cell division is turned on.

If control of the cell cycle is lost, the result may be uncontrolled cell division.

Cancer cells are an example of cells that do not heed the normal signals which shut down the cell

division process; they continue to divide when they are very densely packed and/or if the protein(s) that regulate cell division are not functioning properly due to a mutation.

- Cancer begins when a single cell is transformed into a cancer cell, one that does not heed the regulation mechanism.
- Normally the body's immune system will recognize that the cell is damaged and destroy it, but if it evades destruction, it will continue to divide by mitosis and each daughter cell will be a cancer cell.
 - A mass of these cells that invades and impairs the functions of one or more organs is called a *malignant tumor*.
 - A *benign tumor* is a mass of abnormal cells that remains at the original site.
- Cancer cells may also separate from the original tumor, enter the blood and lymph vessels of the circulatory system, and invade other parts of the body, where they grow to form new tumors.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also ask questions to refine cell cycle models with three specific checkpoints and also refine models to explain chemical control signals, growth factors.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.6

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.2D The cells of multicellular organisms repeatedly divide to make more cells for growth and repair. During embryonic development, a single cell gives rise to a complex, multicellular organism through the processes of both cell division and differentiation.

Performance Indicator

H.B.2D.4 Construct scientific arguments to support the pros and cons of biotechnical applications of stem cells using examples from both plants and animals.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students to *construct scientific arguments* to support the pros and cons of biotechnical applications of stem cells using examples from both plants and animals. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct explanations of phenomena using (1) primary or secondary scientific evidence and models to support* the pros and cons of biotechnical applications of stem cells (from plants and animals) *using evidence and valid reasoning from observations, data, or informational texts*. This could include but is not limited to students using evidence from observations, data and/or informational texts to support the pros of using stem cells for basic medical research.

In addition to *constructing explanations*, students should be asked *to ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; develop and use models;* and *construct devices or define solutions*.

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.4 (Biotechnology)

Essential Knowledge

Stem cells are undifferentiated cells that have two important characteristics:

- 1. They are unspecialized cells that are capable of renewing themselves by cell division.
- 2. Under certain natural or experimental conditions they have the ability to differentiate into one or more types of specialized cells.

Animal stem cells

- Human *embryonic stem cells* are derived from a 5-day old embryo.
 - They have the capacity for long-term self-renewal in laboratory culture.
 - They can develop into any type of specialized cell in the body.
- *Adult stem cells* are undifferentiated cells found in certain organs and differentiated tissues with a limited capacity for both self renewal (in the laboratory) and differentiation.

Stem cells are important to the living organism.

• In 3-5 day old animal embryos they give rise to the entire body of the organism, including all of the many specialized cell types and organs such as the heart, lungs, skin, sperm, eggs, and all other tissues.

- In some adult animal tissues, such as bone marrow, groups of stem cells generate replacements for cells that are lost through normal wear and tear, injury, and disease. Importance uses of stem cell research and biotechnical applications.
 - Scientists use stem cells to study normal growth, development, and differentiation. This research can help to identify the causes of cancer and birth defects that result from abnormal development.
 - Stem cells are currently used to screen new medicines for safety in humans.
 - *Cell-based regenerative therapies* are treatments in which stem cells are induced to differentiate into specific cell types required to repair damaged or destroyed cells or tissues.
 - The demand for organs and tissues needed for transplantation is greater than the supply.
 - Stem cells offer a renewable source of replacement cells and tissues such as:
 - bone tissue from bone marrow cells,
 - spinal cord after injury
 - cells of the pancreas that produce insulin to treat diabetes.

Pros and cons of human embryonic and adult stem cells for cell-based therapies:

- The number of types of cells they can become:
 - Embryonic stem cells can become all of the types of cells in the body.
 - Adult stem cells are thought to be limited to the types of cells in the tissue of origin.
- Ease of growth in laboratory culture.
 - Embryonic stem cells can be easily grown in culture and can divide indefinitely producing large numbers of cells for research.
 - Adult stem cells are difficult to isolate from the original tissue and are difficult to grow in culture.
- Potential for rejection by the human immune system.
 - It is unknown how the immune system might react to embryonic stem cells.
 - Scientists think that adult stem cells are less likely to be rejected by the immune system because a patient's own cells can be used.

Plant stem cells

- Virtually all of a plant's tissues are descended from small groups of stem cells located in the actively growing tips of the roots and shoots.
- Plant stem cells have the capacity to grow into any type of plant organ, tissue, or cell.
- Plant stem cells have the capacity for nearly unlimited self-renewal.
- Many important compounds are derived from plants such as medicines, pigments, perfumes, and insecticides. Stem cell technology offers the potential to produce these chemicals under controlled conditions.

Extended Knowledge

Students may obtain, communicate and evaluate information regarding induced pluripotent stem cells (iPS cells).

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.7 **Standard H.B.3** The student will demonstrate the understanding that all essential processes within organisms require energy which in most ecosystems is ultimately derived from the Sun and transferred into chemical energy by the photosynthetic organisms of that ecosystem.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.3.A Cells transform energy that organisms need to perform essential life functions through a complex sequence of reactions in which chemical energy is transferred from one system of interacting molecules to another.

Performance Indicator

H.B.3.A.1 Develop and use models to explain how chemical reactions among ATP, ADP, and inorganic phosphate act to transfer chemical energy within cells.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is *to develop and use models to explain* how chemical reactions among ATP, ADP, and inorganic phosphate act to transfer chemical energy within cells. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for *students to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations to investigate* how chemical reactions among ATP, ADP and inorganic phosphate act to transfer chemical energy within cells. This could include but is not limited to students drawing the ATP-ADP cycle depicting the storage and release of energy.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.P.3A.1 (Chemical Energy)

H.C.3 (Molecular Structure, Bonding)

Essential Knowledge

Life processes require a constant supply of energy. Cells use energy that is stored in the bonds of certain biological molecules. *Adenosine triphosphate* (ATP) is a molecule that transfers energy from the breakdown of food molecules to cell processes.

Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is the most important biological molecule that supplies energy to the cell. A molecule of ATP is composed of three parts:

• A nitrogenous base (adenine)

• A sugar (ribose)

• Three *phosphate groups* (therefore the name triphosphate) bonded together by "high energy" bonds

The ATP-ADP cycle

• The energy stored in ATP is released when a phosphate group is removed from the molecule. ATP has three phosphate groups, but the bond holding the third phosphate groups is very easily broken.

- When the phosphate is removed, ATP becomes ADP—adenosine diphosphate, a phosphate is released into the cytoplasm and energy is released.
- ADP is a lower energy molecule than ATP, but can be converted to ATP by the addition of a phosphate group.

 $ATP \rightarrow ADP + phosphate + energy available for cell processes$

- To supply the cell with energy, ADP is continually converted to ATP by the addition of a phosphate during the process of cellular respiration. ATP carries much more energy than ADP.
- As the cell requires more energy, it uses energy from the breakdown of food molecules to attach a free phosphate group to an ADP molecule in order to make ATP.

ADP + phosphate + energy from breakdown of food molecules \rightarrow ATP

ATP is consumed in the cell by energy-requiring processes and can be generated by energyreleasing processes. In this way ATP transfers energy between separate biochemical reactions in the cell. ATP is the main energy source for the majority of cellular functions. This includes the synthesis of macromolecules, including DNA and, and proteins. ATP also plays a critical role in the transport of macromolecules across cell membranes, for example during exocytosis and endocytosis (See H.B.2C.)

Extended Knowledge

Students could also develop and use models to compare exergonic (energy-yielding) and endergonic (energy-requiring) reactions or illustrate oxidation-reduction reactions and how electrons are involved in energy transfer (this background helps students to understand how electron transport chains in photosynthesis and cellular respiration work).

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Standard H.B.3 The student will demonstrate the understanding that all essential processes within organisms require energy which in most ecosystems is ultimately derived from the Sun and transferred into chemical energy by the photosynthetic organisms of that ecosystem.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.3.A Cells transform energy that organisms need to perform essential life functions through a complex sequence of reactions in which chemical energy is transferred from one system of interacting molecules to another.

Performance Indicator

H.B.3A.2 Develop and revise models to describe how photosynthesis transforms light energy into stored chemical energy.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students to *develop and revise* models to describe how photosynthesis transforms light energy into stored chemical energy. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations to investigate* how photosynthesis transforms light energy into stored chemical energy. This could include but is not limited to students creating a diagram representing the light dependent and light independent processes of photosynthesis.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Autotrophs and heterotrophs)

6.L.5 (Photosynthesis, Carbon Dioxide, Water and Glucose)

6.P.3A.1 (Chemical Energy, Solar Energy

7.L.3 (Chloroplasts)

H.C.6 (Balancing reactions)

Essential Knowledge

Teacher Note: Chloroplasts are addressed in 7th grade

All organisms need a constant source of energy to survive. The ultimate source of energy for most life on Earth is the Sun. *Photosynthesis*, which occurs in the chloroplast, is the overall process by which solar energy (sunlight) is used to chemically convert water and carbon dioxide into chemical energy stored in simple sugars (such as glucose). This process occurs in two stages.

- The first stage is called the *light-dependent reactions* because they require solar energy.
- Sugars are not made during the light-dependent reactions.
- During the light-dependent reactions, solar energy is absorbed by chloroplasts and two energy-storing molecules (ATP and NADPH) are produced.
- The solar energy is used to split water molecules that results in the release of oxygen as a waste product. The splitting of water molecules allows for the temporary transfer of the solar

energy to electrons released by the broken bonds. This energy is used to make ATP and NADPH.

- The second stage is called the Calvin cycle or the *light-independent reactions* because they do not require solar energy.
- During the Calvin cycle (*light-independent reactions*), carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and energy carried by ATP and NADPH is used to make simple sugars (such as glucose). These simple sugars store chemical energy.

The process photosynthesis is generally represented using a balanced chemical equation. However, this equation does not represent all of the steps that occur during the process of photosynthesis.

Solar energy

 $6CO_2 + 6H_2O \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2$

• In general, six carbon dioxide molecules and six water molecules are needed to produce one glucose molecule and six oxygen molecules.

• The reactants, water and carbon dioxide are input during different stages of the process. Of the reactants water is used during the light dependent reactions and carbon dioxide is used during the Calvin cycle.

• Each of the products (oxygen and glucose) are outputs of different stages of the process. Oxygen is released during the light dependent reactions and glucose is formed during the Calvin cycle.

• Solar energy is needed to split the water molecules.

Extended Knowledge

Students could construct explanations regarding:

- environmental factors that affect photosynthesis (such as light intensity, temperature and carbon dioxide concentration).
- the chemical processes of the Calvin cycle (carbon fixation);
- how the structure of chloroplast is important to the process of photosynthesis (the thylakoid and stroma).
- the synthesis of ATP by chemiosmosis.
- alternative pathways for carbon fixation.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.2

Standard H.B.3 The student will demonstrate the understanding that all essential processes within organisms require energy which in most ecosystems is ultimately derived from the Sun and transferred into chemical energy by the photosynthetic organisms of that ecosystem.

Conceptual Understanding H.B.3.A. Cells transform energy that organisms need to perform essential life functions through a complex sequence of reactions in which chemical energy is transferred from one system of interacting molecules to another.

Performance Indicator

H.B.3A.3

Construct scientific arguments to support claims that chemical elements in the sugar molecules produced by photosynthesis may interact with other elements to form amino acids, lipids, nucleic acids or other large organic molecules.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *construct scientific arguments to support claims* that chemical elements in the sugar molecules produced by photosynthesis may interact with other elements to form amino acids, lipids, nucleic acids or other large organic molecules. Therefore the focus of assessment should be for students to construct and analyze scientific arguments to support claims, explanations, or designs using evidence and valid reasoning from observations, data, or informational texts. This could include but is not limited to students utilizing diagrams of glucose as well as the various macromolecules found in plants to compare how elements rearrange and interact.

In addition to *construct scientific arguments to support claims*, students should ask question, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, use mathematics and computational thinking, construct explanations, obtain, evaluate and communicate information, develop and use models, and construct devices or design solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge:

6.L.4 (Autotrophs and Heterotrophs)
6.L.5 (Photosynthesis, Carbon dioxide, Water and Glucose)
6.P.3A.1 (Chemical Energy, Solar Energy)
7.P.2B.5 (Chemical Reactions and Conservation of Matter)
7.L.3 (Chloroplast)
H.C.3 (Molecular Structure)
H.C.6 (Balancing reactions)

Essential Knowledge

Photosynthesis is the overall process by which solar energy (sunlight) is used to chemically convert water and carbon dioxide into chemical energy stored in simple sugars (such as glucose).

 $\begin{array}{c} Solar \ Energy \\ 6CO_2 + 6H_2O \quad \rightarrow \quad C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \end{array}$

The simple sugars produced by the fixation of atmospheric carbon (from carbon dioxide) are mostly recycled to keep the Calvin cycle (light independent reactions) going. Some of these sugars,

however, are converted to form other carbohydrates such as glucose, starch and cellulose.

Glucose can be used by the cell for energy to make ATP during cellular respiration or it can be converted into starch or cellulose. The sugars produced by photosynthesis also provide carbon skeletons that can interact with elements such as nitrogen, sulfur, and phosphorus to make other organic molecules such as amino acids, lipids or nucleic acids (See H.B.2A.1).

