

UNIVERSITY OF SWAZILAND**FACULTY OF EDUCATION****DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM AND TEACHING****FINAL EXAMINATION QUESTION PAPER, MAY 2011****TITLE OF PAPER : CURRICULUM STUDIES IN BIOLOGY II****COURSE CODE : EDC 378****STUDENTS : B.Ed III, PGCE****TIME ALLOWED : THREE (3) HOURS**

- INSRTUCTIONS:**
- 1. This question paper has six (6) questions. Answer four (4) questions only**
 - 2. Each question has a total of 25 points. The number of points for each sub-question, where it exists, is indicated in parentheses**
 - 3. There is an attachment for one question**

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1. a) Compare and contrast the characteristics of science curricula during the following eras [10]
 - i) before the launch of sputnik
 - ii) during the science curriculum reform movement
 - iii) during STS

b) According to Aikenhead (1994), a major aim of STS approach to curriculum is to help students make sense out of their everyday experiences. Discuss how STS achieves this aim. [15]
2. a) Explain what is meant by the following:
 - i) Gender mainstreaming [3]
 - ii) Gender equality [2]
 - iii) Gender equity [2]

b) In Africa, girls lag behind boys in access to, participation and performance in SMT education and education in general. Discuss the efforts that are being made by Female Education in Mathematics and Science in Africa (FEMSA) and Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) in response to this state of affairs, paying particular attention to the activities of FAWESWA. [18]
3. a) You have been tasked with preparing science curriculum materials for Junior Certificate Science in Swaziland. Discuss the aspects of contemporary Swazi society you would consider for formulating the objectives that would guide the development process. [15]
- b) Explain how you would use the following resources to teach a topic on cell structure and function in a rural school in Swaziland [10]

Overhead projector/transparency

Charts

Textbooks/workbooks

4. a) Explain the advantages of using discovery learning as an instructional tool. [5]

b) Construct a concept map for the topic “digestion in the stomach”, at Form IV level, using the concepts below. The construction process should show the following steps:

- Ranking of concepts that function at the same level [2]
Clustering of concepts that function at the same level [3]
Hierarchical arrangement of concepts [5]
Labelled valid linkages that explain the nature of the relationships [10]

Digestion in the stomach, gastric juice, pepsin, pyloric sphincter, peristaltic movement, proteins, hydrochloric acid, protease, duodenum, gastric glands, peptides, enzyme, muscle, bacteria, stomach wall, acidic medium, chyme, substrate.

5. A 2006 survey of selected secondary schools in Swaziland found that even though most schools had their laboratories in good condition, there were hardly any practicals taking place in the schools.

a) Suggest possible reasons for this prevailing situation. [15]

b) Outline a proposal of how you would remedy the above situation. [10]

6. a) Explain the importance of allowing learners to use personal language in explaining science concepts and phenomena. [10]

b) You are assigned to teach Form IV's the following topics during the first four weeks of teaching practice. Syllabus and appropriate content are attached.

cell structure and organisation; levels of organisation and size of specimens

i) Show how you would sequence the topics and why. [5]

ii) Prepare a scheme of work for the **first week only** when provided with one double period and two single periods per week for Biology. [10]

Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education
Biology

2009-2010 Syllabus

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SECTION II - ORGANISATION AND MAINTENANCE OF THE ORGANISM (50% of teaching time)	
CORE	EXTENDED
1. Cell structure and organisation cellular nature of all living organisms	
<p>All learners should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - identify and describe the structure of a plant cell (palisade cell) and an animal cell (liver cell), as seen under a light microscope. - describe the differences in structure between typical animal and plant cells. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - relate the structures seen under the light microscope in the plant cell and in the animal cell to their functions.
2. Levels of organisation Modification of cell structure for specific functions	
<p>All learners should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - define development as an increase in complexity through the differentiation of cells. - define <i>tissue</i> as a group of cells of similar structure that work together to perform a special function (job). - relate the structure of the following to their functions: palisade mesophyll cells – photosynthesis, ciliated cells – in respiratory tract, root hair cells – absorption xylem vessels – conduction and support, muscle cells – contraction, red blood cells – transport. - define <i>organ</i> as several tissues grouped together to make a structure with a special function, <i>organ system</i> as a group of organs with closely related functions. - use examples of organs and organ systems, as illustrated by examples covered in Sections II and III. 	
3. Size of specimens	
<p>All learners should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - calculate magnification and size of biological specimens using millimetres as units. 	
4. Movement in and out of cells	
<p>All learners should be able to:</p> <p>4.1 Diffusion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - define <i>diffusion</i> as the movement of molecules from a region of their higher concentration to a region of their lower concentration down a concentration gradient. - describe the importance of gaseous and solute diffusion, and of water as a solvent. 	

