

The **NSTA** Quick-Reference Guide to the

NGSS

K-12

Edited by Ted Willard

NSTApress
National Science Teachers Association

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INTRODUCTION

Since the release of the first draft of the *Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS)*, NSTA has been at the forefront in promoting the standards and helping science educators become familiar with and learn to navigate this exciting but complex document. When the final version was released and states began adopting the standards, NSTA started to develop resources that would assist educators with their implementation, including web seminars, virtual conferences, sessions and forums at conferences, books, and the NGSS@NSTA Hub (<http://ngss.nsta.org>)—a digital destination focusing on all things NGSS.

Along the way, NSTA learned that even the simplest of resources, such as a one-page cheat sheet, can be extremely useful. Many of those tools are collected in this volume, including

- a two-page cheat sheet that describes the practices, core ideas, and crosscutting concepts that make up the three dimensions described in *A Framework for K–12 Science Education*;
- an “Inside the NGSS Box” graphic that explains all of the individual sections of text that appear on a page of the NGSS;
- a Venn diagram comparing the practices in NGSS and *Common Core State Standards* in English language arts and mathematics; and
- matrixes showing how the NGSS are organized by topic and by disciplinary core idea.

We’ve also produced tables to describe the various parts of the standards. For example, the performance expectations describe what every student should know and be able to do by the end of a particular grade or grade span. These expectations are designed to assess the material in the foundation box, which includes

- science and engineering practices;
- disciplinary core ideas;
- crosscutting concepts;
- connections to engineering, technology, and applications of science; and
- connections to nature of science.

While summative assessments are required to focus on a particular combination of these components, curriculum developers and classroom teachers have the freedom to mix and match these components in a wide variety of ways. In fact, to learn any particular disciplinary core idea or crosscutting concept, students will need to engage in *multiple* practices in a well-thought-out sequence of learning experiences. The matrixes we developed and include in this book will help educators in their

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planning. There are two different sets of matrixes. The first set shows the K–12 progression of each of the components in the foundation box (e.g., practices, core ideas, or connection to nature of science). These matrixes will help you understand how what students are expected to know and do in each grade span builds on what they have learned in earlier grades and prepares them for what they are expected to learn in later grades.

The second set of matrixes combines all the materials for a particular grade level together. For example, one of the matrixes focuses only on the science and engineering practices that students need to master in grades K–2.

The materials in this book should be a useful companion to the *NGSS*. The educators we have shared them with have found it helpful to photocopy particular pages for participants to use in a workshop or for colleagues to use during planning time.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Production of *A Framework for K–12 Science Education* and the *Next Generation Science Standards* involved the work and contributions of thousands of educators, and I thank them for their efforts. Almost every word in this publication is drawn directly from those two documents, but any errors that appear here are mine. In addition I want to thank those educators involved in developing the documents that preceded NGSS, including the *Atlas of Science Literacy*, *National Science Education Standards*, *Benchmarks for Science Literacy*, and *Science for All Americans*. Finally, I thank the many educators working to make the vision of science literacy for all a reality for their students. This book is for you.

CHAPTER 2

K–12 Progressions

Science and Engineering Practices: Asking Questions and Defining Problems

A practice of science is to ask and refine questions that lead to descriptions and explanations of how the natural and designed world works and which can be empirically tested. Engineering questions clarify problems to determine criteria for successful solutions and identify constraints to solve problems about the designed world. Both scientists and engineers also ask questions to clarify ideas.

K-2 Condensed Practices	3-5 Condensed Practices	6-8 Condensed Practices	9-12 Condensed Practices
Asking questions and defining problems in K-2 builds on prior experiences and progresses to simple descriptive questions that can be tested. Ask questions based on observations to find more information about the natural and/or designed world(s).	Asking questions and defining problems in 3-5 builds on K-2 experiences and progresses to specifying qualitative relationships. Ask questions about what would happen if a variable is changed.	Asking questions and defining problems in 6-8 builds on K-5 experiences and progresses to specifying relationships between variables, clarifying arguments and making models. - Ask questions that arise from careful observation of phenomena, or unexpected results, to clarify and/or seek additional information. - Ask questions to identify and/or clarify evidence and/or the premise(s) of an argument. - Ask questions to determine relationships between independent and dependent variables in models. - Ask questions to clarify and/or refine a model, an explanation, or an engineering problem.	Asking questions and defining problems in 9-12 builds on K-8 experiences and progresses to formulating, refining, and evaluating empirically testable questions and design problems using models and simulations. - Ask questions that arise from careful observation of phenomena, or unexpected results, to clarify and/or seek additional information. - Ask questions that arise from examining models or a theory, to clarify and/or seek additional information and relationships. - Ask questions to determine relationships, including quantitative relationships, between independent and dependent variables. - Ask questions to clarify and refine a model, an explanation, or an engineering problem.
Ask and/or identify questions that can be answered by an investigation.	- Identify scientific (testable) and non-scientific (non-testable) questions. - Ask questions that can be investigated and predict reasonable outcomes based on patterns such as cause-and-effect relationships.	- Ask questions that require sufficient and appropriate empirical evidence to answer. - Ask questions that can be investigated within the scope of the classroom, outdoor environment, and museums and other public facilities with available resources and, when appropriate, frame a hypothesis based on observations and scientific principles.	- Evaluate a question to determine if it is testable and relevant. - Ask questions that can be investigated within the scope of the school laboratory, research facilities, or field (e.g., outdoor environment) with available resources and, when appropriate, frame a hypothesis based on a model or theory.
N/A	N/A	Ask questions that challenge the premise(s) of an argument or the interpretation of a data set.	Ask and/or evaluate questions that challenge the premise(s) of an argument, the interpretation of a data set, or the suitability of the design.
Define a simple problem that can be solved through the development of a new or improved object or tool.	- Use prior knowledge to describe problems that can be solved. - Define a simple design problem that can be solved through the development of an object, tool, process, or system and includes several criteria for success and constraints on materials, time, or cost.	Define a design problem that can be solved through the development of an object, tool, process, or system and includes multiple criteria and constraints, including scientific knowledge that may limit possible solutions.	Define a design problem that involves the development of a process or system with interacting components and criteria and constraints that may include social, technical, and/or environmental considerations.

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Science and Engineering Practices: Developing and Using Models

A practice of both science and engineering is to use and construct models as helpful tools for representing ideas and explanations. These tools include diagrams, drawings, physical replicas, mathematical representations, analogies, and computer simulations. Modeling tools are used to develop questions, predictions, and explanations; analyze and identify flaws in systems; and communicate ideas. Models are used to build and revise scientific explanations and proposed engineered systems. Measurements and observations are used to revise models and designs.

K–2 Condensed Practices	3–5 Condensed Practices	6–8 Condensed Practices	9–12 Condensed Practices
Modeling in K–2 builds on prior experiences and progresses to include using and developing models (e.g., diagram, drawing, physical replica, diorama, dramatization, or storyboard) that represent concrete events or design solutions.	Modeling in 3–5 builds on K–2 experiences and progresses to building and revising simple models and using models to represent events and design solutions.	Modeling in 6–8 builds on K–5 experiences and progresses to developing, using, and revising models to describe, test, and predict more abstract phenomena and design systems.	Modeling in 9–12 builds on K–8 experiences and progresses to using, synthesizing, and developing models to predict and show relationships among variables between systems and their components in the natural and designed world(s).
- Distinguish between a model and the actual object, process, and/or events the model represents. - Compare models to identify common features and differences.	Identify limitations of models.	Evaluate limitations of a model for a proposed object or tool.	- Evaluate merits and limitations of two different models of the same proposed tool, process, mechanism, or system in order to select or revise a model that best fits the evidence or design criteria. - Design a test of a model to ascertain its reliability.
Develop and/or use a model to represent amounts, relationships, relative scales (bigger, smaller), and/or patterns in the natural and designed world(s).	- Collaboratively develop and/or revise a model based on evidence that shows the relationships among variables for frequent and regular occurring events. - Develop a model using an analogy, example, or abstract representation to describe a scientific principle or design solution. - Develop and/or use models to describe and/or predict phenomena.	- Develop or modify a model—based on evidence—to match what happens if a variable or component of a system is changed. - Use and/or develop a model of simple systems with uncertain and less predictable factors. - Develop and/or revise a model to show the relationships among variables, including those that are not observable but predict observable phenomena. - Develop and/or use a model to predict and/or describe phenomena. - Develop a model to describe unobservable mechanisms.	- Develop, revise, and/or use a model based on evidence to illustrate and/or predict the relationships between systems or between components of a system. - Develop and/or use multiple types of models to provide mechanistic accounts and/or predict phenomena, and move flexibly between model types based on merits and limitations.
Develop a simple model based on evidence to represent a proposed object or tool.	- Develop a diagram or simple physical prototype to convey a proposed object, tool, or process. - Use a model to test cause-and-effect relationships or interactions concerning the functioning of a natural or designed system.	Develop and/or use a model to generate data to test ideas about phenomena in natural or designed systems, including those representing inputs and outputs, and those at unobservable scales.	- Develop a complex model that allows for manipulation and testing of a proposed process or system. - Develop and/or use a model (including mathematical and computational) to generate data to support explanations, predict phenomena, analyze systems, and/or solve problems.

Science and Engineering Practices: Planning and Carrying Out Investigations

Scientists and engineers plan and carry out investigations in the field or laboratory, working collaboratively as well as individually. Their investigations are systematic and require clarifying what counts as data and identifying variables or parameters. Engineering investigations identify the effectiveness, efficiency, and durability of designs under different conditions.

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K-2 Condensed Practices	3-5 Condensed Practices	6-8 Condensed Practices	9-12 Condensed Practices
Planning and carrying out investigations to answer questions or test solutions to problems in K-2 builds on prior experiences and progresses to simple investigations, based on fair tests, which provide data to support explanations or design solutions. • With guidance, plan and conduct an investigation in collaboration with peers (for K). • Plan and conduct an investigation collaboratively to produce data to serve as the basis for evidence to answer a question.	Planning and carrying out investigations to answer questions or test solutions to problems in 3-5 builds on K-2 experiences and progresses to include investigations that control variables and provide evidence to support explanations or design solutions. • Plan and conduct an investigation collaboratively to produce data to serve as the basis for evidence, using fair tests in which variables are controlled and the number of trials considered.	Planning and carrying out investigations in 6-8 builds on K-5 experiences and progresses to include investigations that use multiple variables and provide evidence to support explanations or solutions. • Plan an investigation individually and collaboratively, and in the design identify independent and dependent variables and controls, what tools are needed to do the gathering, how measurements will be recorded, and how many data are needed to support a claim. • Conduct an investigation and/or evaluate and/or revise the experimental design to produce data to serve as the basis for evidence that meet the goals of the investigation.	Planning and carrying out investigations in 9-12 builds on K-8 experiences and progresses to include investigations that provide evidence for and test conceptual, mathematical, physical, and empirical models. • Plan an investigation or test a design individually and collaboratively to produce data to serve as the basis for evidence as part of building and revising models, supporting explanations for phenomena, or testing solutions to problems. Consider possible variables or effects and evaluate the confounding investigation's design to ensure variables are controlled. • Plan and conduct an investigation individually and collaboratively to produce data to serve as the basis for evidence, and in the design decide on types, how much, and accuracy of data needed to produce reliable measurements and consider limitations on the precision of the data (e.g., number of trials, cost, risk, time); refine the design accordingly. • Plan and conduct an investigation or test a design solution in a safe and ethical manner including considerations of environmental, social, and personal impacts.
• Evaluate different ways of observing and/or measuring a phenomenon to determine which way can answer a question. • Make observations (firsthand or from media) and/or measurements to collect data that can be used to make comparisons. • Make observations (firsthand or from media) and/or measurements of a proposed object or tool or solution to determine if it solves a problem or meets a goal. • Make predictions based on prior experiences.	• Evaluate appropriate methods and/or tools for collecting data. • Make observations and/or measurements to produce data to serve as the basis for evidence for an explanation of a phenomenon or test a design solution. • Make predictions about what would happen if a variable changes. • Test two different models of the same proposed object, tool, or process to determine which better meets criteria for success.	• Evaluate the accuracy of various methods for collecting data. • Collect and produce data to serve as the basis for evidence to answer scientific questions or test design solutions under a range of conditions. • Collect data about the performance of a proposed object, tool, process, or system under a range of conditions.	• Select appropriate tools to collect, record, analyze, and evaluate data. • Make directional hypotheses that specify what happens to a dependent variable when an independent variable is manipulated. • Manipulate variables and collect data about a complex model of a proposed process or system to identify failure points or improve performance relative to criteria for success or other variables.