Extended Knowledge

Students may develop and use chemical formulas as models of specific macromolecules other than those listed in the photosynthesis equation.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.7

Standard H.B.3 The student will demonstrate the understanding that all essential processes within organisms require energy, which in most ecosystems is ultimately derived from the Sun and transferred into chemical energy by the photosynthetic organisms of that ecosystem.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.3.A. Cells transform energy that organisms need to perform essential life functions through a complex sequence of reactions in which chemical energy is transferred from one system of interacting molecules to another.

Performance Indicator

H.B.3A.4 Develop models of the major inputs and outputs of cellular respiration (aerobic and anaerobic) to exemplify the chemical process in which the bonds of molecules are broken, the bonds of new compounds are formed and a net transfer of energy results.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students *to develop models* of the major inputs and outputs of cellular respiration (aerobic and anaerobic) to exemplify the chemical process in which the bonds of molecules are broken, the bonds of new compounds are formed and a net transfer of energy results. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models* of the inputs and outputs of cellular respiration (aerobic and anaerobic). This could include but is not limited to students creating a diagram representing the reactants and products of aerobic and anaerobic respiration.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Autotrophs and Heterotrophs, Kingdoms)

6.L.5 (Respiration, Carbon Dioxide, Water and Glucose)

6.P.3A.1 (Chemical Energy)

7.P.2B.5 (Chemical Reactions and Conservation of Matter)

7.L.3 (Mitochondria and Cytoplasm, Bacteria as helpful to organisms and the environment, Human Body Systems)

H.C.6 (Balancing Reactions)

Essential Knowledge

The ultimate goal of *cellular respiration* is to convert the chemical energy in food to chemical energy stored in *adenosine triphosphate (ATP)*. ATP can then release the energy for cellular metabolic processes, such as active transport across cell membranes, protein synthesis, and muscle contraction.

• Any food (organic) molecule, including carbohydrates, fats/lipids, and proteins can be broken down into smaller molecules and then used as a source of energy to produce ATP molecules.

TEACHER NOTE: The structure of ATP molecules and a deeper treatment of its function are addressed in H.B.3A.3

To transfer the energy stored in glucose to the ATP molecule, a cell must break down glucose slowly in a series of steps and capture the energy in stages.

- The first stage is *glycolysis*.
 - In the process of glycolysis a glucose molecule is broken down into pyruvic acid molecules and two ATP molecules.
 - Glycolysis is a series of reactions using enzymes that takes place in the cytoplasm and does not need oxygen.

Glucose pyruvic acid + ATP (small amount)

TEACHER NOTE: Pyruvic acid is a pyruvate molecule that has combined with a hydrogen ion. Many texts use the terms interchangeably.

- If oxygen is available, the two-stage process of *aerobic respiration* occurs, primarily in the mitochondria of the cell.
 - The first stage of aerobic respiration is called the *Krebs cycle*.
 - The pyruvic acid, produced by glycolysis, travels to the mitochondria where it is broken down in a cycle of chemical reactions, from which carbon dioxide and energy (used to form a small number of ATP molecules) are released.

pyruvic acid > carbon dioxide + ATP (small amount)

- The second stage of aerobic respiration is the *electron transport chain*.
 - The electron transport chain is a series of chemical reactions in which energy is transferred to form a large number of ATP molecules.
 - At the end of the chain oxygen enters the process and is combined with hydrogen to form water.

It is essential for students to understand that the process of aerobic respiration is generally represented using a balanced chemical equation. However, this equation does not represent all of the steps that occur during the process of aerobic respiration.

 $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O + energy (ATP)$

- In general, one glucose molecule and six oxygen molecules are needed to produce six carbon dioxide molecules and six water molecules.
- Each of the reactants (glucose and oxygen) is used during different stages of cellular respiration. Glucose is an input of glycolysis and oxygen is an input of the electron transport chain of aerobic respiration.
- Each of the products (carbon dioxide and water) is formed during different stages of the process. Carbon dioxide is released from the Krebs cycle and water is released at the end of the electron transport chain.

- Up to 38 molecules of ATP are made from the breakdown of one glucose molecule: 2 from glycolysis and up to 36 from aerobic respiration.
- Most of the energy released by cellular respiration, that is not used to make ATP, is released in the form of heat.

If no oxygen is available, cells can obtain energy through the process of *anaerobic respiration*. *Fermentation* is an anaerobic process that allows glycolysis (which is also anaerobic) to continue making ATP in the absence of oxygen.

- Fermentation is not an efficient process and results in the formation of far fewer ATP molecules than aerobic respiration.
- Two fermentation processes that occur in many organisms are:
 - *Lactic acid fermentation* occurs, for example, in muscle tissues during rapid and vigorous exercise when muscle cells may be depleted of oxygen. Lactic acid fermentation is also used by bacteria in the production of food products such as yogurt and sauerkraut.
 - The pyruvic acid formed during glycolysis is broken down to lactic acid, and in the process energy is released, which can be used in glycolysis to make ATP.

Glucose \rightarrow Pyruvic acid \rightarrow Lactic acid + energy

• Once oxygen becomes available again, muscle cells return to using aerobic respiration.

TEACHER NOTE: Lactic acid is lactate, that has acquired a hydrogen ion. Many texts use the two interchangeably.

- Alcohol fermentation occurs in many yeasts.
- In this process, pyruvic acid formed during glycolysis is broken down to produce alcohol and carbon dioxide, and in the process energy is released can be used by glycolysis to make ATP.

Glucose \rightarrow Pyruvic acid \rightarrow alcohol + carbon dioxide + energy

TEACHER NOTE: At this point teachers may want to compare the processes of photosynthesis and aerobic respiration. Diagrams that compare and contrast the heterotroph and autotroph cycle could be used.

Extended Knowledge

Students may develop and use models to explain:

- the specific chemical reactions of cellular respiration;
- the role of excited electrons or the mechanism of the electron transport chain in the process of respiration; and
- the role of NADH in respiration or fermentation.

Standard H.B.3 The student will demonstrate the understanding that all essential processes within organisms require energy which in most ecosystems is ultimately derived from the Sun and transferred into chemical energy by the photosynthetic organisms of that ecosystem.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.3.A Cells transform energy that organisms need to perform essential life functions through a complex sequence of reactions in which chemical energy is transferred from one system of interacting molecules to another.

Performance Indicator

H.B.3A.5 Plan and conduct scientific investigations or computer simulations to determine the relationship between variables that affect the processes of fermentation and/or cellular respiration in living organisms and interpret the data in terms of real-world phenomena.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *plan and conduct scientific investigations or computer simulations* to determine the relationship between variables that affect the processes of fermentation and/or cellular respiration in living organisms and interpret the data in terms of real world phenomena. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be *to plan and conduct controlled scientific investigations to answer questions, test hypotheses, and develop explanations: (1) formulate scientific questions and testable hypotheses based on credible scientific information, (2) identify materials, procedures, and variables, (3) use appropriate laboratory equipment, technology, and techniques to collect qualitative and quantitative data, and (4) record and represent data in an appropriate form to determine the relationship between variables that affect the processes of fermentation and/or cellular respiration.*

This could include but is not limited to students conducting an investigation to determine how various factors (amount of sugar, age of yeast, etc.) affect the process of fermentation.

In addition to plan and conduct investigations, students should ask questions; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; develop and use models; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Autotrophs and Heterotrophs, Kingdoms)

6.L.5 (Respiration, Carbon Dioxide, Water and Glucose)

6.P.3A.1 (Chemical Energy)

7.P.2B.5 (Chemical Reactions and Conservation of Matter)

7.L.3 (Mitochondria and Cytoplasm, Bacteria as helpful to organisms and the environment, Human Body Systems)

H.C.6 (Balancing Reactions)

Essential Knowledge

Teacher Note: see H.B.3A.4



Factors that may affect the processes of fermentation or cellular respiration include the presence or absence of oxygen, the amount or type of food molecules available (for example the concentration of sugar), temperature, or type of organism. Organisms that may be investigated include yeast and small aquatic snails.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also obtain, communicate and evaluate information regarding:

- the specific chemical reactions of cellular respiration;
- the role of excited electrons or the mechanism of the electron transport system in the process of respiration; and
- the role of NADH in respiration or fermentation.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.3

Conceptual Understanding H.B.4A. Each chromosome consists of a single DNA molecule. Each gene on the chromosome is a particular segment of DNA. The chemical structure of DNA provides a mechanism that ensures that information is preserved and transferred to subsequent generations.

Performance Indicator H.B.4A.1 Develop and use models at different scales to explain the relationship between DNA, genes, and chromosomes in coding the instructions for characteristic traits transferred from parent to offspring.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* to explain the relationship between DNA, genes, and chromosomes in coding the instructions for characteristic traits transferred from parent to offspring. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for *students to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations to investigate the relationship* among DNA, genes and chromosomes in coding the instructions for characteristic traits transferred from parent to offspring. This could include but is not limited to students creating physical models of DNA, genes and chromosomes that demonstrate the individual structures as well as use evidence from their models to explain how the molecules are related.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge:

7.L.4 (Inherited Traits, Alleles, Genes, Chromosomes, DNA and RNA)

Essential Knowledge

It is essential for students to understand that *DNA*, *genes*, and *chromosomes* compose the molecular basis of heredity.

A *chromosome* is a structure in the nucleus of a cell that consists of one long molecule of *DNA* that is condensed and tightly coiled around associated proteins. Each chromosome consists of hundreds of genes that code for proteins or RNA molecules.

- Each cell in an organism's body contains a complete set of chromosomes. The number of chromosomes varies with the type of organism. For example, humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes; dogs have 39 pairs; and potatoes have 24 pairs.
- One pair of chromosomes in an organism determines the sex (male, female) of the organism; these are known as *sex chromosomes*. All other chromosomes are known as

autosomes. Cells (except for sex cells) contain one pair of each type of chromosome.

• Each pair of chromosomes has genes that code for the same proteins. One chromosome in each pair was inherited from the male parent and the other from the female parent. In this way traits of parents are passed to offspring.

A *gene* is a specific location on a chromosome, consisting of a segment of DNA that codes for a particular protein or RNA molecule that has a function in an organism.

- Genes are cellular units that determine how organisms inherit characteristics from their parents.
- The particular protein or RNA molecules coded by each gene determine the characteristics of an organism.

DNA, which comprises an organism's chromosomes, is considered the "code of life" (genetic code) because it contains the instructions for building each protein that an organism needs.

- DNA provides the blueprint for the synthesis of proteins via the sequence of nucleotides that make up the DNA strand.
- Each individual organism has unique characteristics that arise because of the differences in the *nucleotide sequences* found in the organism's DNA.
- Organisms that are not closely related share fewer genes (nucleotide sequences) than organisms that are more closely related.
- For example red maple trees have many of the same genes as other red maple trees. Furthermore, red maple trees have more genes in common with oak trees than with earthworms.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also construct explanation of the structural and functional relationships between histones and chromosomes along with coding vs. non-coding sequences of the human genome.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.4A. Each chromosome consists of a single DNA molecule. Each gene on the chromosome is a particular segment of DNA. The chemical structure of DNA provides a mechanism that ensures that information is preserved and transferred to subsequent generations.

Performance Indicator

H.B.4A.2 Develop and use models to explain how genetic information (DNA) is copied for transmission to subsequent generations of cells (mitosis).

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* to explain how genetic information (DNA) is copied for transmission to subsequent generations of cells (mitosis). Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations to investigate* how DNA is copied during the process of DNA replication. This could include but is not limited to students creating a 3-D model of DNA and refining it to illustrate the process of DNA replication (resulting in the creating of 2 identical DNA molecules).

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge:

7.L.4 (Inherited Traits, Alleles, Genes, Chromosomes, DNA and RNA) H.C.3 (Bonding)

Essential Knowledge TEACHER NOTE: See H.B.2A.1

TEACHER NOTE: See H.B.2D.2

The process of DNA replication ensures that every new cell that results from mitotic division has identical DNA. Enzymes facilitate the replication process:

- The first enzyme unzips the two strands of DNA that compose the double helix, separating paired bases. Each base that is exposed can only bond to its complementary base.
- Each of the separated strands serves as a template for the attachment of complementary bases, forming a new strand, identical to the one from which it was "unzipped".
- The result is two identical DNA molecules.

Extended Knowledge

Students may obtain, communicate, and evaluate information regarding

• the chemical formula for DNA or RNA,

the difference between pyrimidine bases and purine bases, and •

• the enzymes involved in replication. Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding H.B.4B. In order for information stored in DNA to direct cellular processes, a gene needs to be transcribed from DNA to RNA and then must be translated by the cellular machinery into a protein or an RNA molecule. The protein and RNA products from these processes determine cellular activities and the unique characteristics of an individual. Modern techniques in biotechnology can manipulate DNA to solve human problems.