1 Cells and tissues

Cell structure

How tissues are studied to see cells: taking sections. Cell components. Plant cells.

Cell division and cell specialization

Cell division and growth. Specialization of cells for different functions.

Tissues and organs

Definitions and examples of tissues, organs and systems.

Practical work

Preparing, observing and drawing plant and animal cells.

Cell structure

If a very thin slice of a plant stem is cut and studied under a microscope, it can be seen that the stem consists of thousands of tiny, box-like structures. These structures are called **cells**. Figure 1.1 is a thin slice taken from the tip of a plant shoot and photographed through a microscope. Photographs like this are called **photomicrographs**. The one in Figure 1.1 is 60 times larger than life, so a cell which appears to be 2 mm long in the picture is only 0.03 mm long in life.

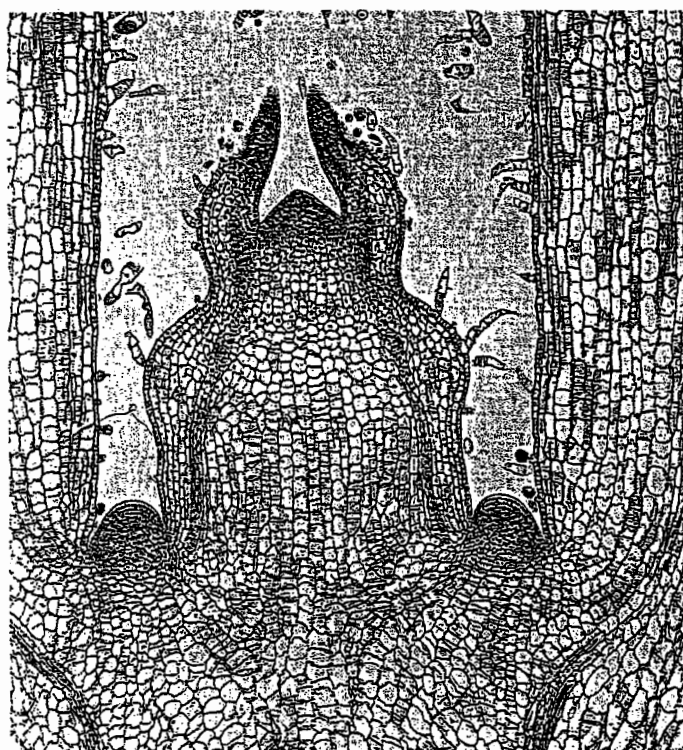
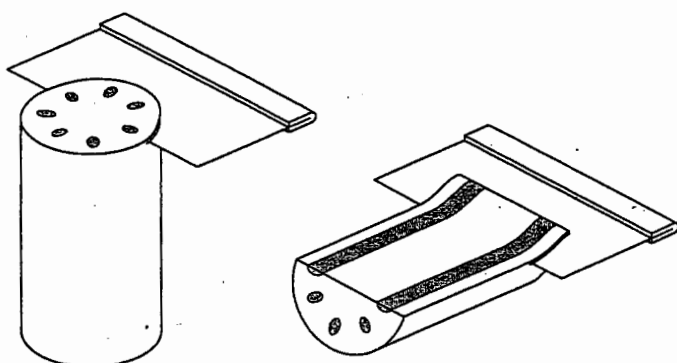


Figure 1.1 Longitudinal section through the tip of a plant shoot ($\times 60$). The slice is only one cell thick, so light can pass through it and allow the cells to be seen clearly

Thin slices of this kind are called **sections**. If you cut *along the length* of the structure, you are taking a **longitudinal section** (Figure 1.2b). Figure 1.1 shows a longitudinal section, which passes through two small

developing leaves near the tip of the shoot, and two larger leaves below them. The leaves, buds and stem are all made up of cells. If you cut *across* the structure, you make a **transverse section** (Figure 1.2a).