Science and Engineering Practices: Analyzing and Interpreting Data

Scientific investigations produce data that must be analyzed to derive meaning. Because data patterns and trends are not always obvious, scientists use a range of tools—including tabulation, graphical interpretation, visualization, and statistical analysis—to identify the significant features and patterns in the data. Scientists identify sources of error in the investigations and calculate the degree of certainty in the results. Modern technology makes the collection of large data sets much easier, providing secondary sources for analysis. Engineering investigations include analysis of data collected in the tests of designs. This allows comparison of different solutions and determines how well each meets specific design criteria—that is, which design best solves the problem within given constraints. Like scientists, engineers require a range of tools to identify patterns within data and interpret the results. Advances in science make analysis of proposed solutions more efficient and effective.

K–2 Condensed Practices	3–5 Condensed Practices	6–8 Condensed Practices	9–12 Condensed Practices
Analyzing data in K–2 builds on prior experiences and progresses to collecting, recording, and sharing observations. - Record information (observations, thoughts, and ideas). - Use observations (firsthand or from media) to describe patterns and/or relationships in the natural and designed world in order to answer scientific questions and solve problems. - Compare predictions (based on prior experiences) to what occurred (observable events).	Analyzing data in 3–5 builds on K–2 experiences and progresses to introducing quantitative approaches to collecting data and conducting multiple trials of qualitative observations. When possible and feasible, digital tools should be used. Represent data in tables and/or various graphical displays (bar graphs, pictographs, and/or pie charts) to reveal patterns that indicate relationships.	Analyzing data in 6–8 builds on K–5 experiences and progresses to extending quantitative analysis to investigations, distinguishing between correlation and causation, and basic statistical techniques of data and error analysis. - Construct, analyze, and/or interpret graphical displays of data and/or large data sets to identify linear and nonlinear relationships. - Use graphical displays (e.g., maps, charts, graphs, and/or tables) of large data sets to identify temporal and spatial relationships. - Distinguish between causal and correlational relationships in data. - Analyze and interpret data to provide evidence for phenomena.	Analyzing data in 9–12 builds on K–8 experiences and progresses to introducing more detailed statistical analysis, the comparison of data sets for consistency, and the use of models to generate and analyze data. Analyze data using tools, technologies, and/or models (e.g., computational, mathematical) in order to make valid and reliable scientific claims or determine an optimal design solution.
N/A	Analyze and interpret data to make sense of phenomena, using logical reasoning, mathematics, and/or computation.	Apply concepts of statistics and probability (including determining mode, and variability) to analyze and characterize data, using digital tools when feasible.	Apply concepts of statistics and probability (including determining function fits to data, slope, intercept, and correlation coefficient for linear fits) to scientific and engineering questions and problems, using digital tools when feasible.
N/A	N/A	Consider limitations of data analysis (e.g., measurement error) and/or seek to improve precision and accuracy of data with better technological tools and methods (e.g., multiple trials).	Consider limitations of data analysis (e.g., measurement error, sample selection) when analyzing and interpreting data.
N/A	Compare and contrast data collected by different groups in order to discuss similarities and differences in their findings.	Analyze and interpret data to determine similarities and differences in findings.	Compare and contrast various types of data sets (e.g., self-generated, archival) to examine consistency of measurements and observations.
Analyze data from tests of an object or tool to determine if it works as intended.	- Analyze data to refine a problem statement or the design of a proposed object, tool, or process. - Use data to evaluate and refine design solutions.	Analyze data to define an optimal operational range for a proposed object, tool, process, or system that best meets criteria for success.	- Evaluate the impact of new data on a working explanation and/or model of a proposed process or system. - Analyze data to identify design features or characteristics of the components of a proposed process or system to optimize it relative to criteria for success.

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Science and Engineering Practices: Using Mathematics and Computational Thinking

In both science and engineering, mathematics and computation are fundamental tools for representing physical variables and their relationships. They are used for a range of tasks such as constructing simulations; solving equations exactly or approximately; and recognizing, expressing, and applying quantitative relationships. Mathematical and computational approaches enable scientists and engineers to predict the behavior of systems and test the validity of such predictions.

K–2 Condensed Practices	3–5 Condensed Practices	6–8 Condensed Practices	9–12 Condensed Practices
Mathematical and computational thinking in K–2 builds on prior experience and progresses to recognizing that mathematics can be used to describe the natural and designed world(s).	Mathematical and computational thinking in 3–5 builds on K–2 experiences and progresses to extending quantitative measurements to a variety of physical properties and using computation and mathematics to analyze data and compare alternative design solutions.	Mathematical and computational thinking in 6–8 builds on K–5 experiences and progresses to identifying patterns in large data sets and using mathematical concepts to support explanations and arguments.	Mathematical and computational thinking in 9–12 builds on K–8 experiences and progresses to using algebraic thinking and analysis, a range of linear and nonlinear functions including trigonometric functions, exponentials and logarithms, and computational tools for statistical analysis to analyze, represent, and model data. Simple computational simulations are created and used based on mathematical models of basic assumptions.
N/A	N/A	Decide when to use qualitative vs. quantitative data.	Decide if qualitative or quantitative data are best to determine whether a proposed object or tool meets criteria for success.
Use counting and numbers to identify and describe patterns in the natural and designed world(s).	Organize simple data sets to reveal patterns that suggest relationships.	Use digital tools (e.g., computers) to analyze very large data sets for patterns and trends.	Create and/or revise a computational model or simulation of a phenomenon, designed device, process, or system.
Describe, measure, and/or compare quantitative attributes of different objects and display the data using simple graphs.	Describe, measure, estimate, and/or graph quantities such as area, volume, weight, and time to address scientific and engineering questions and problems.	Use mathematical representations to describe and/or support scientific conclusions and design solutions.	Use mathematical, computational, and/or algorithmic representations of phenomena or design solutions to describe and/or support claims and/or explanations.
Use quantitative data to compare two alternative solutions to a problem.	Create and/or use graphs and/or charts generated from simple algorithms to compare alternative solutions to an engineering problem.	- Create algorithms (a series of ordered steps) to solve a problem. - Apply mathematical concepts and/or processes (such as ratio, rate, percent, basic operations, and simple algebra) to scientific and engineering questions and problems. - Use digital tools and/or mathematical concepts and arguments to test and compare proposed solutions to an engineering design problem.	- Apply techniques of algebra and functions to represent and solve scientific and engineering problems. - Use simple limit cases to test mathematical expressions, computer programs, algorithms, or simulations of a process or system to see if a model “makes sense” by comparing the outcomes with what is known about the real world. - Apply ratios, rates, percentages, and unit conversions in the context of complicated measurement problems involving quantities with derived or compound units (e.g., mg/mL, kg/m³, acre-feet).

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Science and Engineering Practices: Constructing Explanations and Designing Solutions

The end-products of science are explanations and the end-products of engineering are solutions. The goal of science is the construction of theories that provide explanatory accounts of the world. A theory becomes accepted when it has multiple lines of empirical evidence and greater explanatory power of phenomena than previous theories. The goal of engineering design is to find a systematic solution to problems that is based on scientific knowledge and models of the material world. Each proposed solution results from a process of balancing competing criteria of desired functions, technical feasibility, cost, safety, aesthetics, and compliance with legal requirements. The optimal choice depends on how well the proposed solutions meet criteria and constraints.

K-2 Condensed Practices	3-5 Condensed Practices	6-8 Condensed Practices	9-12 Condensed Practices
Constructing explanations and designing solutions in K-2 builds on prior experiences and progresses to the use of evidence and ideas in constructing evidence-based accounts of natural phenomena and designing solutions.	Constructing explanations and designing solutions in 3-5 builds on K-2 experiences and progresses to the use of evidence in constructing explanations that specify variables that describe and predict phenomena and in designing multiple solutions to design problems.	Constructing explanations and designing solutions in 6-8 builds on K-5 experiences and progresses to include constructing explanations and designing solutions supported by multiple sources of evidence consistent with scientific ideas, principles, and theories.	Constructing explanations and designing solutions in 9-12 builds on K-8 experiences and progresses to explanations and designs that are supported by multiple and independent student-generated sources of evidence consistent with scientific ideas, principles, and theories.
Use information from observations (firsthand and from media) to construct an evidence-based account for natural phenomena.	Construct an explanation of observed relationships (e.g., the distribution of plants in the backyard).	- Construct an explanation that includes qualitative or quantitative relationships between variables that predict and/or describe phenomena. - Construct an explanation using models or representations.	Make a quantitative and/or qualitative claim regarding the relationship between dependent and independent variables.
N/A	Use evidence (e.g., measurements, observations, patterns) to construct or support an explanation or design a solution to a problem.	- Construct a scientific explanation based on valid and reliable evidence obtained from sources (including the students' own experiments) and the assumption that theories and laws that describe the natural world operate today as they did in the past and will continue to do so in the future. - Apply scientific ideas, principles, and/or evidence to construct, revise and/or use an explanation for real-world phenomena, examples, or events.	- Construct and revise an explanation based on valid and reliable evidence obtained from a variety of sources (including students' own investigations, models, theories, simulations, peer review) and the assumption that theories and laws that describe the natural world operate today as they did in the past and will continue to do so in the future. - Apply scientific ideas, principles, and/or evidence to provide an explanation of phenomena and solve design problems, taking into account possible unanticipated effects.
N/A	Identify the evidence that supports particular points in an explanation.	Apply scientific reasoning to show why the data or evidence is adequate for the explanation or conclusion.	Apply scientific reasoning, theory, and/or models to link evidence to the claims to assess the extent to which the reasoning and data support the explanation or conclusion.
- Use tools and/or materials to design and/or build a device that solves a specific problem or a solution to a specific problem. - Generate and/or compare multiple solutions to a problem.	- Apply scientific ideas to solve design problems. - Generate and compare multiple solutions to a problem based on how well they meet the criteria and constraints of the design solution.	- Apply scientific ideas or principles to design, construct, and/or test a design of an object, tool, process, or system. - Undertake a design project, engaging in the design cycle, to construct and/or implement a solution that meets specific design criteria and constraints. - Optimize performance of a design by prioritizing criteria, making trade-offs, testing, revising, and retesting.	Design, evaluate, and/or refine a solution to a complex real-world problem, based on scientific knowledge, student-generated sources of evidence, prioritized criteria, and trade-off considerations.

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Science and Engineering Practices: Engaging in Argument From Evidence

Argumentation is the process by which evidence-based conclusions and solutions are reached. In science and engineering, reasoning and argument based on evidence are essential to identifying the best explanation for a natural phenomenon or the best solution to a design problem. Scientists and engineers use argumentation to listen to, compare, and evaluate competing ideas and methods based on merits. Scientists and engineers engage in argumentation when investigating a phenomenon, testing a design solution, resolving questions about measurements, building data models, and using evidence to evaluate claims.

K–2 Condensed Practices	3–5 Condensed Practices	6–8 Condensed Practices	9–12 Condensed Practices
Engaging in argument from evidence in K–2 builds on prior experiences and progresses to comparing ideas and representations about the natural and designed world(s).	Engaging in argument from evidence in 3–5 builds on K–2 experiences and progresses to critiquing the scientific explanations or solutions proposed by peers by citing relevant evidence about the natural and designed world(s).	Engaging in argument from evidence in 6–8 builds on K–5 experiences and progresses to constructing a convincing argument that supports or refutes claims for either explanations or solutions about the natural and designed world(s).	Engaging in argument from evidence in 9–12 builds on K–8 experiences and progresses to using appropriate and sufficient evidence and scientific reasoning to defend and critique claims and explanations about the natural and designed world(s). Arguments may also come from current scientific or historical episodes in science.
- Identify arguments that are supported by evidence. - Distinguish between explanations that account for all gathered evidence and those that do not. - Analyze why some evidence is relevant to a scientific question and some is not. - Distinguish between opinions and evidence in one's own explanations.	- Compare and refine arguments based on an evaluation of the evidence presented. - Distinguish among facts, reasoned judgment based on research findings, and speculation in an explanation.	Compare and critique two arguments on the same topic and analyze whether they emphasize similar or different evidence and/or interpretations of facts.	- Compare and evaluate competing arguments or design solutions in light of currently accepted explanations, new evidence, limitations (e.g., trade-offs), constraints, and ethical issues. - Evaluate the claims, evidence, and/or reasoning behind currently accepted explanations or solutions to determine the merits of arguments.
Listen actively to arguments to indicate agreement or disagreement based on evidence, and/or to retell the main points of the argument.	Respectfully provide and receive critiques from peers about a proposed procedure, explanation, or model by citing relevant evidence and posing specific questions.	Respectfully provide and receive critiques about one's explanations, procedures, models, and questions by citing relevant evidence and posing and responding to questions that elicit pertinent elaboration and detail.	Respectfully provide and/or receive critiques on scientific arguments by probing reasoning and evidence and challenging ideas and conclusions, responding thoughtfully to diverse perspectives, and determining what additional information is required to resolve contradictions.
Construct an argument with evidence to support a claim.	- Construct and/or support an argument with evidence, data, and/or a model. - Use data to evaluate claims about cause and effect.	Construct, use, and/or present an oral and written argument supported by empirical evidence and scientific reasoning to support or refute an explanation or a model for a phenomenon or a solution to a problem.	Construct, use, and/or present an oral and written argument or counter-arguments based on data and evidence.
Make a claim about the effectiveness of an object, tool, or solution that is supported by relevant evidence.	Make a claim about the merit of a solution to a problem by citing relevant evidence about how it meets the criteria and constraints of the problem.	- Make an oral or written argument that supports or refutes the advertised performance of a device, process, or system, based on empirical evidence concerning whether or not the technology meets relevant criteria and constraints. - Evaluate competing design solutions based on jointly developed and agreed-upon design criteria.	- Make and defend a claim based on evidence about the natural world or the effectiveness of a design solution that reflects scientific knowledge and student-generated evidence. - Evaluate competing design solutions to a real-world problem based on scientific ideas and principles, empirical evidence, and/or logical arguments regarding relevant factors (e.g., economic, societal, environmental, ethical considerations).