Performance Indicator H.B.4B.1 Develop and use models to describe how the structure of DNA determines the structure of resulting proteins or RNA molecules that carry out the essential functions of life.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* to describe how the structure of DNA determines the structure of resulting proteins or RNA molecules that carry out the essential functions of life. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations to demonstrate how the structure of DNA determines the structure of resulting proteins or RNA molecules (protein synthesis). This could include but is not limited to students creating a labeled diagram of the process of protein synthesis (transcription and translation) starting with an example DNA molecule.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.4 (DNA and RNA)

Essential Knowledge

When a particular protein is needed, the cell must make the protein through the process of protein synthesis. DNA molecules (which contain the code) do not leave the nucleus of the cell, but protein synthesis must occur on the ribosomes which are located outside of the nucleus in the cytoplasm. Therefore, the code must be carried from the nucleus to the cytoplasm.

Transcription is the process by which a portion of the molecule of DNA is copied into a complementary strand of RNA. The process of transcription:

- 1. Through a series of chemical signals, the gene for a specific protein is turned on.
- 2. An enzyme attaches to the exact location on the DNA molecule where the gene is found.
- 3. The two strands of DNA separate at that location.
- 4. Complementary RNA nucleotides bond to the nitrogenous bases on one of the separated DNA strands.
- 5. The chain of RNA nucleotides forms a single-stranded molecule of RNA by using the DNA strand as a template. This is called *messenger RNA* (mRNA).
- 6. The mRNA strand separates from the DNA molecule, leaves the nucleus and goes through the nuclear membrane into the cytoplasm.
- 7. The two DNA strands rejoin.

Translation is the process by which the genetic message, carried by the mRNA, is used to assemble a protein.

- The mRNA attaches to a ribosome, which contains proteins and *ribosomal RNA* (rRNA). The function of ribosomes is to assemble proteins according to the genetic message (Refer to H.B.2.B.1).
- Each three-base nucleotide sequence on the mRNA is called a *codon*. Each codon specifies a particular amino acid that will be used to build the protein molecule. For example, if the DNA sequence was GAC, then the RNA sequence becomes CUG (transcription) and the amino acid that is coded is Leucine (translation).

TEACHER NOTE: mRNA codons for specific amino acids (the genetic code) can be found in tables in most textbooks.

- Another type of RNA, *transfer RNA* (tRNA), brings amino acids to the ribosome in the order specified by the codon sequence on the mRNA. At one end of each tRNA is the *anticodon*, a region that consists of three nucleotide bases that are complementary to the codon of mRNA. The other end of the tRNA molecule binds to the specific amino acid that is determined by the mRNA codon.
- The translation process takes place as follows:
 - 1. The anticodon of the tRNA, with its attached amino acid, pairs to the codon of the mRNA, which is attached to a ribosome.
 - 2. When a second tRNA with its specific amino acid pairs to the next codon in sequence, the attached amino acid breaks from the first tRNA and is bonded to the amino acid of the second tRNA.
 - 3. The ribosome forms a peptide bond between the amino acids, and an amino acid chain begins to form.
 - 4. The empty tRNA moves off and picks up another matching amino acid from the cytoplasm in the cell.
 - 5. This sequence is repeated until the ribosome reaches a stop codon on the mRNA, which signals the end of protein synthesis.

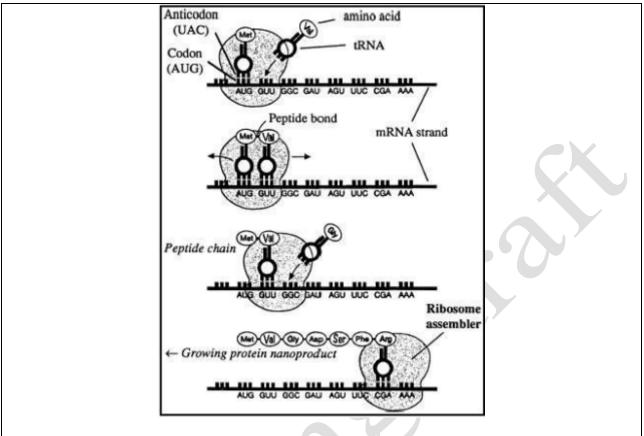


Image Source: SC Science Academic Standards Support Document 2005

RNA plays an important role in protein synthesis but it can also have other functions in the cell.

- mRNA is essential to the process of transcription, tRNA is essential to the process of translation, and rRNA makes up the ribosomes in which translation takes place.
- RNA is also responsible for many other tasks.
 - Many types of RNA have been found to be function as enzymes in biochemical reactions.
 - In eukaryotes, there are kinds of RNA that help regulate *gene expression* and modify yet other types of RNA.
 - In prokaryotes, RNA is involved in a wide range of processes, from determining the ability to cause disease to regulation of bacterial growth.
- New forms and functions of RNAs continue to be discovered.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also develop and use models to illustrate:

- the details of the processes of transcription and translation, other than that described above,
- the termination of transcription, in terms of alteration of the mRNA ends and RNA splicing,
- the enzymes involved in the process of protein synthesis, and
- the names and specific functions of various types of non-coding RNA (for example, small

nuclear RNAs, micro RNAs, small interfering RNAs and catalytic RNA). Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.4B In order for information stored in DNA to direct cellular processes, a gene needs to be transcribed from DNA to RNA and then must be translated by the cellular machinery into a protein or an RNA molecule. The protein and RNA products from these processes determine cellular activities and the unique characteristics of an individual. Modern techniques in biotechnology can manipulate DNA to solve human problems.

Performance Indicator

H.B.4B.2 Obtain, evaluate and communicate information on how biotechnology (including gel electrophoresis, plasmid-based transformation and DNA fingerprinting) may be used in the fields of medicine, agriculture, and forensic science.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *obtain, evaluate and communicate information* on how biotechnology (including gel electrophoresis, plasmid-based transformation and DNA fingerprinting) may be used in the fields of medicine, agriculture, and forensic science. Therefore the primary focus of assessment should be for *students to obtain and evaluate scientific information to (1) answer questions, (2) explain or describe phenomena, (3) develop models, (4) evaluate hypotheses, explanations, claims, or designs or (5) identify and/or fill gaps in knowledge regarding the ways in which biotechnology may be used in the fields of medicine, agriculture and forensic science. Additionally, students should be able to effectively communicate the different ways biotechnology can be used in these fields using the conventions and expectations of scientific writing by evaluating grade-appropriate primary or secondary scientific literature. This could include but is not limited to, given a scenario, students can recognize the applications of DNA fingerprinting in forensic science and effectively communicate these uses via a short written paragraph.*

In addition to *obtain, evaluate and communicate information,* students should be asked to *ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; and construct devices or define solutions.*

Previous and Future Knowledge:

7.L.4 (DNA and RNA, Biotechnology, Selective Breeding, Genetic Engineering, and Biomedical Research)

Essential Knowledge

Biotechnology utilizes biological processes, organisms, cells or cellular components to develop new technologies. New tools and products developed by biotechnologists are useful in research, agriculture, industry and the medicine.

Genetic Engineering is the process of manually adding new DNA to an organism.

- The goal is to add one or more new traits that are not already found in that organism.
- Genetic engineering is accomplished by taking specific genes from one organism and placing them into another organism.
- Genetic engineering is possible because the genetic code is shared by all organisms.
- Examples of genetically engineered products currently on the market include human insulin

produced by genetically modified bacteria, plants with resistance to some insects, plants that can tolerate herbicides.

• An organism that is generated through genetic engineering is considered to be a genetically modified organism (*GMO*).

Techniques used to manipulate DNA

- *Restriction enzymes* are used to cut DNA at precise locations.
 - Because it is a very long molecule, DNA needs to be cut into smaller pieces to facilitate studying and working with it.
 - Restriction enzymes are enzymes that cut DNA at particular nucleotide sequences.
 - Each of the many restriction enzymes cuts DNA at a different restriction site.
- *Gel electrophoresis* is used to separate segments of DNA according to length.
 - After DNA has been cut with a restriction enzyme, the pieces must be separated from one another.
 - For gel electrophoresis, an electric current is applied to a small tray containing a flat slab of gelatin. One end of gel is positively charged and the other is negatively charged.
 - A solution of cut-up DNA is placed in the negative end of the gel. Because DNA has a negative charge, the segments are pulled to the positive end of the gel. Small pieces move through the gel faster than large pieces.
 - A dye is used to be able to see the DNA on the gel slab. Clumps of DNA made up of a certain length segment appear on the gel as bands or lines.
 - Scientists can use the pattern of bands to identify the location of a gene or in DNA fingerprinting.
- DNA fingerprinting
 - A genome is the complete genetic material contained within an individual organism.
 - Except for in identical twins, every person's genome (DNA sequence) is unique.
 - The specific patterns of bands produced by gel electrophoresis create a DNA fingerprint.
 - Because the probability of two individuals having the same DNA fingerprint is extremely small, it provides compelling forensic evidence and can also provide evidence of family relationships .
- Bacterial *plasmids* are used to create *recombinant DNA*
 - *Recombinant DNA* is DNA that contains genes from more than one organism.
 - A bacterial plasmid is a tiny ring of DNA carried in the cytoplasm. They are separate from the bacteria's chromosome and replicate on their own inside the cell.
 - A restriction enzyme is used to cut a desired gene from a strand of "foreign" DNA (i.e from a different organism than the bacteria from which the plasmid was taken). An example of a desired gene is the human gene that codes for the protein hormone insulin.
 - The circular bacterial plasmid is cut with the same restriction enzyme.
 - The piece of foreign DNA, with the desired gene, is attached to the open ends of the plasmid DNA. The plasmid and the foreign DNA are bonded together to form recombinant DNA.
 - In the insulin example, the plasmid could be reintroduced into bacterial cells, which would then multiply rapidly and produce insulin in large amounts and at low cost.

Extended Knowledge

Students may obtain, communicate, and evaluate information regarding biological the function of restriction enzymes in bacteria, polymerase chain reaction, restriction maps, and comparisons between genetic engineering and selective breeding.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.8

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.4C Sex cells are formed by a process of cell division in which the number of chromosomes per cell is halved after replication. With the exception of sex chromosomes, for each chromosome in the body cells of a multicellular organism, there is a second similar, but not identical, chromosome. Although these pairs of similar chromosomes can carry the same genes, they may have slightly different alleles. During meiosis the pairs of similar chromosomes may cross and trade pieces. One chromosome from each pair is randomly passed on to form sex cells resulting in a multitude of possible genetic combinations. The cell produced during fertilization has one set of chromosomes from each parent.

Performance Indicator

H.B.4C.1 Develop and use models of sex cell formation (meiosis) to explain why the DNA of the daughter cells is different from the DNA of the parent cell.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* of sex cell formation (meiosis) to explain why the DNA of the daughter cells is different from the DNA of the parent cell. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models that represent or use simulations to investigate* why the DNA of the daughter cells is different from the DNA of the parent cell. This could include but is not limited to students developing a model to illustrate the sources of genetic variation to include crossing over and independent assortment in meiosis I. Additionally, students could use previously developed models of crossing over and independent assortment to explain sources of genetic variation.

In addition to *develop and use models*, students should be asked to *ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information;* and *construct devices or define solutions.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.5 and 7.L.3 (Asexual and Sexual Reproduction)

7.L.4 (DNA and RNA, Mitosis and Meiosis, Somatic and Gametic Cells)

Essential Knowledge

The process of of *meiosis* and is essential to sexual reproduction just as mitosis is to asexual reproduction (see H.B.2D.2). Sexual reproduction requires the fusion of *gametes* or sex cells (*fertilization*). In order for the offspring produced from sexual reproduction to have cells that are *diploid* (containing two sets of chromosomes, one set from each parent), the egg and sperm cells (gametes) must be *haploid* (contain only one of each type of chromosome). The division resulting in a reduction in chromosome number is called *meiosis*.

Meiosis occurs in two steps:

• *Meiosis I*, in which the homologous chromosome pairs separate, results in two haploid *daughter cells* with duplicated chromosomes different from the sets in the original diploid

cell.

• *Meiosis II*, in which the duplicated chromosomes from Meiosis I separate, resulting in four haploid daughter cells called *gametes*, or sex cells (eggs and sperm), with single (unduplicated) chromosomes.

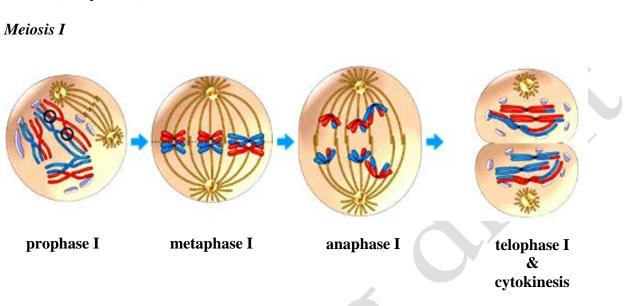


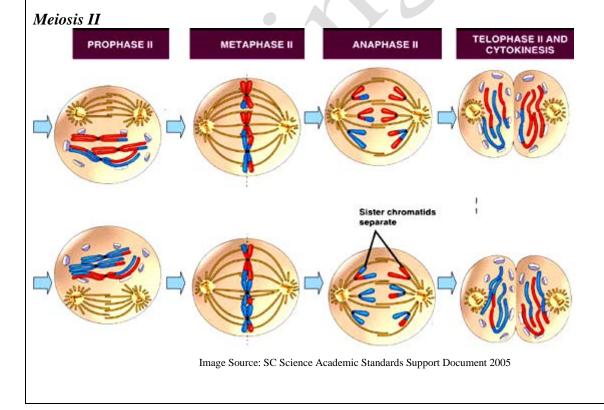
Image Source: SC Science Academic Standards Support Document 2005

Interphase precedes Meiosis I. (For information on Interphase see H.B.2D.2

- Prophase I
 - The nuclear membrane breaks down during prophase I.
 - The duplicated chromosomes condense and homologous chromosomes pair up. A *homologous* chromosome pair consists of two chromosomes containing the same type of genes. One chromosome in the pair is contributed by the organism's male parent, the other chromosome in the pair is contributed by the organism's female parent.
 - As in mitosis, each chromosome consists of two *identical sister chromatids* attached at a point called the *centromere*.
 - Because the homologous chromosome pairs very close to one another, an exchange of chromosome genetic material between pairs occurs in a process called *crossing over*.
 - Crossing over causes the daughter cells to have DNA that is different (different gene combinations) from the original parent cell.
- Metaphase I
 - The paired homologous chromosomes are aligned along the equator of the cell with one chromosome of a pair on one side and one chromosome of a pair on the other side.
 - Each pair is randomly oriented in terms of whether the paternal or maternal chromosome is on a given side of the equator.
 - The result is that 23 chromosomes, some from the mother and some from the father are lined up on each side of the equator. This arrangement is called *independent*

assortment and also causes the daughter cells to have DNA that is different from the original parent cell.