(a) transverse section

(b) longitudinal section

Figure 1.2 Cutting sections of a plant stem

It is fairly easy to cut sections through plant structures just by using a razor blade. To cut sections of animal structures is more difficult because they are mostly soft and flexible. Pieces of skin, muscle or liver, for example, first have to be soaked in melted wax. When the wax goes solid it is then possible to cut thin sections. The wax is dissolved away after making the section.

When sections of animal structures are examined under the microscope, they, too, are seen to be made up of cells but they are much smaller than plant cells and need to be magnified more. The photomicrograph of kidney tissue in Figure 1.3 has been magnified 700 times to show the cells clearly. The sections are often treated with dyes, called 'stains', in order to show up the structures inside the cells more clearly.

Making sections is not the only way to study cells. Thin strips of plant tissue, only one cell thick, can be pulled off stems or leaves (Experiment 1, p. 9). Plant or animal tissue can be squashed or smeared on a microscope slide (Experiment 2, p. 10) or treated with chemicals to separate the cells before studying them.

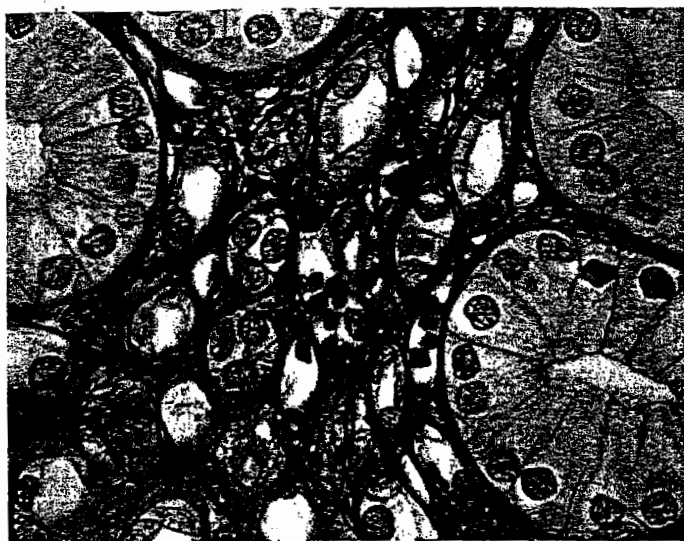


Figure 1.3 Transverse section through a kidney tubule ($\times 700$). A section through a tube will look like a ring (see Figure 1.12b on p. 7). In this case, each 'ring' consists of about 12 cells

There is no such thing as a typical plant or animal cell because cells vary a great deal in their size and shape depending on their function. Nevertheless, it is possible to make a drawing like Figure 1.4 to show features which are present in most cells. *All cells* have a **cell membrane**, which is a thin boundary enclosing the **cytoplasm**. Most cells have a **nucleus**.

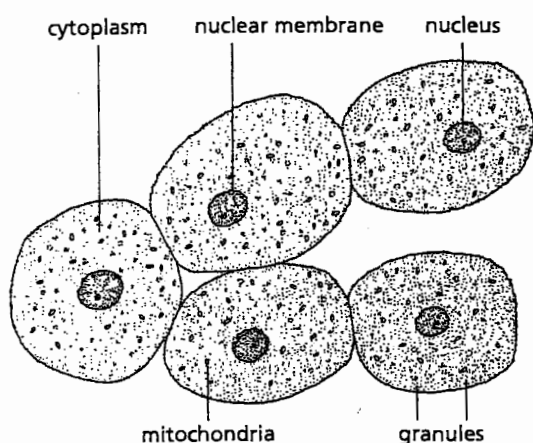


Figure 1.4 A group of liver cells. These cells have all the characteristics of animal cells

Cytoplasm

Under the ordinary microscope (light microscope), cytoplasm looks like a thick liquid with particles in it. In plant cells it may be seen to be flowing about. The particles may be food reserves such as oil droplets or granules of starch. Other particles are structures which have particular functions in the cytoplasm. These structures are the **organelles**. Examples are the **ribosomes**, which build up the cell's proteins (see p. 11) and the **mitochondria**, which generate energy for the cell's living processes (see p. 20).