Science and Engineering Practices: Obtaining, Evaluating, and Communicating Information

Scientists and engineers must be able to communicate clearly and persuasively the ideas and methods they generate. Critiquing and communicating ideas individually and in groups is a critical professional activity. Communicating information and ideas can be done in multiple ways: using tables, diagrams, graphs, models, and equations as well as orally, in writing, and through extended discussions. Scientists and engineers employ multiple sources to obtain information that is used to evaluate the merit and validity of claims, methods, and designs.

K–2 Condensed Practices	3–5 Condensed Practices	6–8 Condensed Practices	9–12 Condensed Practices
Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information in K–2 builds on prior experiences and uses observations and texts to communicate new information.	Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information in 3–5 builds on K–2 experiences and progresses to evaluating the merit and accuracy of ideas and methods.	Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information in 6–8 builds on K–5 experiences and progresses to evaluating the merit and validity of ideas and methods.	Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information in 9–12 builds on K–8 experiences and progresses to evaluating the validity and reliability of the claims, methods, and designs.
Read grade-appropriate texts and/or use media to obtain scientific and/or technical information to determine patterns in and/or evidence about the natural and designed world(s).	- Read and comprehend grade-appropriate complex texts and/or other reliable media to summarize and obtain scientific and technical ideas and describe how they are supported by evidence. - Compare and/or combine across complex texts and/or other reliable media to support the engagement in other scientific and/or engineering practices.	Critically read scientific texts adapted for classroom use to determine the central ideas and/or obtain scientific and/or technical information to describe patterns in and/or evidence about the natural and designed world(s).	Critically read scientific literature adapted for classroom use to determine the central ideas or conclusions and/or to obtain scientific and/or technical information to summarize complex evidence, concepts, processes, or information presented in a text by paraphrasing them in simpler but still accurate terms.
Describe how specific images (e.g., a diagram showing how a machine works) support a scientific or engineering idea.	Combine information in written text with that contained in corresponding tables, diagrams, and/or charts to support the engagement in other scientific and/or engineering practices.	Integrate qualitative and/or quantitative scientific and/or technical information in written text with that contained in media and visual displays to clarify claims and findings.	Compare, integrate, and evaluate sources of information presented in different media or formats (e.g., visually, quantitatively) as well as in words in order to address a scientific question or solve a problem.
Obtain information using various texts, text features (e.g., headings, tables of contents, glossaries, electronic menus, icons), and other media that will be useful in answering a scientific question and/or supporting a scientific claim.	Obtain and combine information from books and/or other reliable media to explain phenomena or solutions to a design problem.	- Gather, read, and synthesize information from multiple appropriate sources and assess the credibility, accuracy, and possible bias of each publication and methods used, and describe how they are supported or not supported by evidence. - Evaluate data, hypotheses, and/or conclusions in scientific and technical texts in light of competing information or accounts.	- Gather, read, and evaluate scientific and/or technical information from multiple authoritative sources, assessing the evidence and usefulness of each source. - Evaluate the validity and reliability of and/or synthesize multiple claims, methods, and/or designs that appear in scientific and technical texts or media reports, verifying the data when possible.
Communicate information or design ideas and/or solutions with others in oral and/or written forms using models, drawings, writing, or numbers that provide detail about scientific ideas, practices, and/or design ideas.	Communicate scientific and/or technical information orally and/or in written formats, including various forms of media and may include tables, diagrams, and charts.	Communicate scientific and/or technical information (e.g., about a proposed object, tool, process, system) in writing and/or through oral presentations.	Communicate scientific and/or technical information or ideas (e.g., about phenomena and/or the process of development and the design and performance of a proposed process or system) in multiple formats (including orally, graphically, textually, and mathematically).

Crosscutting Concepts

Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Patterns: Observed patterns in nature guide organization and classification and prompt questions about relationships and causes underlying them. Patterns in the natural and human designed world can be observed, used to describe phenomena, and used as evidence.	- Similarities and differences in patterns can be used to sort, classify, communicate, and analyze simple rates of change for natural phenomena and designed products. - Patterns of change can be used to make predictions. - Patterns can be used as evidence to support an explanation.	- Macroscopic patterns are related to the nature of microscopic and atomic-level structure. - Patterns in rates of change and other numerical relationships can provide information about natural and human-designed systems. - Patterns can be used to identify cause-and-effect relationships. - Graphs, charts, and images can be used to identify patterns in data.	- Different patterns may be observed at each of the scales at which a system is studied and can provide evidence for causality in explanations of phenomena. - Classifications or explanations used at one scale may fail or need revision when information from smaller or larger scales is introduced, thus requiring improved investigations and experiments. - Patterns of performance of designed systems can be analyzed and interpreted to reengineer and improve the system. - Mathematical representations are needed to identify some patterns. - Empirical evidence is needed to identify patterns.
Cause and Effect: Mechanism and Prediction: Events have causes, sometimes simple, sometimes multifaceted. Deciphering causal relationships, and the mechanisms by which they are mediated, is a major activity of science and engineering. - Events have causes that generate observable patterns. - Simple tests can be designed to gather evidence to support or refute student ideas about causes.	- Cause-and-effect relationships are routinely identified, tested, and used to explain change. - Events that occur together with regularity might or might not be a cause-and-effect relationship.	- Relationships can be classified as causal or correlational, and correlation does not necessarily imply causation. - Cause-and-effect relationships may be used to predict phenomena in natural or designed systems. - Phenomena may have more than one cause, and some cause-and-effect relationships in systems can only be described using probability.	- Empirical evidence is required to differentiate between cause and correlation and make claims about specific causes and effects. - Cause-and-effect relationships can be suggested and predicted for complex natural and human-designed systems by examining what is known about smaller scale mechanisms within the system. - Systems can be designed to cause a desired effect. - Changes in systems may have various causes that may not have equal effects.

Crosscutting Concepts (continued)

Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Scale, Proportion, and Quantity: In considering phenomena, it is critical to recognize what is relevant at different size, time, and energy scales, and to recognize proportional relationships between different quantities as scales change.			
- Relative scales allow objects and events to be compared and described (e.g., bigger and smaller; hotter and colder; faster and slower). - Standard units are used to measure length.	- Natural objects and/or observable phenomena exist from the very small to the immensely large or from very short to very long time periods. - Standard units are used to measure and describe physical quantities such as weight, time, temperature, and volume.	- Time, space, and energy phenomena can be observed at various scales using models to study systems that are too large or too small. - The observed function of natural and designed systems may change with scale. - Proportional relationships (e.g., speed as the ratio of distance traveled to time taken) among different types of quantities provide information about the magnitude of properties and processes. - Scientific relationships can be represented through the use of algebraic expressions and equations. - Phenomena that can be observed at one scale may not be observable at another scale.	- The significance of a phenomenon is dependent on the scale, proportion, and quantity at which it occurs. - Some systems can only be studied indirectly because they are too small, too large, too fast, or too slow to observe directly. - Patterns observable at one scale may not be observable or exist at other scales. - Using the concept of orders of magnitude allows one to understand how a model at one scale relates to a model at another scale. - Algebraic thinking is used to examine scientific data and predict the effect of a change in one variable on another (e.g., linear growth vs. exponential growth).
Systems and System Models: A system is an organized group of related objects or components; models can be used for understanding and predicting the behavior of systems.			
- Objects and organisms can be described in terms of their parts. - Systems in the natural and designed world have parts that work together.	- A system is a group of related parts that make up a whole and can carry out functions its individual parts cannot. - A system can be described in terms of its components and their interactions.	- Systems may interact with other systems; they may have subsystems and be a part of larger complex systems. - Models can be used to represent systems and their interactions—such as inputs, processes, and outputs—and energy, matter, and information flows within systems. - Models are limited in that they only represent certain aspects of the system under study.	- Systems can be designed to do specific tasks. - When investigating or describing a system, the boundaries and initial conditions of the system need to be defined and their inputs and outputs analyzed and described using models. - Models (e.g., physical, mathematical, computer models) can be used to simulate systems and interactions—including energy, matter, and information flows—within and between systems at different scales. - Models can be used to predict the behavior of a system, but these predictions have limited precision and reliability due to the assumptions and approximations inherent in models.

Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Energy and Matter: Flows, Cycles, and Conservation: Tracking energy and matter flows into, out of, and within systems helps one understand their system's behavior. • Objects may break into smaller pieces, be put together into larger pieces, or change shapes.	• Matter is made of particles. • Matter flows and cycles can be tracked in terms of the weight of the substances before and after a process occurs. The total weight of the substances does not change. This is what is meant by conservation of matter. Matter is transported into, out of, and within systems. • Energy can be transferred in various ways and between objects.	• Matter is conserved because atoms are conserved in physical and chemical processes. • Within a natural or designed system, the transfer of energy drives the motion and/or cycling of matter. • Energy may take different forms (e.g., energy in fields, thermal energy, energy of motion). • The transfer of energy can be tracked as energy flows through a designed or natural system.	• The total amount of energy and matter in closed systems is conserved. • Changes of energy and matter in a system can be described in terms of energy and matter flows into, out of, and within that system. • Energy cannot be created or destroyed—it only moves between one place and another place, between objects and/or fields, or between systems. • Energy drives the cycling of matter within and between systems. • In nuclear processes, atoms are not conserved, but the total number of protons plus neutrons is conserved.
Structure and Function: The way an object is shaped or structured determines many of its properties and functions. • The shape and stability of structures of natural and designed objects are related to their function(s).	• Different materials have different substructures, which can sometimes be observed. • Substructures have shapes and parts that serve functions.	• Complex and microscopic structures and systems can be visualized, modeled, and used to describe how their function depends on the shapes, composition, and relationships among its parts; therefore, complex natural and designed structures/systems can be analyzed to determine how they function. • Structures can be designed to serve particular functions by taking into account properties of different materials, and how materials can be shaped and used.	• Investigating or designing new systems or structures requires a detailed examination of the properties of different materials, the structures of different components, and connections of components to reveal their function and/or solve a problem. • The functions and properties of natural and designed objects and systems can be inferred from their overall structure, the way their components are shaped and used, and the molecular substructures of their various materials.
Stability and Change: For both designed and natural systems, conditions that affect stability and factors that control rates of change are critical elements to consider and understand. • Some things stay the same while other things change. • Things may change slowly or rapidly.	• Change is measured in terms of differences over time and may occur at different rates. • Some systems appear stable, but over long periods of time will eventually change.	• Explanations of stability and change in natural or designed systems can be constructed by examining the changes over time and processes at different scales, including the atomic scale. • Small changes in one part of a system might cause large changes in another part. • Stability might be disturbed by either sudden events or gradual changes that accumulate over time. • Systems in dynamic equilibrium are stable due to a balance of feedback mechanisms.	• Much of science deals with constructing explanations of how things change and how they remain stable. • Change and rates of change can be quantified and modeled over very short or very long periods of time. Some system changes are irreversible. • Feedback (negative or positive) can stabilize or destabilize a system. • Systems can be designed for greater or lesser stability.