- Anaphase I
 - The homologous chromosome pairs separate and move to opposite poles of the cell.
 - Each daughter cell will receive only one chromosome from each homologous chromosome pair.
 - o Sister chromatids remain attached to each other.
- Telophase I & Cytokinesis
 - Chromosomes gather at the polesand cytokinesis begins.
 - Cytokinesis occurs at the end of telophase I; the chromosomes become diffuse and the nuclear membrane reforms
 - Each of the two daughter cells at the end of meiosis I contains only one chromosome (consisting of two sister chromatids) from each parental pair, and are therefore *haploid*.
 - Each daughter cell from meiosis I proceeds to undergo meiosis II.



- Prophase II
 - The nuclear membrane breaks down.
- Metaphase II
 - Chromosomes, made up of two sister chromatids, line up across the center of the cell.
- Anaphase II
 - The chromosomes separate so that one chromatid from each chromosome goes to each pole.
- Telophase II & Cytokinesis
 - The nuclear membrane reforms around each set of chromosomes.
 - The cell undergoes cytokinesis.
 - The four resulting daughter cells are still haploid (as they were at the end of meiosis I) because meiosis II is almost identical to mitosis.

The DNA of the daughter cells produced by meiosis is different from that of the parent cells due to three sources of genetic diversity provided by sexual reproduction and meiosis:

- 1. Fertilization combines the genetic material of two genetically unique individuals (the two parents.
- 2. Crossing-over produces new combinations of genes.
- 3. Independent assortment allows for the possibility of about 8 million different combinations of chromosomes that could end up in a cell produced by meiosis.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also develop and use models to explain the process of gametogenesis, the maturing of gametes, including oogenesis and spermatogenesis.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.2

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.4.C Sex cells are formed by a process of cell division in which the number of chromosomes per cell is halved after replication. With the exception of sex chromosomes, for each chromosome in the body cells of a multicellular organism, there is a second similar, but not identical, chromosome. Although these pairs of similar chromosomes can carry the same genes, they may have slightly different alleles. During meiosis the pairs of similar chromosomes may cross and trade pieces. One chromosome from each pair is randomly passed on to form sex cells resulting in a multitude of possible genetic combinations. The cell produced during fertilization has one set of chromosomes from each parent.

Performance Indicator

H.B.4C.2 Analyze data on the variation of traits among individual organisms within a population to explain the patterns in the data in the context of transmission of genetic information.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *analyze data* on the variation of traits among individual organisms within a population to explain the patterns in the data in the context of transmission of genetic information. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to analyze and interpret data from informational texts and data collected from investigations to (1) reveal patterns and construct meaning, (2) support or refute hypotheses, explanations, or claims or (3) evaluate the strength of conclusions with regards to the variation of traits among individual organisms within a population to explain the patterns in the data in the context of transmission of genetic information. This could include but is not limited to collecting data on the distribution of one or more traits among the students in the classroom, then plotting the data to examine patterns.*

In addition to *analyzing data*, students should be asked *to ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; develop and use models; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information;* and *construct devices or design solutions*.

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.4 (Inherited Traits; Incomplete Dominance and Codominance)

Essential Knowledge

TEACHER NOTE: Teachers should review the vocabulary and notation (learned in middle school) of basic Mendelian genetics: *dominant, recessive, heterozygous, homozygous, genotype, phenotype*. Teachers might also review how to set up a basic monohybrid Punnett square but it is not recommended that students spend a lot of time working Punnett square problems. Rather, lessons should emphasize the biology represented by Punnett squares.

Many inherited traits of result from modes of inheritance that differ from a strict dominant and recessive relationship. Phenotypes can result from alleles with a range of dominance; from the combined affects of more than one gene, or from genes that have more than just two alleles within a population.

Scientists study the patterns of trait (phenotypic) variation within families and populations in order determine how genes are inherited. to Y Х **Multiple** Alleles and Polygenic Traits X XX XY • Multiple alleles can exist for a particular trait even though Х XX XY only two alleles are inherited.

• For example, three alleles exist for blood type (A, B,

- and O), which result in four different blood groups.
- Polygenic traits are traits that are controlled by two or more genes. These traits often show a great variety of phenotypes, e.g. skin color.

Sex-Linked Traits

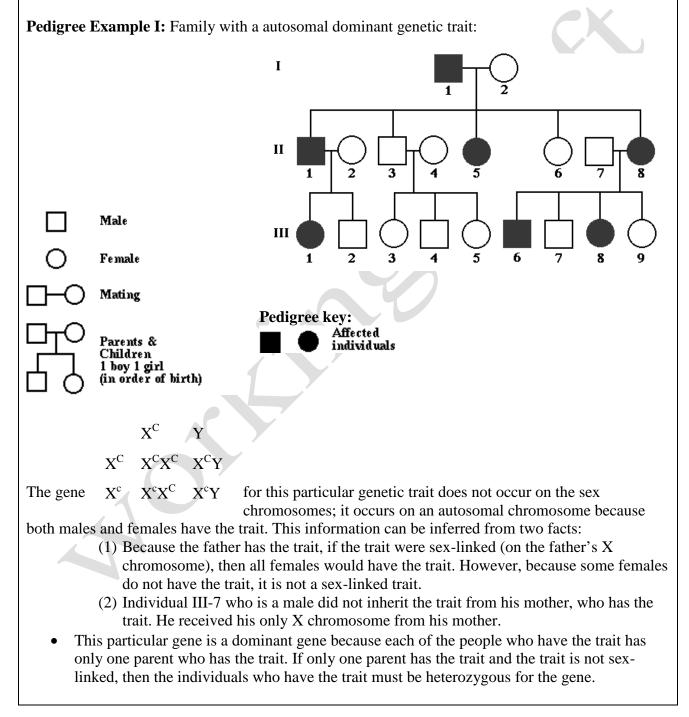
- Sex-linked traits are the result of genes that are carried on either the X or the Y • chromosome.
- In organisms that undergo sexual reproduction, one pair of chromosomes (the sex chromosomes) determines the sex of the organism.
 - The pair of sex chromosomes in females consists of two X chromosomes, each 0 carrying the same genes; the pair of sex chromosomes in males consists of one X chromosome and one Y chromosome.
 - During meiosis I, when chromosome pairs separate, each gamete from the female parent receives an X chromosome, but the gametes from the male parent can either receive an X chromosome or a Y chromosome.
- A Punnett square for the cross shows that there is an equal chance of offspring being male (XY) or female (XX).
- In humans, the Y chromosome carries very few genes; the X chromosome contains a number of genes that affect many traits. Genes on sex chromosomes are called sex-linked genes. Sex-linked genes are expressed differently from an autosomal gene.
 - If a gene is linked on the X chromosome (X-linked),
 - female offspring will inherit the gene as they do all other chromosomes (X from the father and X from the mother). The principles of dominance will apply.
 - Male offspring will inherit the gene on their X chromosome, but not on the Y chromosome.
 - Since males have one X chromosome, they express the allele whether it is dominant or recessive; there is no second allele to mask the effects of the other allele.
 - For example, the trait for color blindness is located on the X chromosome:
 - X chromosomes carrying a gene for normal vision can be coded X^{C}
 - X chromosomes carrying a gene for color-blindness can be coded X^c •

 - Y chromosomes that all lack this gene can be coded Y Only offspring that have the X^{C} gene will have normal vision.
 - Hemophilia is a disesase caused by a sex-linked gene.

• In rare cases, a female can express the sex-linked, recessive trait.

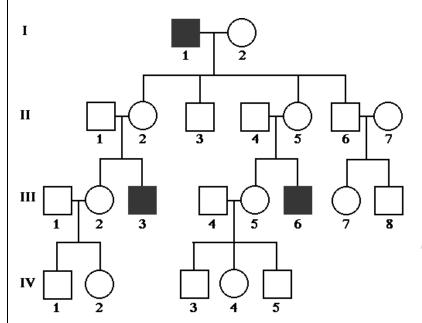
Pedigrees

A *pedigree* is a chart constructed to show an inheritance pattern (trait, disease, disorder) within a family through multiple generations. Through the use of a pedigree chart and key, the genotype and phenotype of the family members and the genetic characteristics (dominant/recessive, sex-linked) of the trait can be tracked.



Pedigree Example II

(Family with a recessive sex-linked genetic trait)



- The gene for this particular trait is sex-linked and recessive. This information can be inferred because only males have the trait.
- This is common in X-linked, recessive traits because females who receive the gene for the trait on the X chromosome from their fathers also receive an X chromosome from their mothers which hides the expression of the trait.
- The trait skips a generation.
- In generation II, all of the offspring receive an X chromosome from their mother.
 - Because the males only receive the X chromosome from their mother, they do not receive the gene carrying the trait.
 - Because the females receive an X chromosome from their mother and father, they are heterozygous and do not express the recessive trait, but they are carriers.
- In generation III, the offspring of all of the females from generation II have a 50/50 chance of passing a trait-carrying gene to their children.
 - If the males receive the trait-carrying gene, they will express the trait.
 - o If the females receive the trait-carrying gene, they will again be carriers.

Patterns of trait distributions in populations

- Discontinuous traits have distinct categories with no "in-betweens".
 - Discontinuous traits are controlled by variation in one gene.
 - Examples in humans are detached earlobes, hitchhiker's thumb, mid-digital hair (hair is present on digits distal to knuckles), cross left thumb over right (common tendency is to cross left thumb over right when clasping hands together).
 - Sex is also a discontinuous trait.
 - A histogram plotted for discontinuous traits exhibit two peaks, one representing one

trait and another representing the other trait.

- *Continuous traits* have no distinct categories; rather, there is a wide variety which covers a broad spectrum.
 - A continuous trait is determined by multiple genes (polygenic), such as height or hair color.
 - A continuous trait that has many categories of individuals.
 - The shape of histogram plotted for a continuous trait, such as height, may look like a bell curve: the majority of data points are near the average, with fewer and fewer data points as you move away from the average.

Some human traits are affected by the environment.

- Biological sex and blood type are not affected by the environment.
- Other traits like hair color, skin color, and height can be affected by the environment.
- Most traits are influenced by both genetic and environmental factors.
- Some disorders such as certain types of cancer or even psychiatric disorders are traits that are both genetic and environmental because we see evidence that they run in families and because we know we can modify them by changing the environment.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.4

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.4.C Sex cells are formed by a process of cell division in which the number of chromosomes per cell is halved after replication. With the exception of sex chromosomes, for each chromosome in the body cells of a multicellular organism, there is a second similar, but not identical, chromosome. Although these pairs of similar chromosomes can carry the same genes, they may have slightly different alleles. During meiosis the pairs of similar chromosomes may cross and trade pieces. One chromosome from each pair is randomly passed on to form sex cells resulting in a multitude of possible genetic combinations. The cell produced during fertilization has one set of chromosomes from each parent.

Performance Indicator

H.B.4C.3 Construct explanations for how meiosis followed by fertilization ensures genetic variation among offspring within the same family and genetic diversity within in populations of sexually reproducing organisms.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *construct explanations* for how meiosis followed by fertilization ensures genetic variation among offspring within the same family and genetic diversity within in populations of sexually reproducing organisms. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct explanations* of how genetic variation is introduced in the same family and for how genetic diversity is created within populations of sexually reproducing organisms *using* (1) primary or secondary scientific evidence and models, (2) conclusions from scientific investigations, (3) predictions based on observations and measurements, or (4) data communicated in graphs, tables, or diagrams. This could include but is not limited to students viewing a picture of a number of phenotypically diverse individuals of the same population, such as Monarch butterflies, and explain how meiosis and fertilization contributed to this diversity.

In addition to *construct explanations*, students should be asked *to ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; engage in argument from evidence; obtain, evaluate and communicate information; develop and use models; and construct devices or design solutions.*

Previous and Future Knowledge:

6.L.5 and 7.L.3 (Asexual and Sexual Reproduction)

7.L.4 (Gene Mutations, Mitosis and Meiosis)

Essential Knowledge

Teacher Note: Indicators H.B.4.C1 & C3 may be utilized as a collective to address the larger concept.