When studied at much higher magnifications with the **electron microscope**, the cytoplasm no longer looks like a structureless jelly but appears to be organized into a complex system of membranes and vacuoles.

In the cytoplasm, a great many chemical reactions are taking place which keep the cell alive by providing energy and making substances that the cell needs (see pp. 11 and 20).

The liquid part of cytoplasm is about 90 per cent water with molecules of salts and sugars dissolved in it. Suspended in this solution there are larger molecules of fats (lipids) and proteins (see pp. 11–12). Lipids and proteins may be used to build up the cell structures, e.g. the membranes. Some of the proteins are **enzymes** (p. 14). Enzymes control the rate and type of chemical reactions which take place in the cells. Some enzymes are attached to the membrane systems of the cell, whereas others float freely in the liquid part of the cytoplasm.

Cell membrane

This is a thin layer of cytoplasm round the outside of the cell. It stops the cell contents from escaping and also controls the substances which are allowed to enter and leave the cell. In general, oxygen, food and water are allowed to enter; waste products are allowed to leave and harmful substances are kept out. In this way the cell membrane maintains the structure and chemical reactions of the cytoplasm.

Nucleus (plural = nuclei)

Most cells contain one nucleus, which is usually seen as a rounded structure enclosed in a membrane and embedded in the cytoplasm. In drawings of cells, the nucleus may be shown darker than the cytoplasm because, in prepared sections, it takes up certain stains more strongly than the cytoplasm. The function of the nucleus is to control the type and quantity of enzymes produced by the cytoplasm. In this way it regulates the chemical changes which take place in the cell. As a result, the nucleus determines what the cell will be, e.g. a blood cell, a liver cell, a muscle cell or a nerve cell.

The nucleus also controls cell division as shown in Figure 1.8 on p. 5. A cell without a nucleus cannot reproduce. Inside the nucleus are thread-like structures called **chromosomes**, which can be seen most easily at the time when the cell is dividing. (See p. 182 for a fuller account of chromosomes.)

Mitochondria

The mitochondria are tiny organelles present in plant and animal cells. They may be spherical, rod-like or elongated. They are most numerous in regions of rapid chemical activity and are responsible for producing energy from food substances (see 'Respiration', p. 19).

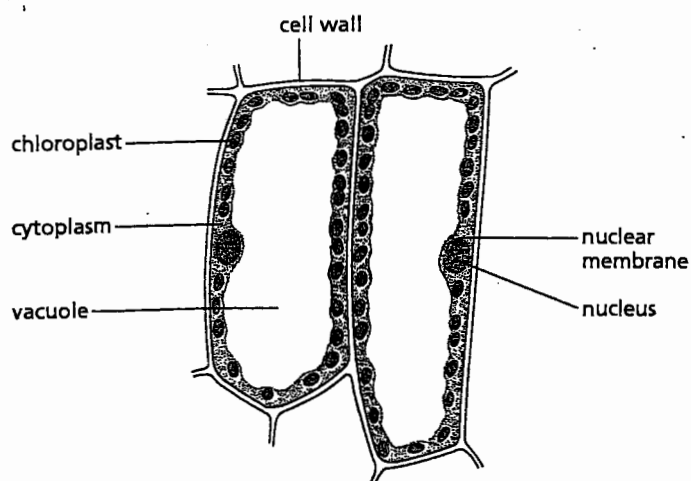


Figure 1.5 Palisade cells from a leaf

Plant cells

A few generalized animal cells are represented by Figure 1.4, while Figure 1.5 is a drawing of two palisade cells from a plant leaf (see pp. 51 and 53).