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Physical Science

Grades K–2		Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS1: Matter and Its Interactions PS1.A: Structure and Properties of Matter		- Matter of any type can be subdivided into particles that are too small to see, but even then the matter still exists and can be detected by other means. A model shows that gases are made from matter particles that are too small to see and are moving freely around in space can explain many observations, including the inflation and shape of a balloon and the effects of air on larger particles or objects. (5-PS1-1) - The amount (weight) of matter is conserved when it changes form, even in transitions in which it seems to vanish. (5-PS1-2) - Measurements of a variety of properties can be used to identify materials. (Boundary: At this grade level, mass and weight are not distinguished, and no attempt is made to define the unseen particles or explain the atomic-scale mechanism of evaporation and condensation.) (5-PS1-3)	- Substances are made from different types of atoms, which combine with one another in various ways. Atoms form molecules that range in size from two to thousands of atoms. (MS-PS1-1) - Each pure substance has characteristic physical and chemical properties (for any bulk quantity under given conditions) that can be used to identify it. (MS-PS1-2), (MS-PS1-3) - Gases and liquids are made of molecules or inert atoms that are moving about relative to each other. (MS-PS1-4) - In a liquid, the molecules are constantly in contact with others; in a gas, they are widely spaced except when they happen to collide. In a solid, atoms are closely spaced and may vibrate in position but do not change relative locations. (MS-PS1-4) - Solids may be formed from molecules, or they may be extended structures with repeating subunits (e.g., crystals). (MS-PS1-1) - The changes of state that occur with variations in temperature or pressure can be described and predicted using these models of matter. (MS-PS1-4)	- Each atom has a charged substructure consisting of a nucleus, which is made of protons and neutrons, surrounded by electrons. (HS-PS1-1) - The periodic table orders elements horizontally by the number of protons in the atom's nucleus and places those with similar chemical properties in columns. The repeating patterns of this table reflect patterns of outer electron states. (HS-PS1-1), (HS-PS1-2) - The structure and interactions of matter at the bulk scale are determined by electrical forces within and between atoms. (HS-PS1-3), (secondary to HS-PS2-6) - Stable forms of matter are those in which the electric and magnetic field energy is minimized. A stable molecule has less energy than the same set of atoms separated; one must provide at least this energy in order to take the molecule apart. (HS-PS1-4)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Physical Science (*continued*)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS1.B: Chemical Reactions	Heating or cooling a substance may cause changes that can be observed. Sometimes these changes are reversible, and sometimes they are not. (2-PS1-4)	- When two or more different substances are mixed, a new substance with different properties may be formed. (5-PS1-4) - No matter what reaction or change in properties occurs, the total weight of the substances does not change. (Boundary: Mass and weight are not distinguished at this grade level.) (5-PS1-2)	- Substances react chemically in characteristic ways. In a chemical process, the atoms that make up the original substances are regrouped into different molecules, and these new substances have different properties from those of the reactants. (MS-PS1-2),(MS-PS1-3),(MS-PS1-5) - The total number of each type of atom is conserved, and thus the mass does not change. (MS-PS1-5) - Some chemical reactions release energy, others store energy. (MS-PS1-6)	- Chemical processes, their rates, and whether or not energy is stored or released can be understood in terms of the collisions of molecules and the rearrangements of atoms into new molecules, with consequent changes in the sum of all bond energies in the set of molecules that are matched by changes in kinetic energy. (HS-PS1-4),(HS-PS1-5) - In many situations, a dynamic and condition-dependent balance between a reaction and the reverse reaction determines the numbers of all types of molecules present. (HS-PS1-6) - The fact that atoms are conserved, together with knowledge of the chemical properties of the elements involved, can be used to describe and predict chemical reactions. (HS-PS1-2),(HS-PS1-7)
PS1.C: Nuclear Processes	N/A	N/A	N/A	- Nuclear processes, including fusion, fission, and radioactive decays of unstable nuclei, involve release or absorption of energy. The total number of neutrons plus protons does not change in any nuclear process. (HS-PS1-8) - Spontaneous radioactive decays follow a characteristic exponential decay law. Nuclear lifetimes allow radiometric dating to be used to determine the ages of rocks and other materials. (secondary to HS-ESS1-5),(secondary to HS-ESS1-6)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS2: Motion and Stability: Forces and Interactions	- Pushes and pulls can have different strengths and directions. (K-PS2-1),(K-PS2-2) - Pushing or pulling on an object can change the speed or direction of its motion and can start or stop it. (K-PS2-1),(K-PS2-2)	- Each force acts on one particular object and has both strength and a direction. An object at rest typically has multiple forces acting on it, but they add to give zero net force on the object. Forces that do not sum to zero can cause changes in the object's speed or direction of motion. (Boundary: Qualitative and conceptual, but not quantitative, addition of forces are used at this level.) (3-PS2-1) - The patterns of an object's motion in various situations can be observed and measured; when that past motion exhibits a regular pattern, future motion can be predicted from it. (Boundary: Technical terms, such as magnitude, velocity, momentum, and vector quantity, are not introduced at this level, but the concept that some quantities need both size and direction to be described is developed.) (3-PS2-2)	- For any pair of interacting objects, the force exerted by the first object on the second object is equal in strength to the force that the second object exerts on the first, but in the opposite direction (Newton's third law). (MS-PS2-1) - The motion of an object is determined by the sum of the forces acting on it; if the total force on the object is not zero, its motion will change. The greater the mass of the object, the greater the force needed to achieve the same change in motion. For any given object, a larger force causes a larger change in motion. (MS-PS2-2) - All positions of objects and the directions of forces and motions must be described in an arbitrarily chosen reference frame and an arbitrarily chosen units of size. In order to share information with other people, these choices must also be shared. (MSPS2-2)	- Newton's second law accurately predicts changes in the motion of macroscopic objects. (HS-PS2-1) - Momentum is defined for a particular frame of reference; it is the mass times the velocity of the object. In any system, total momentum is always conserved. (HS-PS2-2) - If a system interacts with objects outside itself, the total momentum of the system can change; however, any such change is balanced by changes in the momentum of objects outside the system. (HS-PS2-2),(HS-PS2-3)
PS2.A: Forces and Motion				
PS2.B: Types of Interactions	When objects touch or collide, they push on one another and can change motion. (K-PS2-1)	- Objects in contact exert forces on each other. (3-PS2-1) - Electric and magnetic forces between a pair of objects do not require that the objects be in contact. The sizes of the forces in each situation depend on the properties of the objects and their distances apart and, for forces between two magnets, on their orientation relative to each other. (3-PS2-3),(3-PS2-4) - The gravitational force of Earth acting on an object near Earth's surface pulls that object toward the planet's center. (5-PS2-1)	- Electric and magnetic (electromagnetic) forces can be attractive or repulsive, and their sizes depend on the magnitudes of the charges, currents, or magnetic strengths involved and on the distances between the interacting objects. (MS-PS2-3) - Gravitational forces are always attractive. There is a gravitational force between any two masses, but it is very small except when one or both of the objects have large mass—e.g., Earth and the Sun. (MS-PS2-4) - Forces that act at a distance (electric, magnetic, and gravitational) can be explained by fields that extend through space and can be mapped by their effect on a test object (a charged object, a magnet, or a ball, respectively). (MS-PS2-5)	- Newton's law of universal gravitation and Coulomb's law provide the mathematical models to describe and predict the effects of gravitational and electrostatic forces between distant objects. (HS-PS2-4) - Forces at a distance are explained by fields (gravitational, electric, and magnetic) permeating space that can transfer energy through space. Magnets or electric currents cause magnetic fields; electric charges or changing magnetic fields cause electric fields. (HS-PS2-4),(HS-PS2-5) - Attraction and repulsion between electric charges at the atomic scale explain the structure, properties, and transformations of matter, as well as the contact forces between material objects. (HS-PS2-6),(secondary to HS-PS1-1),(secondary to HS-PS1-3)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Physical Science (continued)

PS3: Energy		Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS3.A: Definitions of Energy		N/A	- The faster a given object is moving, the more energy it possesses. (4-PS3-1) - Energy can be moved from place to place by moving objects or through sound, light, or electric currents. (4-PS3-2),(4-PS3-3)	- Motion energy is properly called kinetic energy; it is proportional to the mass of the moving object and grows with the square of its speed. (MS-PS3-1) - A system of objects may also contain stored (potential) energy, depending on their relative positions. (MS-PS3-2) - Temperature is not a measure of energy; the relationship between the temperature and the total energy of a system depends on the types, states, and amounts of matter present. (MS-PS3-3),(MS-PS3-4) - The term “heat” as used in everyday language refers both to thermal energy (the motion of atoms or molecules within a substance) and the transfer of that thermal energy from one object to another. In science, heat is used only for this second meaning; it refers to the energy transferred due to the temperature difference between two objects.(secondary to MS-PS1-4) - Temperature is not a measure of energy; the relationship between the temperature and the total energy of a system depends on the types, states, and amounts of matter present. (secondary to MS-PS1-4)	- Energy is a quantitative property of a system that depends on the motion and interactions of matter and radiation within that system. That there is a single quantity called energy is due to the fact that a system’s total energy is conserved, even as, within the system, energy is continually transferred from one object to another and between its various possible forms. (HS-PS3-1),(HS-PS3-2) - At the macroscopic scale, energy manifests itself in multiple ways, such as in motion, sound, light, and thermal energy. (HS-PS3-2),(HS-PS3-3) - These relationships are better understood at the microscopic scale, at which all of the different manifestations of energy can be modeled as a combination of energy associated with the motion of particles and energy associated with the configuration (relative position of the particles). In some cases the relative position energy can be thought of as stored in fields (which mediate interactions between particles). This last concept includes radiation, a phenomenon in which energy stored in fields moves across space.. (HS-PS3-2) “Electrical energy” may mean energy stored in a battery or energy transmitted by electric currents. (secondary to HS-PS2-5)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Physical Science (*continued*)

		Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS3.B: Conservation of Energy and Energy Transfer		Sunlight warms Earth's surface. (K-PS3-1),(K-PS3-2)	- Energy is present whenever there are moving objects, sound, light, or heat. When objects collide, energy can be transferred from one object to another, thereby changing their motion. In such collisions, some energy is typically also transferred to the surrounding air; as a result, the air gets heated and sound is produced. (4-PS3-2),(4-PS3-3) - Light also transfers energy from place to place. (4-PS3-2) - Energy can also be transferred from place to place by electric currents, which can then be used locally to produce motion, sound, heat, or light. The currents may have been produced to begin with by transforming the energy of motion into electrical energy. (4-PS3-2),(4-PS3-4)	- When the motion energy of an object changes, there is inevitably some other change in energy at the same time. (MS-PS3-5) - The amount of energy transfer needed to change the temperature of a matter sample by a given amount depends on the nature of the matter, the size of the sample, and the environment. (MS-PS3-4) - Energy is spontaneously transferred out of hotter regions or objects and into colder ones. (MS-PS3-3)	- Conservation of energy means that the total change of energy in any system is always equal to the total energy transferred into or out of the system. (HS-PS3-1) - Energy cannot be created or destroyed, but it can be transported from one place to another and transferred between systems. (HS-PS3-1),(HS-PS3-4) - Mathematical expressions, which quantify how the stored energy in a system depends on its configuration (e.g., relative positions of charged particles, compression of a spring) and how kinetic energy depends on mass and speed, allow the concept of conservation of energy to be used to predict and describe system behavior. (HS-PS3-1) - The availability of energy limits what can occur in any system. (HS-PS3-1) - Uncontrolled systems always evolve toward more stable states—that is, toward more uniform energy distribution (e.g., water flows downhill, objects hotter than their surrounding environment cool down). (HS-PS3-4)
	PS3.C: Relationship Between Energy and Forces	A bigger push or pull makes things go faster. (secondary to K-PS2-1)	When objects collide, the contact forces transfer energy so as to change the objects' motions. (4-PS3-3)	When two objects interact, each one exerts a force on the other that can cause energy to be transferred to or from the object. (MS-PS3-2)	When two objects interacting through a field change relative position, the energy stored in the field is changed. (HS-PS3-5)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Physical Science (continued)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS3.D: Energy in Chemical Processes and Everyday Life N/A	- The expression “produce energy” typically refers to the conversion of stored energy into a desired form for practical use. (4-PS3-4) - The energy released [from] food was once energy from the Sun that was captured by plants in the chemical process that forms plant matter (from air and water). (5-PS3-1)	- The chemical reaction by which plants produce complex food molecules (sugars) requires an energy input (i.e., from sunlight) to occur. In this reaction, carbon dioxide and water combine to form carbon-based organic molecules and release oxygen. (secondary to MS-LS1-6) - Cellular respiration in plants and animals involve chemical reactions with oxygen that release stored energy. In these processes, complex molecules containing carbon react with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide and other materials. (secondary to MS-LS1-7)	- Although energy cannot be destroyed, it can be converted to less useful forms—for example, to thermal energy in the surrounding environment. (HS-PS3-3),(HS-PS3-4) - Solar cells are human-made devices that likewise capture the Sun’s energy and produce electrical energy. (secondary to HS-PS4-5) - The main way that solar energy is captured and stored on Earth is through the complex chemical process known as photosynthesis. (secondary to HS-LS2-5) - Nuclear fusion processes in the center of the Sun release the energy that ultimately reaches Earth as radiation. (secondary to HS-ESS1-1)	
PS4: Waves and Their Applications in Technologies for Information Transfer				
PS4.A: Wave Properties	Sound can make matter vibrate, and vibrating matter can make sound. (1-PS4-1)	- Waves, which are regular patterns of motion, can be made in water by disturbing the surface. When waves move across the surface of deep water, the water goes up and down in place; there is no net motion in the direction of the wave except when the water meets a beach. (Note: This grade band endpoint was moved from K–2.) (4-PS4-1) - Waves of the same type can differ in amplitude (height of the wave) and wavelength (spacing between wave peaks). (4-PS4-1)	- A simple wave has a repeating pattern with a specific wavelength, frequency, and amplitude. (MS-PS4-1) - A sound wave needs a medium through which it is transmitted. (MS-PS4-2)	- The wavelength and frequency of a wave are related to one another by the speed of travel of the wave, which depends on the type of wave and the medium through which it is passing. (HS-PS4-1) - Information can be digitized (e.g., a picture stored as the values of an array of pixels); in this form, it can be stored reliably in computer memory and sent over long distances as a series of wave pulses. (HS-PS4-2),(HS-PS4-5) [From the 3–5 grade band endpoints] Waves can add or cancel one another as they cross, depending on their relative phase (i.e., relative position of peaks and troughs of the waves), but they emerge unaffected by each other. (Boundary: The discussion at this grade level is qualitative only; it can be based on the fact that two different sounds can pass a location in different directions without getting mixed up.) (HS-PS4-3) - Geologists use seismic waves and their reflection at interfaces between layers to probe structures deep in the planet. (secondary to HS-ESS2-3)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Physical Science (*continued*)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
PS4.B: Electromagnetic Radiation	- Objects can be seen only when light is available to illuminate them. Some objects give off their own light. (1-PS4-2) - Some materials allow light to pass through them, others allow only some light through, and still others block all the light and create a dark shadow on any surface beyond them, where the light cannot reach. Mirrors can be used to redirect a light beam. (Boundary: The idea that light travels from place to place is developed through experiences with light sources, mirrors, and shadows, but no attempt is made to discuss the speed of light.) (1-PS4-3)	An object can be seen when light reflected from its surface enters the eyes. (4-PS4-2)	- When light shines on an object, it is reflected, absorbed, or transmitted through the object, depending on the object's material and the frequency (color) of the light. (MS-PS4-2) - The path that light travels can be traced as straight lines, except at surfaces between different transparent materials (e.g., air and water, air and glass) where the light path bends. (MS-PS4-2) - A wave model of light is useful for explaining brightness, color, and the frequency-dependent bending of light at a surface between media. (MS-PS4-2) - However, because light can travel through space, it cannot be a matter wave, like sound or water waves. (MS-PS4-2)	- Electromagnetic radiation (e.g., radio, microwaves, light) can be modeled as a wave of changing electric and magnetic fields or as particles called photons. The wave model is useful for explaining many features of electromagnetic radiation, and the particle model explains other features. (HS-PS4-3) - When light or longer wavelength electromagnetic radiation is absorbed in matter, it is generally converted into thermal energy (heat). Shorter wavelength electromagnetic radiation (ultraviolet, X-rays, gamma rays) can ionize atoms and cause damage to living cells. (HS-PS4-4) - Photovoltaic materials emit electrons when they absorb light of a high-enough frequency. (HS-PS4-5) - Atoms of each element emit and absorb characteristic frequencies of light. These characteristics allow identification of the presence of an element, even in microscopic quantities. (secondary to HS-ESS1-2)
PS4.C: Information Technologies and Instrumentation	People use a variety of devices to communicate (send and receive information) over long distances. (1-PS4-4)	Digitized information can be transmitted over long distances without significant degradation. High-tech devices, such as computers or cell phones, can receive and decode information—convert it from digitized form to voice—and vice versa. (4-PS4-3)	Digitized signals (sent as wave pulses) are a more reliable way to encode and transmit information. (MS-PS4-3)	Multiple technologies based on the understanding of waves and their interactions with matter are part of everyday experiences in the modern world (e.g., medical imaging, communications, scanners) and in scientific research. They are essential tools for producing, transmitting, and capturing signals and for storing and interpreting the information contained in them. (HS-PS4-5)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Life Science

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
LS1: From Molecules to Organisms: Structures and Processes				
LS1.A: Structure and Function	All organisms have external parts. Different animals use their body parts in different ways to see, hear, grasp objects, protect themselves, move from place to place, and seek, find, and take in food, water, and air. Plants also have different parts (roots, stems, leaves, flowers, fruits) that help them survive and grow. (1-LS1-1)	Plants and animals have both internal and external structures that serve various functions in growth, survival, behavior, and reproduction. (4-LS1-1)	- All living things are made up of cells, which is the smallest unit that can be said to be alive. An organism may consist of one single cell (unicellular) or many different numbers and types of cells (multicellular). (MS-LS1-1) - Organisms reproduce, either sexually or asexually, and transfer their genetic information to their offspring. (secondary to MS-LS3-2) - Within cells, special structures are responsible for particular functions, and the cell membrane forms the boundary that controls what enters and leaves the cell. (MS-LS1-2) - In multicellular organisms, the body is a system of multiple interacting subsystems. These subsystems are groups of cells that work together to form tissues and organs that are specialized for particular body functions. (MS-LS1-3)	- Systems of specialized cells within organisms help them perform the essential functions of life. (HS-LS1-1) - All cells contain genetic information in the form of DNA molecules. Genes are regions in the DNA that contain the instructions that code for the formation of proteins, which carry out most of the work of cells. (HS-LS1-1) (secondary to HS-LS3-1) - Multicellular organisms have a hierarchical structural organization, in which any one system is made up of numerous parts and is itself a component of the next level. (HS-LS1-2) - Feedback mechanisms maintain a living system's internal conditions within certain limits and mediate behaviors, allowing it to remain alive and functional even as external conditions change within some range. Feedback mechanisms can encourage (through positive feedback) or discourage (negative feedback) what is going on inside the living system. (HS-LS1-3)
LS1.B: Growth and Development of Organisms	Adult plants and animals can have young. In many kinds of animals, parents and the offspring themselves engage in behaviors that help the offspring to survive. (1-LS1-2)	Reproduction is essential to the continued existence of every kind of organism. Plants and animals have unique and diverse life cycles. (3-LS1-1)	- Organisms reproduce, either sexually or asexually, and transfer their genetic information to their offspring. (secondary to MS-LS3-2) - Animals engage in characteristic behaviors that increase the odds of reproduction. (MS-LS1-4) - Plants reproduce in a variety of ways, sometimes depending on animal behavior and specialized features for reproduction. (MS-LS1-4) - Genetic factors as well as local conditions affect the growth of the adult plant. (MS-LS1-5)	In multicellular organisms individual cells grow and then divide via a process called mitosis, thereby allowing the organism to grow. The organism begins as a single cell (fertilized egg) that divides successively to produce many cells, with each parent cell passing identical genetic material (two variants of each chromosome pair) to both daughter cells. Cellular division and differentiation produce and maintain a complex organism, composed of systems of tissues and organs that work together to meet the needs of the whole organism. (HS-LS1-4)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Life Science (*continued*)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
LS1.C: Organization for Matter and Energy Flow in Organisms	All animals need food in order to live and grow. They obtain their food from plants or from other animals. Plants need water and light to live and grow. (K-LS1-1)	- Food provides animals with the materials they need for body repair and growth and the energy they need to maintain body warmth and for motion. (secondary to 5-PS3-1) - Plants acquire their material for growth chiefly from air and water. (5-LS1-1)	- Plants, algae (including phytoplankton), and many microorganisms use the energy from light to make sugars (food) from carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and water through the process of photosynthesis, which also releases oxygen. These sugars can be used immediately or stored for growth or later use. (MS-LS1-6) - Within individual organisms, food moves through a series of chemical reactions in which it is broken down and rearranged to form new molecules, to support growth, or to release energy. (MS-LS1-7)	- The process of photosynthesis converts light energy to stored chemical energy by converting carbon dioxide plus water into sugars plus released oxygen. (HS-LS1-5) - The sugar molecules thus formed contain carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen; their hydrocarbon backbones are used to make amino acids and other carbon-based molecules that can be assembled into larger molecules (such as proteins or DNA), used for example to form new cells. (HS-LS1-6) - As matter and energy flow through different organizational levels of living systems, chemical elements are recombined in different ways to form different products. (HS-LS1-6), (HS-LS1-7) - As a result of these chemical reactions, energy is transferred from one system of interacting molecules to another and release energy to the surrounding environment and to maintain body temperature. Cellular respiration is a chemical process whereby the bonds of food molecules and oxygen molecules are broken and new compounds are formed that can transport energy to muscles. (HS-LS1-7)
LS1.D: Information Processing	Animals have body parts that capture and convey different kinds of information needed for growth and survival. Animals respond to these inputs with behaviors that help them survive. Plants also respond to some external inputs. (1-LS1-1)	Different sense receptors are specialized for particular kinds of information, which may be then processed by the animal's brain. Animals are able to use their perceptions and memories to guide their actions. (4-LS1-2)	Each sense receptor responds to different inputs (electromagnetic, mechanical, chemical), transmitting them as signals that travel along nerve cells to the brain. The signals are then processed in the brain, resulting in immediate behaviors or memories. (MS-LS1-8)	N/A

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Chapter 2

Grades K–2		Grades 3–5		Grades 6–8		Grades 9–12	
LS2: Ecosystems: Interactions, Energy, and Dynamics							
LS2.A: Interdependent Relationships in Ecosystems	- Plants depend on water and light to grow. (2-LS2-1) - Plants depend on animals for pollination or to move their seeds around. (2-LS2-2)	The food of almost any kind of animal can be traced back to plants. Organisms are related in food webs in which some animals eat plants for food and other animals eat the animals that eat plants. Some organisms, such as fungi and bacteria, break down dead organisms (both plants or plant parts and animals) and therefore operate as “decomposers.” Decomposition eventually restores (recycles) some materials back to the soil. Organisms can survive only in environments in which their particular needs are met. A healthy ecosystem is one in which multiple species of different types are each able to meet their needs in a relatively stable web of life. Newly introduced species can damage the balance of an ecosystem. (5-LS2-1)		- Organisms, and populations of organisms, are dependent on their environmental interactions both with other living things and with nonliving factors. (MS-LS2-1) - In any ecosystem, organisms and populations with similar requirements for food, water, oxygen, or other resources may compete with each other for limited resources, access to which consequently constrains their growth and reproduction. (MS-LS2-1) - Growth of organisms and population increases are limited by access to resources. (MS-LS2-1) - Similarly, predatory interactions may reduce the number of organisms or eliminate whole populations of organisms. Mutually beneficial interactions, in contrast, may become so interdependent that each organism requires the other for survival. Although the species involved in these competitive, predatory, and mutually beneficial interactions vary across ecosystems, the patterns of interactions of organisms with their environments, both living and nonliving, are shared. (MS-LS2-2)		Ecosystems have carrying capacities, which are limits to the numbers of organisms and populations they can support. These limits result from such factors as the availability of living and nonliving resources and from challenges such as predation, competition, and disease. Organisms would have the capacity to produce populations of great size were it not for the fact that environments and resources are finite. This fundamental tension affects the abundance (number of individuals) of species in any given ecosystem. (HS-LS2-1),(HS-LS2-2)	
	N/A	Matter cycles between the air and soil and among plants, animals, and microbes as these organisms live and die. Organisms obtain gases and water from the environment and release waste matter (gas, liquid, or solid) back into the environment. (5-LS2-1)		Food webs are models that demonstrate how matter and energy are transferred between producers, consumers, and decomposers as the three groups interact within an ecosystem. Transfers of matter into and out of the physical environment occur at every level. Decomposers recycle nutrients from dead plant or animal matter back to the soil in terrestrial environments or to the water in aquatic environments. The atoms that make up the organisms in an ecosystem are cycled repeatedly between the living and nonliving parts of the ecosystem. (MS-LS2-3)		- Photosynthesis and cellular respiration (including anaerobic processes) provide most of the energy for life processes. (HS-LS2-3) - Plants or algae form the lowest level of the food web. At each link upward in a food web, only a small fraction of the matter consumed at the lower level is transferred upward, to produce growth and release energy in cellular respiration at the higher level. Given this inefficiency, there are generally fewer organisms at higher levels of a food web. Some matter reacts to release energy for life functions, some matter is stored in newly made structures, and much is discarded. The chemical elements that make up the molecules of organisms pass through food webs and into and out of the atmosphere and soil, and they are combined and recombined in different ways. At each link in an ecosystem, matter and energy are conserved. (HS-LS2-4) - Photosynthesis and cellular respiration are important components of the carbon cycle, in which carbon is exchanged among the biosphere, atmosphere, oceans, and geosphere through chemical, physical, geologic, and biological processes. (HS-LS2-5)	
LS2.B: Cycles of Matter and Energy Transfer in Ecosystems							