Populations of sexually reproducing species generally have much greater genetic diversity than do populations of asexually reproducing species.

Sexual Reproduction

Sexual reproduction requires the fusion of gametes (fertilization) and uses the process of meiosis to create haploid gametes. Offspring produced by sexual reproduction are different from the parents because new gene combinations result from fertilization followed by the process of meiosis (See

H.B.4C.1).

Asexual Reproduction

Asexual reproduction does not involve the union of gametes (fertilization) and, therefore, only one parent produces offspring that are genetically identical to the parent.

- Genetic variability can occurs only through mutations in the DNA passed from parent to offspring.
- Asexual reproduction is accomplished by cell division: binary fission in prokaryotes and mitosis in eukaryotes.
- Examples of asexual reproduction are budding, fragmentation, and vegetative propagation.
- The asexual reproduction rate is much higher than sexual reproduction, so mutation, though rare, can produce genetic diversity in an asexually reproducing population.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.6

Conceptual Understanding H.B.4D. Imperfect transmission of genetic information may have positive, negative, or no consequences to the organism. DNA replication is tightly regulated and remarkably accurate, but errors do occur and result in mutations which (rarely) are a source of genetic variation.

Performance Indicator H.B.4D.1 Develop and use models to explain how mutations in DNA that occur during replication (1) can affect the proteins that are produced or the traits that result and (2) may or may not be inherited.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is *to develop and use models* to explain how mutations in DNA that occur during replication (1) can affect the proteins that are produced or the traits that result and (2) may or may not be inherited. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams and 3-D models to represent or use simulations to demonstrate* how mutations in DNA that occur during replication can affect the proteins that are produced or the traits that result and may or may not be inherited. This could include but is not limited to students manipulating a 2-D or 3-D representation of DNA through various mutations and comparing the proteins/traits that are produced as a result of the mutations.

In addition to develop and use models, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge:

7.L.4 (Gene Mutations, Inherited Traits, Somatic and Gametic Cells)

Essential Knowledge

A *mutation* is the alteration of an organism's DNA. Mutations can range from a change in one base pair to the insertion or deletion of large segments of DNA. Mutations can result from a malfunction during the processes of mitosis or meiosis or from exposure to a physical or a chemical agent, a mutagen.

Most mutations are automatically repaired by the organism's enzymes and therefore have no effect. However, when the mutation is not repaired, the resulting altered chromosome or gene structure is then passed to all subsequent daughter cells of the mutant cell, which may have negative, positive or no consequences for the cell, organism, or future generations.

- If the mutant cell is a body cell (somatic cell), the daughter cells can be affected by the altered DNA, but the mutation will not be passed to the offspring of the organism. Body cell mutations can contribute to the aging process or the development of many types of cancer.
- If the mutant cell is a gamete (sex cell), the altered DNA will be transmitted to the embryo and may be passed to subsequent generations. Gamete cell mutations can result in *genetic disorders*.

• If the mutation affects a single gene, it is known as a *gene mutation*.

 For example, the genetic basis of sickle-cell disease is the mutation of a single nucleotide base pair in the gene that codes for one of the proteins of hemoglobin. Other examples of genetic disorders caused by gene mutations are Tay-Sachs disease, Huntington's disease, Cystic fibrosis, Hemophilia A or albinism.
• If the mutation affects a group of genes or an entire chromosome, it is known as a <i>chromosomal mutation</i> .
 Malfunction during meiosis can result in a gamete with an abnormal number of chromosomes.
 Examples of abnormalities in humans due to an abnormal number of sex chromosomes are Klinefelter's syndrome (male) and Turner's syndrome (female).
 An example of an abnormality in humans due to an abnormal number of autosomal chromosomes (refer to H.B.4A.1) is Down's syndrome.
In some cases mutations are beneficial to organisms. Beneficial mutations are changes that may be useful to organisms in different or changing environments. These mutations result in phenotypes that are favored by natural selection and will eventually increase in frequency in a population.
Gene mutations that occur during replication.
 May or may not affect the production or function of the protein for which the gene codes.
 A point mutation is the substitution, addition, or removal of a single nucleotide. In a substitution mutation, one nucleotide replaces another.
 The new codon may or may not signal the insertion of the wrong amino acid. Sometimes the insertion of the wrong amino acid does not affect protein function because the change occurs in a part of the protein that is not near the active site, or it does not significantly change the protein's structure (shape). The deletion or addition or a nucleotide causes all subsequent codons to be misread so
are likely to have a disastrous effect on the protein's function.
Extended Knowledge
Students may analyze and interpret data to explain:
• the exact characteristics of the nondisjunction mutation abnormalities listed above, and
• the mechanism through which somatic mutations can cause various cancers.
Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Standard H.B.5 The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.1 Summarize the process of natural selection.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is for students to *summarize* the process of natural selection. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be to *construct explanations* using major points about the principles of natural selection. This could include but is not limited to students *using evidence to describe* the fate of a particular species given a scenario of environmental change, *to compare* microevolution and macroevolution, and *to explain* how changes in the environment may result in the appearance or disappearance of particular traits.

In addition to the above, students should be asked to *ask questions, develop and use models, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, engage in scientific argument from evidence, and obtain, communicate and evaluate information.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.4A.1 (Genotype, Phenotype, Inherited)

Essential Knowledge

Biological evolution is a scientific framework that analyzes how heritable traits change in frequency within a population over time. These traits include physical characteristics (morphology), molecular sequences (genetic and proteomic), and behavioral traits to describe changes that have transformed life on Earth from the earliest beginnings to the diversity of organisms in the world today. Biological evolution is the unifying theme of biology and can occur on a small time and spatial scale affecting a single population (*microevolution*) or when those small changes accumulate over vast lengths of time producing noticeable changes in species (*macroevolution*).

One mechanism that produces biological evolution is *natural selection* (the other mechanisms are genetic drift, mutation and gene flow). *Natural selection* results in changes in frequency in the inherited traits of a population over time and occurs when different traits of the individual members of a population result in those organisms dealing either more or less effectively with the current environment than the other members of the population. In comparison, *artificial selection* is when humans select which traits are preferred and intentionally breed organisms for a particular set of characteristics (e.g. how modern dog breeds such as the Great Dane or the Chihuahua were developed from their wolf ancestors). In the case of natural selection, if the environment remains stable for multiple generations, a population's fitness (the ability of organisms to survive and reproduce) will increase over time as those advantageous traits become more and more common and honed. If the environment changes however, then different traits are likely to be advantageous. There are four pre-requisites that must be in place in order for natural selection to occur:

- 1. Overproduction of Offspring
 - Most species produce more offspring than the environment can support, so some individuals will not be able to reach their full potential for reproduction.
 - The ability of a population to produce many offspring raises the chance that some will survive but also increases the competition for resources.

2. Variation

- Fundamental to the process of natural selection is genetic variation upon which selective forces can act in order for evolution to occur.
- Within every population, there are *inherited traits* that show variability among individuals.
- This variation is seen in the different phenotypes (body structures and characteristics) of the individuals within a population.
- An organism's phenotype may influence its ability to find, obtain, or utilize its resources (food, water, shelter, and oxygen) and also might affect the organism's ability to reproduce.
- Phenotypic variation is determined by the organism's genotype and by the environment.
 - Those individuals with phenotypes that do not interact well with the environment are more likely to either die or produce fewer offspring than those that can interact well with the environment.

3. Adaptation

- The process of *adaptation* leads to the increase in frequency of a particular structure, physiological process, or behavior in a population of organisms that makes the organisms better able to survive and reproduce.
 - Individuals with inherited traits that are beneficial in that environment become more common.
 - As each generation progresses, those organisms that carry genes that hinder their ability to meet day to day needs become less and less common in the population.
 - Organisms that have a harder time finding, obtaining, or utilizing, food, water, shelter, or oxygen will be less healthy and more likely to die before they reproduce or produce less viable or fewer offspring.
 - In this manner, the gene pool of a population can change over time.
- The concept of *fitness* is used to measure how a particular trait contributes to reproductive success in a given environment and results from adaptations.
 - Natural selection has sometimes been popularized under the term *survival of the fittest*.
- 4. Descent with modification
 - As the environment of a population changes, the entire process of natural selection can yield populations with new phenotypes adapted to new conditions.
 - Natural selection can produce populations that have different structures, live in different niches or habitats from their ancestors. Each successive living species will have descended, with adaptations or other modifications, from previous generations.
 - More individuals will have the successful traits in successive generations, as long as those traits are beneficial to the environmental conditions of the organism.

Extended Knowledge

Students may obtain, communicate, and evaluate the history of the significant scientific contributions to the study of natural selection and also compare different types of natural selection (directional, stabilizing, disruptive, sexual).

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.6

Standard H.B.5. The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.2 Explain how genetic processes result in the continuity of life-forms over time.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *explain* how genetic processes result in the continuity of lifeforms over time; therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students to *obtain*, *evaluate and communicate information* regarding how sexual and asexual reproduction allow for the continuity of life-forms through the passing on of genetic material. This could include but is not limited to students *answering questions* about the similarities between organisms that live today with those that lived in the past; *contrasting* the results of sexual and asexual reproduction; and *making claims using evidence* about how sexual and asexual reproduction ensure that genetic material is passed to offspring allowing for the continuity of life-forms.

In addition to the above, students should be asked to *ask questions; develop and use models, plan and carry out investigations; construct explanations;* and *engage in scientific argument from evidence.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.5 & 7.L.3 (Asexual and Sexual Reproduction)

Essential Knowledge

The continuity of life-forms on Earth is based on an organism's success in passing genes to the next generation. Many organisms that lived long ago resemble those still alive today because the same genetic processes have passed along the genetic material of life. The continuity of life-forms over time is due to the genetic processes that all organisms share.

• All living things that have ever existed on Earth, share at least the two structures: (1) Nucleic acids (RNA or DNA) that carry the genetic code for the synthesis of the organism's proteins

(2) Proteins (composed of the same twenty amino acids in all life forms on Earth)

• The process by which nucleic acids code for proteins (transcription and translation) is the same in all life forms on Earth. The same sequences of nucleotides code for the same specific amino acids.

All organisms have a reliable means of passing genetic information to offspring through reproduction. The reproductive processes of organisms, whether sexual or asexual, result in offspring receiving genetic information from the parent or parents, though there may be some genetic variability.

Sexual Reproduction

In sexual reproduction, two parents contribute genetic information to produce unique

offspring. Sexual reproduction uses the processes of meiosis (to create gametes) and fertilization to produce offspring that have new combinations of alleles that are different from those of the parents.

- Sexual reproduction is an important source of genetic variation among individuals within a population.
- The inheritance of allele combinations that result in traits that improve an individual's chance of survival or reproduction ensures the continuity of that life form over time.

Asexual Reproduction

Asexual reproduction generates offspring that are genetically identical to a single parent.

- Examples of asexual reproduction are budding, fragmentation, and vegetative propagation.
- The asexual reproduction rate is much higher than sexual reproduction and produces many individual offspring that are suited to continuing life in the present environment.
- Asexual reproduction may have a disadvantage in changing conditions because genetically identical offspring respond to the environment in the same way. If a population lacks traits that enable them to survive and reproduce, the entire population could die off.

The genetic view of evolution includes the transfer of the genetic material through these processes of reproduction. The continuity of a species is contingent upon these genetic processes.

Extended Knowledge

Students may develop and use models to illustrate examples of sexual and asexual life cycles.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.8

Standard H.B.5 The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.3 Explain how diversity within a species increases the chances of survival.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *explain* how diversity within a species increases the chances of its survival; therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be to *obtain evaluate, and communicate scientific information to* (1) *answer questions,* (2) *explain or describe phenomena,* (3) *develop models,* (4) *evaluate hypotheses, explanations, claims, or designs or* (5) *identify and/or fill gaps in knowledge* regarding how variability in species affects reproductive success and adaptation to its environment. This could include but is not limited to students using *information to make and support claims* that *summarize* the ways that diversity affects a species chances of survival; *exemplify* favorable traits that ensure reproductive success or species survival; *infer* the fate of a particular species in the face of a specific environmental change based on the degree of diversity of its members; or *compare* the chances of two species to survive in the face of a specific environmental change based on the degree of diversity among the members of each group.

In addition to *obtain evaluate, and communicate scientific information,* students should also be asked to *ask questions, develop and use models, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, construct explanations, and engage in scientific argument from evidence.*

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.L.4A.1 (Genotype, Phenotype, Inherited traits)

Essential Knowledge

A *species* is a population or group of populations whose members have the potential to interbreed and produce fertile offspring in nature.

- Because of interbreeding among individuals, species share a common *gene pool* (all genes, including all the different alleles, possessed by all of the individuals in a population).
- Because of the shared gene pool, a genetic change that occurs in one individual can spread through the population as that individual and its offspring mate with other individuals.
- If the genetic change increases fitness, it will eventually be found in many individuals in the population.

Within a species, variability of phenotypic traits leads to diversity among individuals of the species. The greater the diversity within a population or species, the greater the chances are for that population or species to survive environmental changes.