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Life Science (*continued*)

Grades K–2		Grades 3–5		Grades 6–8		Grades 9–12	
LS2.C: Ecosystem Dynamics, Functioning, and Resilience	N/A	When the environment changes in ways that affect a place's physical characteristics, temperature, or availability of resources, some organisms survive and reproduce, others move to new locations, yet others move into the transformed environment, and some die. (secondary to 3-LS4-4)		- Ecosystems are dynamic in nature; their characteristics can vary over time. Disruptions to any physical or biological component of an ecosystem can lead to shifts in all its populations. (MS-LS2-4) - Biodiversity describes the variety of species found in Earth's terrestrial and oceanic ecosystems. The completeness or integrity of an ecosystem's biodiversity is often used as a measure of its health. (MS-LS2-5)		- A complex set of 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. (HS-LS2-2),(HS-LS2-6) - Moreover, anthropogenic changes (induced by human activity) in the environment—including habitat destruction, pollution, introduction of invasive species, overexploitation, and climate change—can disrupt an ecosystem and threaten the survival of some species. (HS-LS2-7)	
LS2.D: Social Interactions and Group Behavior	N/A	Being part of a group helps animals obtain food, defend themselves, and cope with changes. Groups may serve different functions and vary dramatically in size (Note: Moved from K–2.) (3-LS2-1)		N/A		Group behavior has evolved because membership can increase the chances of survival for individuals and their genetic relatives. (HS-LS2-8)	
LS3: Heredity: Inheritance and Variation of Traits							
LS3.A: Inheritance of Traits	Young animals are very much, but not exactly, like their parents. Plants also are very much, but not exactly, like their parents. (1-LS3-1)	- Many characteristics of organisms are inherited from their parents. (3-LS3-1) - Other characteristics result from individuals' interactions with the environment, which can range from diet to learning. Many characteristics involve both inheritance and environment. (3-LS3-2)		- Genes are located in the chromosomes of cells, with each chromosome pair containing two variants of each of many distinct genes. Each distinct gene chiefly controls the production of specific proteins, which in turn affects the traits of the individual. Changes (mutations) to genes can result in changes to proteins, which can affect the structures and functions of the organism and thereby change traits. (MS-LS3-1) - Variations of inherited traits between parent and offspring arise from genetic differences that result from the subset of chromosomes (and therefore genes) inherited. (MS-LS3-2)		Each chromosome consists of a single very long DNA molecule, and each gene on the chromosome is a particular segment of that DNA. The instructions for forming species' characteristics are carried in DNA. All cells in an organism have the same genetic content, but the genes used (expressed) by the cell may be regulated in different ways. Not all DNA codes for a protein; some segments of DNA are involved in regulatory or structural functions, and some have no as-yet known function. (HS-LS3-1)	

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Life Science (continued)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
LS3.B: Variation of Traits	Individuals of the same kind of plant or animal are recognizable as similar but can also vary in many ways. (1-LS3-1)	- Different organisms vary in how they look and function because they have different inherited information. (3-LS3-1) - The environment also affects the traits that an organism develops. (3-LS3-2)	- In sexually reproducing organisms, each parent contributes half of the genes acquired (at random) by the offspring. Individuals have two of each chromosome and hence two alleles of each gene, one acquired from each parent. These versions may be identical or may differ from each other. (MS-LS3-2) - In addition to variations that arise from sexual reproduction, genetic information can be altered because of mutations. Though rare, mutations may result in changes to the structure and function of proteins. Some changes are beneficial, others harmful, and some neutral to the organism. (MS-LS3-1)	- In sexual reproduction, chromosomes can sometimes swap sections during the process of meiosis (cell division), thereby creating new genetic combinations and thus more genetic variation. Although DNA replication is tightly regulated and remarkably accurate, errors do occur and result in mutations, which are also a source of genetic variation. Environmental factors can also cause mutations in genes, and viable mutations are inherited. (HS-LS3-2) - Environmental factors also affect expression of traits, and hence affect the probability of occurrences of traits in a population. Thus, the variation and distribution of traits observed depends on both genetic and environmental factors. (HS-LS3-2), (HS-LS3-3)
LS4: Biological Evolution: Unity and Diversity				
LS4.A: Evidence of Common Ancestry and Diversity	N/A	- Some kinds of plants and animals that once lived on Earth are no longer found anywhere. (Note: Moved from K-2.) (3-LS4-1) - Fossils provide evidence about the types of organisms that lived long ago and also about the nature of their environments. (3-LS4-1)	- The collection of fossils and their placement in chronological order (e.g., through the location of the sedimentary layers in which they are found or through radioactive dating) is known as the fossil record. It documents the existence, diversity, extinction, and change of many life forms throughout the history of life on Earth. (MS-LS4-1) - Anatomical similarities and differences between various organisms living today and between them and organisms in the fossil record enable the reconstruction of evolutionary history and the inference of lines of evolutionary descent. (MS-LS4-2) - Comparison of the embryological development of different species also reveals similarities that show relationships not evident in the fully formed anatomy. (MS-LS4-3)	Genetic information provides evidence of evolution. DNA sequences vary among species, but there are many overlaps; in fact, the ongoing branching that produces multiple lines of descent can be inferred by comparing the DNA sequences of different organisms. Such information is also derivable from the similarities and differences in amino acid sequences and from anatomical and embryological evidence. (HS-LS4-1)
LS4.B: Natural Selection	N/A	Sometimes the differences in characteristics between individuals of the same species provide advantages in surviving, finding mates, and reproducing. (3-LS4-2)	- Natural selection leads to the predominance of certain traits in a population, and the suppression of others. (MS-LS4-4) - In artificial selection, humans have the capacity to influence certain characteristics of organisms by selective breeding. One can choose desired parental traits determined by genes, which are then passed on to offspring. (MS-LS4-5)	- Natural selection occurs only if there is both (1) variation in the genetic information between organisms in a population and (2) variation in the expression of that genetic information—that is, trait variation—that leads to differences in performance among individuals. (HS-LS4-2), (HS-LS4-3) - The traits that positively affect survival are more likely to be reproduced, and thus are more common in the population. (HS-LS4-3)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Life Science (<i>continued</i>)				
LS4.C: Adaptation	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
	N/A	For any particular environment, some kinds of organisms survive well, some survive less well, and some cannot survive at all. (3-LS4-3)	Adaptation by natural selection acting over generations is one important process by which species change over time in response to changes in environmental conditions. Traits that support successful survival and reproduction in the new environment become more common; those that do not become less common. Thus, the distribution of traits in a population changes. (MS-LS4-6)	- Evolution is a consequence of the interaction of four factors: (1) the potential for a species to increase in number, (2) the genetic variation of individuals in a species due to mutation and sexual reproduction, (3) competition for an environment's limited supply of the resources that individuals need in order to survive and reproduce, and (4) the ensuing proliferation of those organisms that are better able to survive and reproduce in that environment. (HS-LS4-2) - Natural selection leads to adaptation, that is, to a population dominated by organisms that are anatomically, behaviorally, and physiologically well suited to survive and reproduce in a specific environment. That is, the differential survival and reproduction of organisms in a population that have an advantageous heritable trait leads to an increase in the proportion of individuals in future generations that have the trait and to a decrease in the proportion of individuals that do not. (HS-LS4-3), (HS-LS4-4) - Adaptation also means that the distribution of traits in a population can change when conditions change. (HS-LS4-3) - Changes in the physical environment, whether naturally occurring or human induced, have thus contributed to the expansion of some species, the emergence of new distinct species as populations diverge under different conditions, and the decline—and sometimes the extinction—of some species. (HS-LS4-5), (HS-LS4-6) - Species become extinct because they can no longer survive and reproduce in their altered environment. If members cannot adjust to change that is too fast or drastic, the opportunity for the species' evolution is lost. (HS-LS4-5)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Life Science (*continued*)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
LS4.D: Biodiversity and Humans	There are many different kinds of living things in any area, and they exist in different places on land and in water. (2-LS4-1)	Populations live in a variety of habitats, and change in those habitats affects the organisms living there. (3-LS4-4)	Changes in biodiversity can influence humans' resources, such as food, energy, and medicines, as well as ecosystem services that humans rely on—for example, water purification and recycling. (secondary to MS-LS2-5)	- Biodiversity is increased by the formation of new species (speciation) and decreased by the loss of species (extinction). (secondary to HS-LS2-7) - Humans depend on the living world for the resources and other benefits provided by biodiversity. But human activity is also having adverse impacts on biodiversity through overpopulation, overexploitation, habitat destruction, pollution, introduction of invasive species, and climate change. Thus, sustaining biodiversity so that ecosystem functioning and productivity are maintained is essential to supporting and enhancing life on Earth. Sustaining biodiversity also aids humanity by preserving landscapes of recreational or inspirational value. (secondary to HS-LS2-7), (HS-LS4-6)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Earth and Space Science

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ESS1: Earth's Place in the Universe				
ESS1.A: The Universe and Its Stars	Patterns of the motion of the Sun, Moon, and stars in the sky can be observed, described, and predicted. (1-ESS1-1)	The Sun is a star that appears larger and brighter than other stars because it is closer. Stars range greatly in their distance from Earth. (5-ESS1-1)	- Patterns of the apparent motion of the Sun, the Moon, and stars in the sky can be observed, described, predicted, and explained with models. (MS-ESS1-1) - Earth and its solar system are part of the Milky Way galaxy, which is one of many galaxies in the universe. (MS-ESS1-2)	- The star called the Sun is changing and will burn out over a life span of approximately 10 billion years. (HS-ESS1-1) - The study of stars' light spectra and brightness is used to identify compositional elements of stars, their movements, and their distances from Earth. (HS-ESS1-2), (HS-ESS1-3) - The big bang theory is supported by observations of distant galaxies receding from our own, of the measured composition of stars and nonstellar gases, and of the maps of spectra of the primordial radiation (cosmic microwave background) that still fills the universe. (HS-ESS1-2) - Other than the hydrogen and helium formed at the time of the big bang, nuclear fusion within stars produces all atomic nuclei lighter than and including iron, and the process releases electromagnetic energy. Heavier elements are produced when certain massive stars achieve a supernova stage and explode. (HS-ESS1-2), (HS-ESS1-3)
ESS1.B: Earth and the Solar System	Seasonal patterns of Sunrise and Sunset can be observed, described, and predicted. (1-ESS1-2)	The orbits of Earth around the Sun and of the Moon around Earth, together with the rotation of Earth about an axis between its North and South poles, cause observable patterns. These include day and night; daily changes in the length and direction of shadows; and different positions of the Sun, Moon, and stars at different times of the day, month, and year. (5-ESS1-2)	- The solar system consists of the Sun and a collection of objects, including planets, their moons, and asteroids that are held in orbit around the Sun by its gravitational pull on them. (MS-ESS1-2), (MS-ESS1-3) - This model of the solar system can explain eclipses of the Sun and the Moon. Earth's spin axis is fixed in direction over the short term but tilted relative to its orbit around the Sun. The seasons are a result of that tilt and are caused by the differential intensity of Sunlight on different areas of Earth across the year. (MS-ESS1-1) - The solar system appears to have formed from a disk of dust and gas, drawn together by gravity. (MS-ESS1-2)	- Kepler's laws describe common features of the motions of orbiting objects, including their elliptical paths around the Sun. Orbits may change due to the gravitational effects from, or collisions with, other objects in the solar system. (HS-ESS1-4) - Cyclical changes in the shape of Earth's orbit around the Sun, together with changes in the tilt of the planet's axis of rotation, both occurring over hundreds of thousands of years, have altered the intensity and distribution of Sunlight falling on the Earth. These phenomena cause a cycle of ice ages and other gradual climate changes. (secondary to HS-ESS2-4)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Earth and Space Science (continued)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ESS1.C: The History of Planet Earth	Some events happen very quickly; others occur very slowly, over a time period much longer than one can observe. (2-ESS1-1)	Local, regional, and global patterns of rock formations reveal changes over time due to Earth forces, such as earthquakes. The presence and location of certain fossil types indicate the order in which rock layers were formed. (4-ESS1-1)	- The geologic time scale interpreted from rock strata provides a way to organize Earth's history. Analyses of rock strata and the fossil record provide only relative dates, not an absolute scale. (MS-ESS1-4) - Tectonic processes continually generate new ocean seafloor at ridges and destroy old seafloor at trenches. (HS-ESS1.C GBE), (secondary to MS-ESS2-3)	- Continental rocks, which can be older than 4 billion years, are generally much older than the rocks of the ocean floor, which are less than 200 million years old. (HS-ESS1-5) - Although active geologic processes, such as plate tectonics and erosion, have destroyed or altered most of the very early rock record on Earth, other objects in the solar system, such as lunar rocks, asteroids, and meteorites, have changed little over billions of years. Studying these objects can provide information about Earth's formation and early history. (HS-ESS1-6)
ESS2: Earth's Systems				
ESS2.A: Earth Materials and Systems	Wind and water can change the shape of the land. (2-ESS2-1)	- Rainfall helps to shape the land and affects the types of living things found in a region. Water, ice, wind, living organisms, and gravity break rocks, soils, and sediments into smaller particles and move them around. (4-ESS2-1) - Earth's major systems are the geosphere (solid and molten rock, soil, and sediments), the hydrosphere (water and ice), the atmosphere (air), and the biosphere (living things, including humans). These systems interact in multiple ways to affect Earth's surface materials and processes. The ocean supports a variety of ecosystems and organisms, shapes landforms, and influences climate. Winds and clouds in the atmosphere interact with the landforms to determine patterns of weather. (5-ESS2-1)	- All Earth processes are the result of energy flowing and matter cycling within and among the planet's systems. This energy is derived from the Sun and Earth's hot interior. The energy that flows and matter that cycles produce chemical and physical changes in Earth's materials and living organisms. (MS-ESS2-1) - The planet's systems interact over scales that range from microscopic to global in size, and they operate over fractions of a second to billions of years. These interactions have shaped Earth's history and will determine its future. (MS-ESS2-2)	- Earth's systems, being dynamic and interacting, cause feedback effects that can increase or decrease the original changes. (HS-ESS2-1), (HS-ESS2-2) - Evidence from deep probes and seismic waves, reconstructions of historical changes in Earth's surface and its magnetic field, and an understanding of physical and chemical processes lead to a model of Earth with a hot but solid inner core, a liquid outer core, and a solid mantle and crust. Motions of the mantle and its plates occur primarily through thermal convection, which involves the cycling of matter due to the outward flow of energy from Earth's interior and gravitational movement of denser materials toward the interior. (HS-ESS2-3) - The geologic record shows that changes to global and regional climate can be caused by interactions among changes in the Sun's energy output or Earth's orbit, tectonic events, ocean circulation, volcanic activity, glaciers, vegetation, and human activities. These changes can occur on a variety of time scales from sudden (e.g., volcanic ash clouds) to intermediate (ice ages) to very long-term tectonic cycles. (HS-ESS2-4)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Earth and Space Science (*continued*)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ESS2.B: Plate Tectonics and Large-Scale System Interactions	Maps show where things are located. One can map the shapes and kinds of land and water in any area. (2-ESS2-2)	The locations of mountain ranges, deep ocean trenches, ocean floor structures, earthquakes, and volcanoes occur in patterns. Most earthquakes and volcanoes occur in bands that are often along the boundaries between continents and oceans. Major mountain chains form inside continents or near their edges. Maps can help locate the different land and water features of Earth. (4-ESS2-2)	Maps of ancient land and water patterns, based on investigations of rocks and fossils, make clear how Earth's plates have moved great distances, collided, and spread apart. (MS-ESS2-3)	- The radioactive decay of unstable isotopes continually generates new energy within Earth's crust and mantle, providing the primary source of the heat that drives mantle convection. Plate tectonics can be viewed as the surface expression of mantle convection. (HS-ESS2-3) - Plate tectonics is the unifying theory that explains the past and current movements of the rocks at Earth's surface and provides a framework for understanding its geologic history. (ESS2.B Grade 8 GBE), (HS-ESS2-1), (secondary to HS-ESS1-5) - Plate movements are responsible for most continental and ocean-floor features and for the distribution of most rocks and minerals within Earth's crust. (ESS2.B Grade 8 GBE), (HS-ESS2-1)
ESS2.C: The Roles of Water in Earth's Surface Processes	Water is found in the ocean, rivers, lakes, and ponds. Water exists as solid ice and in liquid form. (2-ESS2-3)	Nearly all of Earth's available water is in the ocean. Most fresh water is in glaciers or underground; only a tiny fraction is in streams, lakes, wetlands, and the atmosphere. (5-ESS2-2)	- Water continually cycles among land, ocean, and atmosphere via transpiration, evaporation, condensation and crystallization, and precipitation, as well as downhill flows on land. (MS-ESS2-4) - The complex patterns of the changes and the movement of water in the atmosphere, determined by winds, landforms, and ocean temperatures and currents, are major determinants of local weather patterns. (MS-ESS2-5) - Global movements of water and its changes in form are propelled by Sunlight and gravity. (MS-ESS2-4) - Variations in density due to variations in temperature and salinity drive a global pattern of interconnected ocean currents. (MS-ESS2-6) - Water's movements—both on the land and underground—cause weathering and erosion, which change the land's surface features and create underground formations. (MS-ESS2-2)	The abundance of liquid water on Earth's surface and its unique combination of physical and chemical properties are central to the planet's dynamics. These properties include water's exceptional capacity to absorb, store, and release large amounts of energy, transmit Sunlight, expand upon freezing, dissolve and transport materials, and lower the viscosities and melting points of rocks. (HS-ESS2-5)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Earth and Space Science (continued)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ESS2.D: Weather and Climate	Weather is the combination of Sunlight, wind, snow or rain, and temperature in a particular region at a particular time. People measure these conditions to describe and record the weather and to notice patterns over time. (K-ESS2-1)	- Scientists record patterns of the weather across different times and areas so that they can make predictions about what kind of weather might happen next. (3-ESS2-1) - Climate describes a range of an area's typical weather conditions and the extent to which those conditions vary over years. (3-ESS2-2)	- Weather and climate are influenced by interactions involving Sunlight, the ocean, the atmosphere, ice, landforms, and living things. These interactions vary with latitude, altitude, and local and regional geography, all of which can affect oceanic and atmospheric flow patterns. (MS-ESS2-6) - Because these patterns are so complex, weather can only be predicted probabilistically. (MS-ESS2-5) - The ocean exerts a major influence on weather and climate by absorbing energy from the Sun, releasing it over time, and globally redistributing it through ocean currents. (MS-ESS2-6)	- The foundation for Earth's global climate systems is the electromagnetic radiation from the Sun, as well as its reflection, absorption, storage, and redistribution among the atmosphere, ocean, and land systems, and this energy's re-radiation into space. (HS-ESS2-4) - Gradual atmospheric changes were due to plants and other organisms that captured carbon dioxide and released oxygen. (HS-ESS2-6), (HS-ESS2-7) - Changes in the atmosphere due to human activity have increased carbon dioxide concentrations and thus affect climate. (HS-ESS2-6), (HS-ESS2-4) - Current models predict that, although future regional climate changes will be complex and varied, average global temperatures will continue to rise. The outcomes predicted by global climate models strongly depend on the amounts of human-generated greenhouse gases added to the atmosphere each year and by the ways in which these gases are absorbed by the ocean and biosphere. (secondary to HS-ESS3-6)
ESS2.E: Biogeology	Plants and animals can change their environment. (K-ESS2-2)	Living things affect the physical characteristics of their regions. (4-ESS2-1)	N/A	The many dynamic and delicate feedbacks between the biosphere and other Earth systems cause a continual co-evolution of Earth's surface and the life that exists on it. (HS-ESS2-7)
ESS3: Earth and Human Activity				
ESS3.A: Natural Resources	Living things need water, air, and resources from the land, and they live in places that have the things they need. Humans use natural resources for everything they do. (K-ESS3-1)	Energy and fuels that humans use are derived from natural sources, and their use affects the environment in multiple ways. Some resources are renewable over time, and others are not. (4-ESS3-1)	Humans depend on Earth's land, ocean, atmosphere, and biosphere for many different resources. Minerals, fresh water, and biosphere resources are limited, and many are not renewable or replaceable over human lifetimes. These resources are distributed unevenly around the planet as a result of past geologic processes. (MS-ESS3-1)	- Resource availability has guided the development of human society. (HS-ESS3-1) - All forms of energy production and other resource extraction have associated economic, social, environmental, and geopolitical costs and risks as well as benefits. New technologies and social regulations can change the balance of these factors. (HS-ESS3-2)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Earth and Space Science (*continued*)

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ESS3.B: Natural Hazards	Some kinds of severe weather are more likely than others in a given region. Weather scientists forecast severe weather so that the communities can prepare for and respond to these events. (K-ESS3-2)	A variety of natural hazards result from natural processes. Humans cannot eliminate natural hazards but can take steps to reduce their impacts. (3-ESS3-1), (4-ESS3-2)	Mapping the history of natural hazards in a region, combined with an understanding of related geologic forces, can help forecast the locations and likelihoods of future events. (MS-ESS3-2)	Natural hazards and other geologic events have shaped the course of human history; they have significantly altered the sizes of human populations and have driven human migrations. (HS-ESS3-1)
ESS3.C: Human Impacts on Earth Systems	Things that people do to live comfortably can affect the world around them. But they can make choices that reduce their impacts on the land, water, air, and other living things. (K-ESS3-3), (secondary to K-ESS2-2)	Human activities in agriculture, industry, and everyday life have had major effects on the land, vegetation, streams, ocean, air, and even outer space. But individuals and communities are doing things to help protect Earth's resources and environments. (5-ESS3-1)	- Human activities have significantly altered the biosphere, sometimes damaging or destroying natural habitats and causing the extinction of other species. But changes to Earth's environments can have different impacts (negative and positive) for different living things. (MS-ESS3-3) - Typically as human populations and per capita consumption of natural resources increase, so do the negative impacts on Earth unless the activities and technologies involved are engineered otherwise. (MS-ESS3-3), (MS-ESS3-4)	- The sustainability of human societies and the biodiversity that supports them requires responsible management of natural resources. (HS-ESS3-3) - Scientists and engineers can make major contributions by developing technologies that produce less pollution and waste and that preclude ecosystem degradation. (HS-ESS3-4)
ESS3.D: Global Climate Change	N/A	N/A	Human activities, such as the release of greenhouse gases from burning fossil fuels, are major factors in the current rise in Earth's mean surface temperature (global warming). Reducing the level of climate change and reducing human vulnerability to whatever climate changes do occur depend on the understanding of climate science, engineering capabilities, and other kinds of knowledge, such as understanding of human behavior, and on applying that knowledge wisely in decisions and activities. (MS-ESS3-5)	- Though the magnitudes of human impacts are greater than they have ever been, so too are human abilities to model, predict, and manage current and future impacts. (HS-ESS3-5) - Through computer simulations and other studies, important discoveries are still being made about how the ocean, the atmosphere, and the biosphere interact and are modified in response to human activities. (HS-ESS3-6)

N/A = Not applicable for this grade range

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Engineering Design

	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ETS1: Engineering Design ETS1.A: Defining and Delimiting Engineering Problems	- A situation that people want to change or create can be approached as a problem to be solved through engineering. Such problems may have many acceptable solutions. (K–2-ETS1-1) (secondary to K-PS2-2) - Asking questions, making observations, and gathering information are helpful in thinking about problems. (K–2-ETS1-1), (secondary to K-ESS3-2) - Before beginning to design a solution, it is important to clearly understand the problem. (K–2-ETS1-1)	Possible solutions to a problem are limited by available materials and resources (constraints). The success of a designed solution is determined by considering the desired features of a solution (criteria). Different proposals for solutions can be compared on the basis of how well each one meets the specified criteria for success or how well each takes the constraints into account. (3–5-ETS1-1), (secondary to 4-PS3-4)	The more precisely a design task's criteria and constraints can be defined, the more likely it is that the designed solution will be successful. Specification of constraints includes consideration of scientific principles and other relevant knowledge that is likely to limit possible solutions. (MS-ETS1-1), (secondary to MS-PS3-3)	- Criteria and constraints also include satisfying any requirements set by society, such as taking issues of risk mitigation into account, and they should be quantified to the extent possible and stated in such a way that one can tell if a given design meets them. (HS-ETS1-1), (secondary to HS-PS2-3), (secondary to HS-PS3-3) - Humanity faces major global challenges today, such as the need for supplies of clean water and food or for energy sources that minimize pollution, which can be addressed through engineering. These global challenges also may have manifestations in local communities. (HS-ETS1-1)