If an environment changes, organisms that have phenotypes which are well-suited to the new environment will be able to survive and reproduce at higher rates than those with less favorable

phenotypes. Therefore, the alleles associated with favorable phenotypes increase in frequency and become more common and increase the chances of survival of the species.

- Favorable traits (such as coloration or odors in plants and animals, competitive strength, courting behaviors) in male and female organisms will enhance their reproductive success.
- Organisms with inherited traits that are beneficial to survival in its environment become more prevalent. For example, resistance of the organism to diseases or ability of the organism to obtain nutrients from a wide variety of foods or from new foods.
- Organisms with inherited traits that are detrimental to survival in its environment become less prevalent.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also obtain, communicate, and evaluate information regarding speciation and reproductive isolation.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.8

Standard H.B.5. The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.4 Explain how genetic variability and environmental factors lead to biological evolution.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *explain* how genetic variability and environmental factors lead to biological evolution; therefore, the primary focus of assessment should *obtain, evaluate, and communicate information* regarding how the factors influencing genetic variability, speciation, and processes of evolution due to environmental changes can lead to the evolution of a species over time. This could include but is not limited to students *developing a model based on information obtained from informational texts* to compare gradual and mass extinction. Students may also *summarize* the factors influencing genetic variability in a population; *summarize* the Hardy-Weinberg principle; *explain* the process of speciation; and *summarize* the patterns of macroevolution.

In addition to *obtain, evaluate, and communicate information,* students should also be asked to *ask questions, develop and use models, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, construct explanations, and engage in scientific argument from evidence.*

Previous and Future Knowledge:

8.E.6A (Earth's History) 8.E.6B (Natural Selection)

Essential Knowledge

Genetic variation is random and ensures that each new generation results in individuals with unique genotypes and phenotypes. This *genetic variability* is a prerequisite to biological evolution.

Factors that influence genetic variability within a population may be:

- *Genetic drift* is the random change in the frequency of alleles of a population over time. Due to chance, rare alleles in a population will decrease in frequency and become eliminated; other alleles will increase in frequency and become fixed. The phenotypic changes may be more apparent in smaller populations than in larger ones.
- *Gene flow* is the movement of genes into or out of a population. This occurs during the movement of individuals between populations (such as migration) thus increasing the genetic variability of the receiving population.
- *Non-random mating* limits the frequency of the expression of certain alleles.
- *Mutations* increase the frequencies and types of allele changes within the population.
- *Natural selection* allows for the most favorable phenotypes to survive and thus be passed on to future generations.

When there is no change in the allele frequencies within a species, the population is said to be in *genetic equilibrium*. This concept is known as the *Hardy-Weinberg principle*. Five conditions that are required to maintain genetic equilibrium are:

• The population must be very large, no genetic drift occurs.

- There must be no movement into or out of a population.
- There must be random mating.
- There must be no mutations within the gene pool.
- There must be no natural selection.

Speciation is the process of forming of a new species by biological evolution from a preexisting species.

- New species usually form when organisms in the population are isolated or separated so that the new population is prevented from reproducing with the original population, and its gene pools cease to blend.
- Once isolation (reproductive or temporal, behavioral, geographic) occurs, genetic variation and natural selection increase the differences between the separated populations.
- As different traits are favored in the two populations (original and new) because of isolation, the gene pools gradually become so different that they are no longer able to reproduce. At this point the two groups are by definition different species.

Some observed *patterns of macroevolution* are: *Adaptive radiation/Divergent evolution*

- In adaptive radiation (divergent evolution), a number of different species diverge (splitoff) from a common ancestor.
- This occurs when, over many generations, organisms (whose ancestors were all of the same species) evolve a variety of characteristics which allow them to survive in different niches.

Coevolution

• With coevolution, when two or more species living in close proximity change in response to each other. The evolution of one species may affect the evolution of the other.

Extinction

- Extinction is the elimination of a species often occurring when a species as a whole cannot adapt to a change in its environment. This elimination can be gradual or rapid.
- *Gradual extinction* usually occurs at a slow rate and may be due to other organisms, changes in climate, or natural disasters. Speciation and gradual extinction occur at approximately the same rate.
- *Mass extinction* usually occurs when a catastrophic event changes the environment suddenly (such as a massive volcanic eruption, or a meteor hitting the earth causing climatic changes). It is often impossible for a species to adapt to rapid and extreme environmental changes.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also use mathematical and computational thinking to calculate allele frequencies for a particular sample of a population using the precepts of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.8

Standard H.B.5 The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.5 Exemplify scientific evidence in the fields of anatomy, embryology, biochemistry, and paleontology that underlies the theory of biological evolution.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *exemplify* scientific evidence in the fields of anatomy, embryology, biochemistry, and paleontology that underlies the theory of biological evolution. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct explanations* using (1) primary or secondary scientific evidence and models, (2) conclusions from scientific investigations, (3) predictions based on observations and measurements, or (4) data communicated in graphs, tables, or diagrams.to give or use examples of how the fields of anatomy, embryology, biochemistry, and paleontology that underlies the theory of biological evolution provide evidence that supports the change in species over time. This could include but is not limited to students inferring relationships among organisms based on primary and secondary evidence from each field of science listed. Students may also be asked to *identify* fields of science that provide evidence for biological evolution; *illustrate* evidence for biological evolution using pictures, diagrams, or words; or *summarize* the ways that each field of science listed provides evidence for evolutionary relationships.

In addition to *construct explanations*, students should also be asked to *ask questions*, *develop* and use models, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, engage in scientific argument from evidence, and obtain, evaluate and communicate information from evidence.

Previous and Future Knowledge:

8.E.6A (Earth's History) 8.E.6B (Natural Selection)

Essential Knowledge

Scientific studies in the fields of anatomy, embryology, biochemistry, and paleontology have all contributed scientific evidence for the theory of evolution.

Field of Anatomy

The field of *anatomy* (the study of the structures of organisms) provides one type of data for the support of biological evolution.

- Scientists consider *homologous structures* as evidence of an evolutionary relationship between two groups of organisms (for example two species or two families).
 - Organisms that have diverged from a common ancestor often have *homologous structures* (similar characteristics resulting from common ancestry). The greater the numbers of shared homologous structures between two species, the more closely the species are related.
 - Many species have *vestigial organs* (structures with little or no function to the organism) that are remnants of structures that had important functions in

ancestors of the species. The vestigial organs of one species are often homologous with structures in related species for which the structure has remained functional.

• The study of the anatomy also reveals that species living in different locations under similar ecological conditions may evolve similar structures and behaviors. Such structures, called *analogous structures*, are not evidence of evolution because they do not result from shared ancestry.

Field of Embryology

The field of *embryology* (the study of the embryonic development of organisms) provides another type of data for the support of biological evolution by comparing the anatomies of embryos (an early stage—pre-birth, pre-hatching, or pre-germination—of organism development).

- Sometimes similarities in patterns of development or structures that are not obvious in adult organisms become evident when embryonic development is observed.
- The embryos of vertebrates are very similar in appearance early in development but may grow into different structures in the adult form.

These similar structures of these embryos may suggest that these species evolved from common ancestors.

Field of Biochemistry

The field of *biochemistry* (the study of the chemical processes in organisms) studies genes and proteins to provide support for biological evolution.

- The more similar the DNA and amino acid sequences in proteins of two species, the more likely they are to have diverged from a common ancestor.
- Biochemistry provides evidence of evolutionary relationships among species when anatomical structures may be hard to use. For example,
 - when species are so closely related that they do not appear to be different, or
 - when species are so diverse that they share few similar structures.

Field of Paleontology

Paleontology (the study of prehistoric life) is another tool that scientists use to provide support for biological evolution.

- The fossil record provides valid evidence of life forms and environments along a timeline and supports evolutionary relationships by showing the similarities between current species and ancient species.
- The fossil record is not complete because most organisms do not form fossils. Many of the gaps in the fossil record have been filled in as more fossils have been discovered.
- The older the fossils, the less resemblance there is to modern species.

Extended Knowledge

Students may also construct explanations of the process of relative, absolute, or radiometric dating or explanations of how fossils are formed.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.6

Standard H.B.5. The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.6 Summarize ways that scientists use data from a variety of sources to investigate and critically analyze aspects of evolutionary theory.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *summarize* ways that scientists use data from a variety of sources to investigate and critically analyze aspects of evolutionary theory. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be to *construct and analyze scientific arguments to support claims, explanations, or designs using evidence and valid reasoning from observations, data, or informational texts* regarding how scientists in the fields of anatomy, embryology, paleontology, and biochemistry have used data to develop a picture of the process of evolutionary theory. This could include but is not limited to students *using evidence to support claims* about how analogous and homologous structures provide for evolutionary relationships, how the fossil record has challenged scientists in paleontology, and how biochemists use DNA evidence to show evolutionary relationships. In addition to *summarize*, assessments may require students to *compare the evidence* within the fields that scientists use to critically analyze evolutionary ancestry.

In addition to *construct and analyze scientific arguments*, students should also be asked to *ask questions*, *develop and use models*, *plan and carry out investigations*, *analyze and interpret data*, *construct explanations*, and *obtain*, *evaluate and communicate information from evidence*.

Previous and Future Knowledge: 8.E.6A (Earth's History)

8.E.6B (Natural Selection)

Essential Knowledge

Scientists study data from a variety of fields to determine the *phylogeny* (evolutionary history) of a species or a group of related species. Evolutionary theory is supported by this large body of data, The central ideas of evolution are that life has a history — it has changed over time — and that different species share common ancestors.

. Evidence of the shared history is found in all aspects of living and fossil organisms (physical features, structures of proteins, sequences found in RNA and DNA). Scientists must use multiple sources of evidence in drawing conclusions concerning the evolutionary relationship among groups of organisms.

For example:

Field of Anatomy:

- Phylogenies can be constructed by assuming that anatomical differences increase with time. The greater the anatomical similarity, the more recently a pair of species shares a common ancestor.
 - The accumulation of evolutionary differences over time is called divergence. (see B-5.7)
 - o Anatomical structures that share a common evolutionary history but not

necessarily the same function are termed homologous. (see B-5.5)

- Evolutionary biologists make observations on as many anatomical structures as possible to construct phylogenies.
- Sometimes individual structures may suggest evolutionary relationships that differ from the bulk of the evidence. This may result from *convergence*.
 - Convergence occurs when organisms with different evolutionary histories adapt to similar environments.
 - Anatomical structures that have different evolutionary origins but similar functions are said to be analogous. (see B-5.4)

Field of Embryology:

Characters of embryonic development allow scientists to reconstruct the phylogenies of highly divergent taxa, such as phyla and classes, that may have evolved so many anatomical differences that they are difficult to compare otherwise.

Field of Biochemistry:

- Phylogenies can be constructed by assuming that differences in DNA, proteins, and other molecules increase over time. The greater the overall genetic similarity, the more recently a pair of species shares a common ancestor.
- The time since a pair of species has diverged can be estimated under the assumptions of a "molecular clock."
- Even though a comparison of the DNA sequences of two species provides some of the most reliable evidence, there are challenges inherent in this approach as well.
 - Because genes evolve at different rates, it may be difficult for scientists to identify the molecules that yield information about the group of organisms at the scale under study.
 - Different assumptions about the details of molecular evolution can yield different phylogenetic trees. (see B-5.7)
 - Natural selection can cause convergence in molecules, just as it causes convergence in anatomical structures. (see B-5.1)

Field of Paleontology:

- The fossil record provides information regarding the dates and order of divergence for phylogenies.
- *Transitional fossils* (fossils that show links in traits between groups of organisms used to document intermediate stages in the evolution of a species) confirm evolutionary relationships.
- The primary challenge for using the fossil record as a map of evolutionary history is that the record is incomplete.
 - Even though millions of fossils have been discovered by scientists, many environmental conditions must be met in order for a fossil to form, and the

chance of all of these conditions coming together at one time is rare.

- The fossil record favors the preservation of species that existed for a long time, were abundant and widespread, and had hard shells or skeletons.
- Gaps in the fossil record do not indicate weakness in the evolutionary theory, but rather point out opportunities for additional research. Fossils that allow scientists to fill gaps in the record are continually being discovered.

Students should also understand that one piece of evidence does not ensure an accurate picture of the history of the evolution of a particular group of organisms, but as scientists collect many pieces of evidence from many fields, the reliability of a particular hypothesis becomes greater and greater.

The more evidence scientists can gather from different fields of science, the more reliable their information becomes in regards to evolutionary relationships. The evolutionary theory is a well-tested explanation that accounts for a wide range of observations made by scientists in many fields of science. No scientist suggests that all evolutionary processes are understood; many unanswered questions remain to be studied and analyzed.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.7

Standard H.B.5. The student will demonstrate an understanding of biological evolution and the diversity of life.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.5. is derived from 2005 B-5 which had no conceptual understanding.

Performance Indicator

H.B.5.7 Use a phylogenetic tree to identify the evolutionary relationships among different groups of organisms.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *use* a phylogenetic tree to identify the evolutionary relationships among different groups of organisms. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be to use the phylogenetic tree to understand or represent the evolutionary relationships among species. This could include but is not limited to students using the phylogenetic tree to *classify* organisms according to evolutionary relationships, *infer* the evolutionary relationships among groups represented, and *explain* why organisms would be placed at various positions on a phylogenetic tree based on given scientific data.

In addition to *using models* (the phylogenetic tree), students should also students should also be asked to *ask questions, analyze and interpret data, construct explanations,* and *obtain, evaluate and communicate information from evidence.*

Previous and Future Knowledge:

8.E.6A (Earth's History) 8.E.6B (Natural Selection)

Essential Knowledge

A *phylogenetic tree* is a scientific diagram that biologists use to represent the phylogeny (evolutionary history of a species) of organisms. It classifies organisms into major *taxa* (groups) based on evolutionary relationships. Phylogenetic trees are used to classify species in the order in which they descended from a common ancestor using physical characteristics. Speciation could be thought of as a branching of a family tree then extinction is like the loss of one of the branches.

• Some phylogenetic trees only express the order of divergence of a species. They do not attempt to show relative or absolute time frames.

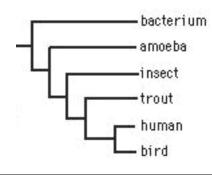


Image Source: 2005 Science Standards Support Document

• Some phylogenetic trees indicate an estimated time of divergence. The tree below shows the relative time that species diverged.

 \circ The branch between humans and whales is almost at the top of the line, while the branch between birds and tyrannosaurs happens about midway up the line, indicating that birds and tyrannosaurs diverged much sooner than humans and whales diverged.

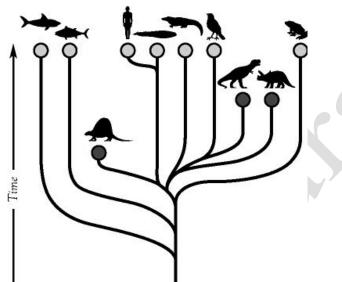


Image Source: 2005 Science Standards Support Document

From phylogenetic trees, the following information can be determined:

- Which groups are most closely related?
- Which groups are least closely related?
- Which group diverged first (longest ago) in the lineage?

One of the main challenges to the classification of the Earth's biodiversity is that species are becoming extinct at an increasing pace. As knowledge of biodiversity increases, revisions to taxonomic systems are continually being proposed. Biologists regularly revise the many branches of the phylogenetic tree to reflect current hypotheses of the evolutionary relationships between groups. Additionally, information gained from DNA sequencing has contributed resulted in many revisions of phylogenetic hypotheses.

The most recent classification scheme includes

- Three domains (Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya)
- Six kingdoms (Eubacteria, Archaebacteria, Protista, Fungi, Plantae, and Animalia).

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Standard H.B.6 The student will demonstrate an understanding that ecosystems are complex, interactive systems that include both biological communities and physical components of the environment.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.6.A. Ecosystems have carrying capacities, which are limits to the numbers of organisms and populations they can support. Limiting factors include the availability of biotic and abiotic resources and challenges such as predation, competition, and disease.

Performance Indicator

H.B.6.A.1 Analyze and interpret data that depict changes in the abiotic and biotic components of an ecosystem over time or space (such as percent change, average change, correlation and proportionality) and propose hypotheses about possible relationships between the changes in the abiotic components and the biotic components of the environment).

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *analyze and interpret data* that depict changes in the abiotic and biotic components of an ecosystem and to propose hypotheses about possible relationships between the changes in the abiotic and biotic components of the ecosystem. Therefore, the primary focus of this assessment should be to *analyze and interpret data from informational texts and data collected from investigations using a range of methods (such as tabulation, graphing, or statistical analysis) to 1) reveal patterns and construct meaning, 2) support or refute hypotheses, explanations, claims or designs or 3) evaluate the strength of conclusions. This could include but is not limited to students analyzing and interpreting ecological data available online from DataBasin.org (Conservation Biology Institute, Corvallis, Oregon).*

In addition to analyze and interpret data, students should ask questions, plan and carry out investigations, use mathematics and computational thinking, engage in argument from evidence, construct explanations, develop and use models, obtain, evaluate and communicate information, and construct devices or design solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Characteristics of living organisms, Kingdoms)

7.E.5 (Abiotic/biotic factors, Levels of organization in ecosystem, Natural hazards, Limiting factors and climate)

H.E.3 (Components of soil)

H.E.4 (Changes in Earth's environmental conditions)

H.E.6 (Water quality and availability)

Essential Knowledge

An *ecosystem* is defined as a community (all the organisms in a given area) and the abiotic factors (such as water, soil, or climate) that affect them.

- The number of organisms in ecosystems fluctuates over time as a result of mechanisms such as migration, birth and death. These fluctuations are essential for ecosystem stability and characterize the dynamic nature of ecosystems.
- Extreme fluctuations in the size of populations offset the stability of ecosystems in terms of habitat and resource availability.
- Ecosystems can be reasonably stable over hundreds or thousands of years. If a disturbance to the biotic or abiotic components of an ecosystem occurs, the affected ecosystem may return to a system similar to the original one, or it may take a new direction and become a

very different type of ecosystem.

- Ecosystems are not always stable over short periods of time. Changes in climate, migration by an invading species into an ecosystem, and human activity can impact the stability of an ecosystem. Other changes that may impact the stability of an ecosystem include interactions among living organisms such as competition, predation, parasitism and disease (see H.B.6.A.2).
- A change in an abiotic or biotic factor may decrease the size of a population if the population cannot acclimate or adapt to or migrate from the change. A change may increase the size of a population if that change enhances its ability to survive, flourish or reproduce.

A stable ecosystem is one in which

- the population numbers of each organism fluctuate at a predictable rate,
- the supply of resources in the physical environment fluctuates at a predictable rate, and
- energy flows through the ecosystem at a fairly constant rate over time.

Extended Knowledge

Students could engage in scientific arguments from evidence regarding the biogeographic factors that affect the biodiversity of communities.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.4

Standard H.B.6 The student will demonstrate an understanding that ecosystems are complex, interactive systems that include both biological communities and physical components of the environment.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.6.A Ecosystems have carrying capacities, which are limits to the numbers of organisms and populations they can support. Limiting factors include the availability of biotic and abiotic resources and challenges such as predation, competition, and disease.

Performance Indicator

H.B.6.A.2 Use mathematical and computational thinking to support claims that limiting factors affect the number of individuals that an ecosystem can support.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *use mathematical and computational thinking* to support claims that limiting factors affect the number of individuals that an ecosystem can support. Therefore, the primary focus of this assessment should be *to use mathematical and computational thinking to 1*) *use and manipulate appropriate metric units, 2*) express relationships between variables for models and investigations and 3) use grade level appropriate statistics to analyze data to support claims that limiting factors affect the number of individuals that an ecosystem can support. This could include but is not limited to students calculating (through graphing or simulation software) the size of a population over time given its rate of reproduction and access to specific resources.

In addition to using mathematical and computational thinking, students should ask questions, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, engage in argument from evidence, construct explanations, develop and use models, obtain, evaluate and communicate information, and construct devices or design solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Characteristics of living organisms, Kingdoms)

6.L.5 (Saprophytic, parasitic, and symbiotic relationships)

7.E.5 (Abiotic/biotic factors, Natural hazards, limiting factors, climate, Immigration and emigration, Competition, mutualism, commensalism, parasitism, and predator prey relationships, Interdependence)

H.E.3 (Impact of natural disasters)

H.E.4 (Changes in Earth's environmental conditions)

H.E.6 (Water quality and availability)

Essential Knowledge

A *population* is a group of organisms belonging to the same species that live in a particular area. Populations can be described based on their size, density, or distribution. *Population density* is **calculated by dividing the number of individuals in a population by the unit area**. The size of a population is affected by the number of births, the number of deaths, and the number of individuals that enter or leave the population.

Population Growth Models

The *exponential growth model* describes a population that grows at a constantly increasing rate. A graph of exponential growth has a characteristic J-shape. In real populations exponential growth occurs only for limited periods of time when conditions are optimal and resources are unlimited.

The logistic growth model includes the influence of limiting factors on population growth. A graph of logistic population growth has a characteristic S-shape. For example, if food or space becomes limited, a population may exhibit logistic growth following a period of exponential growth.

- *Carrying capacity* is the maximum number of individuals that the environment can support over a long period of time without harming the environment
- A graph of the logistic growth model shows a population first has a phase of rapid, nearly exponential growth. In the second phase, the growth rate slows until the carrying capacity is reached. In the third phase the population has become stable and does not increase nor decrease in size.

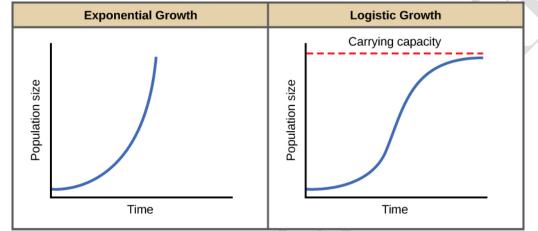


Image Source: www.boundless.com/biology/population-and-community-ecology/environmental-limits-to-population-growth/logistic-growth/

Any factor that slows population growth is called a *limiting factor*. Population growth is regulated by limiting factors that can be density- dependent, density-independent, abiotic or biotic.

Density-dependent factors

Limiting factors that are density-dependent are those that operate more strongly as population density increases. These limiting factors are triggered by increases in population density (crowding). Density-dependent limiting factors include competition, predation, parasitism, and disease.

Density-independent

Limiting factors that are density-independent are those that occur regardless of how dense (crowded) the population may be. These factors reduce the size of all populations in the area in which they occur by the same proportion. Density-independent factors are mostly abiotic such as weather, pollution, and natural disasters (such as fires or floods).

Extended Knowledge

Students may also use mathematical and computational thinking to interpret human population growth and age-structure diagrams.

Science and Engineering Practices

S.1A.5

Standard H.B.6 The student will demonstrate an understanding that ecosystems are complex, interactive systems that include both biological communities and physical components of the environment.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.6B Photosynthesis and cellular respiration are important components of the carbon cycle, in which carbon is exchanged between the biosphere, atmosphere, oceans, and geosphere through chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes.

Performance Indicator

H.B.6B.1 Develop and use models of the carbon cycle, which include the interactions between photosynthesis, cellular respiration and other processes that release carbon dioxide, to evaluate the effects of increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide on natural and agricultural ecosystems.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *develop and use models* of the carbon cycle, which include the interactions between photosynthesis, cellular respiration and other processes that release carbon dioxide, to evaluate the effects of increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide on natural and agricultural ecosystems. Therefore the primary focus for assessment should be for students *to construct 2-D drawings/diagrams or 3-D models* that represent the carbon cycle, to use them to explain ecosystem cycling of carbon, to discuss the limitations of models, and to use models (including computer simulations) to evaluate the effects of increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide. This could include, but is not limited to, using simulations to investigate the effects of increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide on natural and agricultural ecosystems.

In addition to developing and using models, students should be asked to ask questions, plan and carry out investigations, analyze and interpret data, construct explanations, engage in scientific argument from evidence, and obtain evaluate and communicate information.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Autotrophs and heterotrophs)

6.L.5 (Photosynthesis, Respiration and Transpiration, Carbon Dioxide)

H.B.3 (Photosynthesis and Respiration)

H.E.4 (Effects of environmental change on carbon cycle, Altering of geosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere)

Essential Knowledge

All living systems need matter and energy. As energy and matter flow through an ecosystem, matter must be recycled and reused. The cycling of matter and the flow of energy within ecosystems occur through interactions among different organisms and between organisms and the physical environment. Matter fuels the energy-releasing chemical reactions that provide energy for life functions and provides the material for growth and repair of tissue.

The carbon cycle provides an example of the cycling of matter and the flow of energy in ecosystems. Photosynthesis, digestion of plant matter, respiration, and decomposition are important components of the carbon cycle, in which carbon is exchanged between the biosphere, atmosphere, oceans, and geosphere through chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes.

Carbon Cycle

- Carbon is one of the major components of the biochemical compounds of living organisms (proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, nucleic acids).
- Carbon is found in the atmosphere and also in many minerals and rocks, fossil fuels (natural gas, petroleum, and coal) and in the organic materials that compose soil and aquatic sediments.
- Organisms play a major role in recycling carbon from one form to another in the following processes:
 - Photosynthesis: photosynthetic organisms take in carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and convert it to simple sugars.
 - Respiration: organisms break down glucose and carbon is released into the atmosphere as carbon dioxide.
 - Decomposition: when organisms die, decomposers break down carbon compounds that both enrich the soil or aquatic sediments and are eventually released into the atmosphere as carbon dioxide.
 - Conversion of biochemical compounds: organisms store carbon as carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids in their bodies. For example, when consumers eat plants and/or animals, some of the compounds are used for energy; others are converted to compounds that are incorporated into the consumer's body, and yet other compounds, (such as methane and other gases) are released to the atmosphere.
- Other methods of releasing stored carbon may be:
 - Combustion: When wood or fossil fuels (which were formed from once living organisms) are burned, carbon dioxide is released into the atmosphere.
 - Burning large amounts of fossil fuel releases carbon dioxide from a long-term reservoir and increases the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.

Effects of increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide on natural and agricultural ecosystems

- The warming effects of increasing CO2 and other greenhouse gases impact a variety of environmental variables in both natural and agricultural systems.
- Higher temperatures and shifting climate patterns may change the areas where crops grow best and affect the makeup of natural plant communities.
- \circ One of the most consistent effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on plants is an increase in the rate of photosynthetic carbon fixation by leaves. Some crops and other plants may grow more vigorously and use water more efficiently in response to increased atmospheric CO₂.