Disciplinary Core Ideas in Engineering Design <i>(continued)</i>				
	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
ETS1.B: Developing Possible Solutions	Designs can be conveyed through sketches, drawings, or physical models. These representations are useful in communicating ideas for a problem's solutions to other people. (K–2-ETS1-2), (secondary to K-ESS3-3), (secondary to 2-LS2-2)	- Research on a problem should be carried out before beginning to design a solution. Testing a solution involves investigating how well it performs under a range of likely conditions. (3–5-ETS1-2) - At whatever stage, communicating with peers about proposed solutions is an important part of the design process, and shared ideas can lead to improved designs. (3–5-ETS1-2) - Tests are often designed to identify failure points or difficulties, which suggest the elements of the design that need to be improved. (3–5-ETS1-3) - Testing a solution involves investigating how well it performs under a range of likely conditions. (secondary to 4-ESS3-2)	- A solution needs to be tested, and then modified on the basis of the test results, in order to improve it. (MS-ETS1-4), (secondary to MS-PS1-6) - There are systematic processes for evaluating solutions with respect to how well they meet criteria and constraints of a problem. MS-ETS1-2), (MS-ETS1-3), (secondary to MS-PS3-3), (secondary to MS-LS2-5) - Sometimes parts of different solutions can be combined to create a solution that is better than any of its predecessors. (MS-ETS1-3) - Models of all kinds are important for testing solutions. (MS-ETS1-4)	- When evaluating solutions it is important to take into account a range of constraints including cost, safety, reliability, and aesthetics and to consider social, cultural, and environmental impacts. (secondary to HS-LS2-7), (secondary to HS-LS4-6), (secondary to HS-ESS3-2), (secondary to HS-ESS3-4), (HS-ETS1-3) - Both physical models and computers can be used in various ways to aid in the engineering design process. Computers are useful for a variety of purposes, such as running simulations to test different ways of solving a problem or to see which one is most efficient or economical; and in making a persuasive presentation to a client about how a given design will meet his or her needs. (HS-ETS1-4), (secondary to HS-LS4-6)
ETS1.C: Optimizing the Design Solution	Because there is always more than one possible solution to a problem, it is useful to compare and test designs. (K–2-ETS1-3), (secondary to 2-ESS2-1)	Different solutions need to be tested in order to determine which of them best solves the problem, given the criteria and the constraints. (3–5-ETS1-3), (secondary to 4-PS4-3)	- Although one design may not perform the best across all tests, identifying the characteristics of the design that performed the best in each test can provide useful information for the redesign process—that is, some of the characteristics may be incorporated into the new design. (MS-ETS1-3), (secondary to MS-PS1-6) - The iterative process of testing the most promising solutions and modifying what is proposed on the basis of the test results leads to greater refinement and ultimately to an optimal solution. (MS-ETS1-4), (secondary to MS-PS1-6)	Criteria may need to be broken down into simpler ones that can be approached systematically, and decisions about the priority of certain criteria over others (trade-offs) may be needed. (HS-ETS1-2), (secondary to HS-PS1-6), (secondary to HS-PS2-3)

Connections to the Nature of Science

Understandings About the Nature of Science Most Closely Associated With Practices				
Category	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Scientific Investigations Use a Variety of Methods	- Science investigations begin with a question. - Science uses different ways to study the world.	- Science methods are determined by questions. - Science investigations use a variety of methods, tools, and techniques.	- Science investigations use a variety of methods and tools to make measurements and observations. - Science investigations are guided by a set of values to ensure accuracy of measurements, observations, and objectivity of findings. - Science depends on evaluating proposed explanations. - Scientific values function as criteria in distinguishing between science and non-science.	- Science investigations use diverse methods and do not always use the same set of procedures to obtain data. - New technologies advance scientific knowledge. - Scientific inquiry is characterized by a common set of values that include logical thinking, precision, open-mindedness, objectivity, skepticism, replicability of results, and honest and ethical reporting of findings. - The discourse practices of science are organized around disciplinary domains that share exemplars for making decisions regarding the values, instruments, methods, models, and evidence to adopt and use. - Scientific investigations use a variety of methods, tools, and techniques to revise and produce new knowledge.
Scientific Knowledge Is Based on Empirical Evidence	Scientists look for patterns and order when making observations about the world.	- Science findings are based on recognizing patterns. - Science uses tools and technologies to make accurate measurements and observations.	- Science knowledge is based upon logical and conceptual connections between evidence and explanations. - Science disciplines share common rules of obtaining and evaluating empirical evidence.	- Science knowledge is based on empirical evidence. - Science disciplines share common rules of evidence used to evaluate explanations about natural systems. - Science includes the process of coordinating patterns of evidence with current theory. - Science arguments are strengthened by multiple lines of evidence supporting a single explanation.

Connections to the Nature of Science (*continued*)

Category	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Scientific Knowledge Is Open to Revision in Light of New Evidence	Science knowledge can change when new information is found.	Science explanations can change based on new evidence.	- Scientific explanations are subject to revision and improvement in light of new evidence. - The certainty and durability of science findings vary. - Science findings are frequently revised and/or reinterpreted based on new evidence.	- Scientific explanations can be probabilistic. - Most scientific knowledge is quite durable but is, in principle, subject to change based on new evidence and/or reinterpretation of existing evidence. - Scientific argumentation is a mode of logical discourse used to clarify the strength of relationships between ideas and evidence that may result in revision of an explanation.
Science Models, Laws, Mechanisms, and Theories Explain Natural Phenomena	- Science uses drawings, sketches, and models as a way to communicate ideas. - Science searches for cause-and effect relationships to explain natural events.	- Science theories are based on a body of evidence and many tests. - Science explanations describe the mechanisms for natural events.	- Theories are explanations for observable phenomena. - Science theories are based on a body of evidence developed over time. - Laws are regularities or mathematical descriptions of natural phenomena. - A hypothesis is used by scientists as an idea that may contribute important new knowledge for the evaluation of a scientific theory. - The term “theory” as used in science is very different from the common use outside of science.	- Theories and laws provide explanations in science, but theories do not with time become laws or facts. - A scientific theory is a substantiated explanation of some aspect of the natural world, based on a body of facts that have been repeatedly confirmed through observation and experiment, and the science community validates each theory before it is accepted. If new evidence is discovered that the theory does not accommodate, the theory is generally modified in light of this new evidence. - Models, mechanisms, and explanations collectively serve as tools in the development of a scientific theory. - Laws are statements or descriptions of the relationships among observable phenomena. - Scientists often use hypotheses to develop and test theories and explanations.

Understandings About the Nature of Science Most Closely Associated With Crosscutting Concepts				
Category	Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Science Is a Way of Knowing	Science knowledge helps us know about the world.	- Science is both a body of knowledge and processes that add new knowledge. - Science is a way of knowing that is used by many people.	- Science is both a body of knowledge and the processes and practices used to add to that body of knowledge. - Science knowledge is cumulative and many people, from many generations and nations, have contributed to science knowledge. - Science is a way of knowing used by many people, not just scientists.	- Science is both a body of knowledge that represents a current understanding of natural systems and the processes used to refine, elaborate, revise, and extend this knowledge. - Science is a unique way of knowing, and there are other ways of knowing. - Science distinguishes itself from other ways of knowing through use of empirical standards, logical arguments, and skeptical review. - Science knowledge has a history that includes the refinement of, and changes to, theories, ideas, and beliefs over time.
Scientific Knowledge Assumes an Order and Consistency in Natural Systems	- Science assumes natural events happen today as they happened in the past. - Many events are repeated.	- Science assumes consistent patterns in natural systems. - Basic laws of nature are the same everywhere in the universe.	- Science assumes that objects and events in natural systems occur in consistent patterns that are understandable through measurement and observation. - Science carefully considers and evaluates anomalies in data and evidence.	- Scientific knowledge is based on the assumption that natural laws operate today as they did in the past and they will continue to do so in the future. - Science assumes the universe is a vast single system in which basic laws are consistent.
Science Is a Human Endeavor	- People have practiced science for a long time. - Men and women of diverse backgrounds are scientists and engineers.	- Men and women from all cultures and backgrounds choose careers as scientists and engineers. - Most scientists and engineers work in teams. - Science affects everyday life. - Creativity and imagination are important to science.	- Men and women from different social, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds work as scientists and engineers. - Scientists and engineers rely on human qualities such as persistence, precision, reasoning, logic, imagination, and creativity. - Scientists and engineers are guided by habits of mind such as intellectual honesty, tolerance of ambiguity, skepticism, and openness to new ideas. - Advances in technology influence the progress of science, and science has influenced advances in technology.	- Scientific knowledge is a result of human endeavor, imagination, and creativity. - Individuals and teams from many nations and cultures have contributed to science and to advances in engineering. - Scientists' backgrounds, theoretical commitments, and fields of endeavor influence the nature of their findings. - Technological advances have influenced the progress of science, and science has influenced advances in technology. - Science and engineering are influenced by society, and society is influenced by science and engineering.
Science Addresses Questions About the Natural and Material World	Scientists study the natural and material world.	Science findings are limited to questions that can be answered with empirical evidence.	- Scientific knowledge is constrained by human capacity, technology, and materials. - Science limits its explanations to systems that lend themselves to observation and empirical evidence. - Science knowledge can describe consequences of actions but is not responsible for society's decisions.	- Not all questions can be answered by science. - Science and technology may raise ethical issues for which science, by itself, does not provide answers and solutions. - Science knowledge indicates what can happen in natural systems—not what should happen. The latter involves ethics, values, and human decisions about the use of knowledge. - Many decisions are not made using science alone, but rely on social and cultural contexts to resolve issues.

Connections to Engineering, Technology, and Applications of Science

Grades K–2	Grades 3–5	Grades 6–8	Grades 9–12
Interdependence of Science, Engineering, and Technology			
Science and engineering involve the use of tools to observe and measure things.	- Science and technology support each other. - Tools and instruments are used to answer scientific questions, while scientific discoveries lead to the development of new technologies.	- Engineering advances have led to important discoveries in virtually every field of science, and scientific discoveries have led to the development of entire industries and engineered systems. - Science and technology drive each other forward.	- Science and engineering complement each other in the cycle known as research and development (R&D). - Many R&D projects may involve scientists, engineers, and others with wide ranges of expertise.
Influence of Science, Engineering, and Technology on Society and the Natural World			
- Every human-made product is designed by applying some knowledge of the natural world and is built by using natural materials. - Taking natural materials to make things impacts the environment.	- People's needs and wants change over time, as do their demands for new and improved technologies. - Engineers improve existing technologies or develop new ones to increase their benefits, decrease known risks, and meet societal demands. - When new technologies become available, they can bring about changes in the way people live and interact with one another.	- All human activity draws on natural resources and has both short- and long-term consequences, positive as well as negative, for the health of people and the natural environment. - The uses of technologies and any limitations on their use are driven by individual or societal needs, desires, and values; by the findings of scientific research; and by differences in such factors as climate, natural resources, and economic conditions. - Technology use varies over time and from region to region.	- Modern civilization depends on major technological systems, such as agriculture, health, water, energy, transportation, manufacturing, construction, and communications. - Engineers continuously modify these systems to increase benefits while decreasing costs and risks. - New technologies can have deep impacts on society and the environment, including some that were not anticipated. - Analysis of costs and benefits is a critical aspect of decisions about technology.

NGSS

K-12

Since the release of the first draft of the *Next Generation Science Standards* (NGSS), NSTA has been at the forefront in promoting the standards and helping science educators become familiar with and learn to navigate this exciting but complex document. Later, when the final version was released and states began adopting the standards, NSTA started to develop resources that would assist educators with their implementation.

Along the way, NSTA learned that even the simplest of resources, like a one-page cheat sheet, can be extremely useful. Many of those tools are collected here, including

- a two-page cheat sheet that describes the practices, core ideas, and cross-cutting concepts that make up the three dimensions described in *A Framework for K-12 Science Education*;
- an “Inside the NGSS Box” graphic that spells out all of the individual sections of text that appear on a page of the NGSS;
- a Venn diagram comparing the practices in NGSS with *Common Core State Standards* in English language arts and mathematics; and
- matrixes showing how the NGSS are organized by topic and disciplinary core idea.

This guide also highlights the appropriate performance expectations; disciplinary core ideas; practices; crosscutting concepts; connections to engineering, technology, and applications of science; and connections to nature of science. It is designed to be used with the NGSS.

The book’s emphasis is on *easy*. Find the parts of the standards most relevant to you, acquaint yourself with the format, and find out what each of the different parts means. *The NSTA Quick-Reference Guides to the NGSS* are also available in grade-specific versions—one each for elementary, middle, and high school. These *Quick-Reference Guides* are indispensable to science teachers at all levels, as well as to administrators, curriculum developers, and teacher educators.

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