Extended Knowledge

Students could also analyze and interpret data from diagrams of the biogeochemical cycle and the nitrogen cycle. It is important that students realize that there are cycles for every nutrient that is present in living organisms, and they may also write equations using chemical formulae to represent chemical reactions that characterize the biogeochemical cycles.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.2

Standard H.B.6 The student will demonstrate an understanding that ecosystems are complex, interactive systems that include both biological communities and physical components of the environment.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.6B Photosynthesis and cellular respiration are important components of the carbon cycle, in which carbon is exchanged between the biosphere, atmosphere, oceans, and geosphere through chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes.

Performance Indicator

H.B.6B.2 Analyze and interpret quantitative data to construct an explanation for the effects of greenhouse gases (such as carbon dioxide and methane) on the carbon cycle and global climate.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *analyze and interpret quantitative data* to construct an explanation for the effects of greenhouse gases (such as carbon dioxide and methane) on the carbon cycle and global climate. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students to *analyze and interpret data from informational texts and data collected from investigations to (1) reveal patterns and construct meaning, (2) support or refute hypotheses, explanations, or claims, or (3) evaluate the strength of conclusions regarding the effects of greenhouse gases on the carbon cycle and global climate. This could include but is not limited to students identifying trends, patterns, and relationships within a data set and distinguishing between causation and correlation.*

In addition to analyze and interpret data, students should be asked to ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; develop and use models; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; and construct devices or define solutions.

Previous and Future Knowledge

6.L.4 (Autotrophs and Heterotrophs)

6.L.5 (Photosynthesis and Respiration, Carbon Dioxide)

6.E.2 (Atmospheric layers, Climate)

H.E.4 (Effects of environmental change on the carbon cycle)

H.E.5 (Human impact vs. climate change)

Essential Knowledge

The *greenhouse effect* is the normal warming effect when gases trap heat in the atmosphere. Greenhouse gases do not allow heat to pass through very well. Therefore, the heat that earth releases stays trapped under the atmosphere.

- Solar energy penetrates the Earth's atmosphere and warms its surface.
- Some of this energy is radiated as heat away from the Earth. Some heat escapes into space.
- Some heat is absorbed by greenhouse gases (such as carbon dioxide, oxygen, methane, and water vapor) and returned to Earth.
- The greenhouse effect is a natural and important process that keeps the Earth's surface

warm enough to support life.

- The amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere also cycles in response to the degree to which oceans cover Earth. The salt water of oceans absorbs carbon dioxide and converts it to various salts such as calcium carbonate.
- See H.B.6B.1 for additional information.

The amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere cycles (in part) in response to the degree to which plants and other photosynthetic organisms cover Earth and absorb carbon dioxide.

$\begin{array}{ c c } \hline Amount of \\ CO_2 in the \\ atmosphere \end{array}$	Greenhouse effect	Average Global Temperature	Plant cover on Earth	Rate of photosynthesis	Amount of CO ₂ absorbed by plants	Amount of CO_2 in the atmosphere
higher	increases	Increases	increases	increases	increases	decreases
lower	decreases	decreases	decreases	decreases	decreases	increases

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.4

Standard H.B.6 A complex set of interactions within an ecosystem can keep its numbers and types of organisms relatively stable over long periods of time. Fluctuations in conditions can challenge the functioning of ecosystems in terms of resource and habitat availability.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.6C A complex set of interactions within an ecosystem can keep its numbers and types of organisms relatively stable over long periods of time. Fluctuations in conditions can challenge the functioning of ecosystems in terms of resource and habitat availability.

Performance Indicator

H.B.6C.1 Construct scientific arguments to support claims that the changes in the biotic and abiotic components of various ecosystems over time affect the ability of an ecosystem to maintain homeostasis.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *construct scientific arguments* to support claims that the changes in the biotic and abiotic components of various ecosystems over time affect the ability of an ecosystem to maintain homeostasis. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students *to construct and analyze scientific arguments to support claims* that the changes in the biotic and abiotic components of various ecosystems over time affect the ability of an ecosystem to maintain homeostasis, *using evidence and valid reasoning from observations, data, or informational texts*. This could include but is not limited to students using provided data concerning abiotic and biotic factors and how they have changed over time to construct an argument that claims highly biodiverse ecosystems are more stable compared to less biodiverse ecosystems.

In addition to construct scientific arguments, students should ask questions; plan and carry out investigations; analyze and interpret data; use mathematics and computational thinking; engage in argument from evidence; construct explanations; obtain, evaluate, and communicate information; develop and use models; and construct devices or design solutions.

Essential Knowledge

Homeostasis in an ecosystem is a steady state or dynamic equilibrium, in which conditions are held more or less constant despite changes in biotic or abiotic environmental factors. Ecosystems are dynamic in nature; their characteristics fluctuate over time, depending on changes in the environment and in the populations of various species. Complex interactions within an ecosystem can keep its numbers and types of organisms relatively constant over long periods of time under stable conditions.

If a modest biological or physical disturbance to an ecosystem occurs, it may return to its more or less original status (i.e the ecosystem is resilient), as opposed to becoming a very different ecosystem. Extreme fluctuations in conditions or the size of any population, however, can challenge the functioning of ecosystems in terms of resources and habitat availability. Moreover, anthropogenic changes (i.e. those caused by humans) in the environment—including habitat destruction, pollution, introduction of invasive species, overexploitation, and burning of fossil fuels—can disrupt an ecosystem and threaten the survival of some species.

Ecosystems with a wide variety of species—that is, greater *biodiversity*—tend to be more resilient to change than those with few species. An ecosystem rich in biodiversity will likely be more stable than one in which biodiversity is low. Changing environmental conditions can cause the decline of

local biodiversity. If this happens, an ecosystem's resistance and/or resilience may decline. The end result is that the ecosystem loses stability.

Ecosystems that are less stable may not be able to respond to a normal environmental disturbance, which may damage ecosystem structure, ecosystem function, or both.

An ecosystem displays *resistance* if it keeps its structure and continues normal functions even when environmental conditions change. An ecosystem displays *resilience* if, following a disturbance, it eventually regains its normal structure and function.

A number of factors can easily affect stability in an ecosystem. Examples of changes in ecosystem conditions could include small biological or physical changes, such as the fall of a forest canopy tree or a seasonal flood; or, extreme changes, such as volcanic eruption, fires, climate changes, ocean acidification, or sea level rise.

Ecological succession is the sequence of changes in an ecosystem that regenerate a damaged community or create a community in a previously uninhabited area. There are two types of succession, *primary* and *secondary*.

Primary succession is the development of a community in an area that was previously uninhabited: for example, bare rock surfaces after a recent volcanic eruption, rock faces that have been scraped clean of soil by glaciers, or a city street. The beginning of primary succession depends on the presence of unique organisms that can grow without soil and also facilitate the process of soil formation.

Lichens (mutualistic relationships between fungi and algae) and some mosses, which break down rock into smaller pieces, are among the most important *pioneer species* (the first organisms) in the process of primary succession. At this stage of succession there are the fewest habitats for organisms in the ecosystem.

Secondary succession is the reestablishment of damaged ecosystem in an area where the soil was left intact. Plants and other organisms that remain start the process of regrowth. It is similar to primary succession in the later stages, after soil has already formed.

Succession is a continual process.

- Some stages (and the organisms that compose the communities that characterize these stages) may last for a short period of time, while others may last for hundreds of years.
- Any disturbance to the ecosystem will affect the rate of succession in a particular area. Usually secondary succession occurs faster than primary succession because soil is already present.
 - When disturbances are frequent or intense, the area will be mostly characterized by the species that are present in the early stages of succession.
 - When disturbances are moderate, the area will be composed of habitats in different stages of succession.
- The process of succession occurs in all ecosystems (i.e., forest succession, pond succession, coral reef or marine succession and desert succession).

Extended Knowledge

Students may obtain, communicate and evaluate information regarding the process of soil formation by pioneer species, measures of biodiversity, and how estimates of loss of biodiversity are determined.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1A.7

Standard H.B.6 The student will demonstrate an understanding that ecosystems are complex, interactive systems that include both biological communities and physical components of the environment.

Conceptual Understanding

H.B.6D Sustaining biodiversity maintains ecosystem functioning and productivity which are essential to supporting and enhancing life on Earth. Humans depend on the living world for the resources and other benefits provided by biodiversity. Human activity can impact biodiversity.

Performance Indicator

H.B.6D.1 Design solutions to reduce the impact of human activity on the biodiversity of an ecosystem.

Assessment Guidance

The objective of this indicator is to *design solutions* to reduce the impact of human activity on the biodiversity of an ecosystem. Therefore, the primary focus of assessment should be for students to construct devices or design solutions to reduce the impact of human activity on the biodiversity of an ecosystem using scientific knowledge to solve specific problems or needs: (1) ask questions to identify problems or needs, (2)ask questions about the criteria and constraints of the device or solutions, (3)generate and communicate ideas for possible devices or solutions, (4) build and test devices or solutions, (5) determine if the devices or solutions solved the problem and refine the design if needed, and (6) communicate the results. This could include but is not limited to students researching topics related to human impact on the biodiversity of ecosystems. Based on their research, students generate questions about ecological problems related to the human impact on biodiversity. Students also ask questions about the constraints of possible solutions to human impact. Students generate and communicate ideas for possible solutions to minimize the impact of human activities on biodiversity of that ecosystem. Students justify their proposed solutions, supporting claims with scientific evidence from research and models, refining their solutions as needed. Students communicate their solutions as part of a proposal to minimize the human impact on the particular ecosystem.

Previous and Future Knowledge

7.E.5 (Soil Quality, Non-native and invasive species, Carrying Capacity) **H.E.3** (Human activity vs. natural disasters, Management of natural resources, Human impact vs. climate change, Quality of water vs. nature and human impacts)

Essential Knowledge

Humans depend on the Earth's biodiversity for food, building materials, fuel, medicines and other useful chemicals. Humans also depend on ecosystem resources to provide clean water, breathable air, and soil that can support crops. Properly functioning ecosystems recycle human wastes, including CO2. A loss of biodiversity has long-term effects and can reduce an ecosystem's stability.

Biodiversity or Biological diversity means the full range of variety and variability within and among living organisms. Biodiversity encompasses ecosystem or community diversity, species diversity, and genetic diversity.

Genetic diversity is the combination of different genes found within a population of a single species, and the pattern of variation found within different populations of the same species. Endangered species of pitcher plants in South Carolina have less genetic diversity than do species that are more

common and, therefore, not threatened.

Species diversity is the variety and abundance of different types of organisms that inhabit an area. A ten square mile area of coastal plain contains different species than does a similar sized area in the piedmont.

Ecosystem diversity encompasses the variety of habitats that occur within a region. An example is the variety of habitats and environmental parameters that constitute the South Carolina Lowcountry: beaches, grasslands, forests, wetlands, rivers, estuaries, fresh and salt water.

On land, biodiversity tends to be highest near the equator, due to warm temperatures and high primary productivity. In the oceans, biodiversity is very high along coasts in the Western Pacific, where sea surface temperature is highest.

Threats to biodiversity

- Habitat destruction occurs when humans convert complex natural ecosystems into simplified systems that do not support as many species, such as farmland or urban areas.
 - Tropical rainforests, in particular are threatened by habitat destruction. Currently about 1% of the rain forest biome is lost each year to logging or to clearing for agricultural use.
 - Since the 18th century much wetland habitat in the United States has been destroyed because these areas were previously viewed as waste areas that were not useful to humans.
 - *Habitat fragmentation* occurs when a barrier forms that prevents an organism from accessing its entire home range. Causes of habitat fragmentation include the building of roadways, the harvesting of forests, and urban development. Corridors or land bridges are one solution that can help to maintain continuous tracts of habitat.
- Invasive species: This content was taught in 7th grade (see Non-native and invasive species (7.E.5.) and Three ways humans can respond to invasive species physical, chemical and biological (7.E.5.)).
- Pollution: carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases, human wastes and industrial and agricultural chemicals.
- Human population growth
 - 0
 - Population world-wide has grown exponentially. Based on current trends, scientists predict that the Earth's population will continue to grow at a rapid rate. The natural slowing of population growth as it nears Earth's carrying capacity is due to an increase in the death rate and a decrease in the birth rate as a result of:
 - Water shortages
 - Waste removal and pollution of the environment
 - Food resources and land usage
 - Imbalance of biogeochemical cycles

- As human population increases, loss of habitat and habitat fragmentation reduces biodiversity in areas into which the human population expands.
- Over-harvesting occurs when a resource is consumed at an unsustainable rate. This occurs on land in the form of <u>overhunting</u>, excessive <u>logging</u> which results in deforestation, poor <u>soil conservation</u> in agriculture and the illegal <u>wildlife trade</u>. About 25% of world's <u>fish</u> are now overfished to the point where they cannot be harvested sustainably.

Ecological restoration is the process of assisting the recovery of an ecosystem that has been degraded, damaged or destroyed.

Extended Knowledge

Students may ask questions in regard to measures of biodiversity.

Science and Engineering Practices S.1B.1