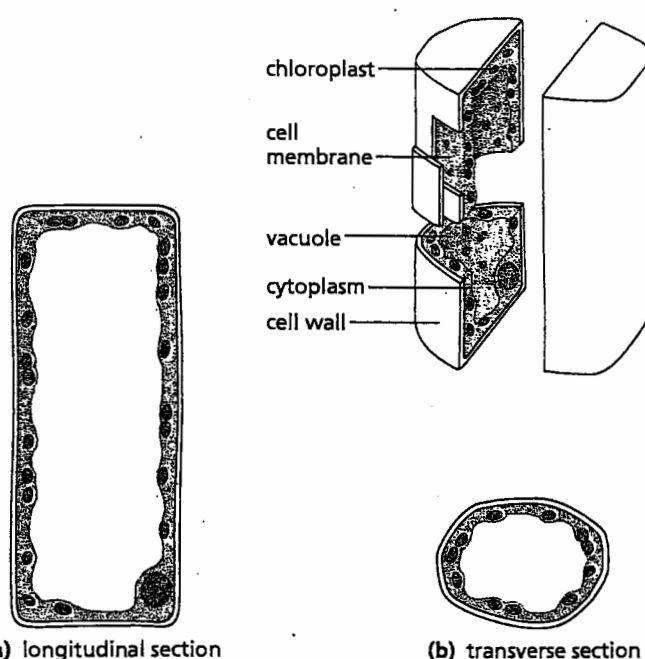
Plant cells differ from animal cells in several ways:

- 1 Outside the cell membrane they all have a **cell wall** which contains cellulose and other compounds. It is non-living and allows water and dissolved substances to pass through. The cell wall is not selective like the cell membrane. (Note that plant cells *do* have a cell membrane but it is not easy to see or draw because it is pressed against the inside of the cell wall. See Figure 1.6.)

Under the microscope, plant cells are quite distinct and easy to see because of their cell walls. In Figure 1.1 it is only the cell walls (and in some cases the nuclei) which can be seen. Each plant cell has its own cell wall but the boundary between two cells side by side does not usually show up clearly. Cells next to each other therefore appear to be sharing the same cell wall.

- 2 Most mature plant cells have a large, fluid-filled space called a **vacuole**. The vacuole contains **cell sap**, a watery solution of sugars, salts and sometimes pigments. This large, central vacuole pushes the cytoplasm aside so that it forms just a thin lining inside the cell wall. It is the outward pressure of the vacuole on the cytoplasm and cell wall which makes plant cells and their tissues firm (see p. 30). Animal cells may sometimes have small vacuoles in their cytoplasm but they are usually produced to do a particular job and are not permanent.

- 3 In the cytoplasm of plant cells are many organelles called **plastids** which are not present in animal cells. If they contain the green substance **chlorophyll**, the organelles are called **chloroplasts** (see p.38). Colourless plastids usually contain starch, which is used as a food store.



(a) longitudinal section

(b) transverse section

Figure 1.6 Structure of a palisade cell. It is important to remember that, although cells look flat in sections or in thin strips of tissue, they are in fact three-dimensional and may seem to have different shapes according to the direction in which the section is cut. If the cell is cut across it will look like (b); if cut longitudinally it will look like (a)

The shape of a cell when seen in a transverse section may be quite different when the same cell is seen in a longitudinal section and Figure 1.6 shows why this is so. Figures 6.10b and 6.10c on p.55 show the appearance of cells in a stem vein as seen in transverse and longitudinal section.

Questions

- 1 a What structures are usually present in all cells, whether they are from an animal or from a plant?
b What structures are present in plant cells but not in animal cells?
- 2 What cell structure is largely responsible for controlling the entry and exit of substances into or out of the cell?
- 3 In what way does the red blood cell shown in Figure 12.1 on p. 108 differ from most other animal cells?
- 4 How does a cell membrane differ from a cell wall?
- 5 Why does the cell shown in Figure 1.6b appear to have no nucleus?
- 6 a In order to see cells clearly in a section of plant tissue, would you have to magnify the tissue
(i) $\times 5$,
(ii) $\times 10$,
(iii) $\times 100$ or
(iv) $\times 1000$?
b What is the approximate width (in mm) of one of the largest cells in Figure 1.3?
- 7 In Figure 1.3, the cell membranes are not always clear. Why is it still possible to decide roughly how many cells there are in each tubule section?

Cell division and cell specialization

Cell division

When plants and animals grow, their cells increase in number by dividing. Typical growing regions are the ends of bones, layers of cells in the skin, root tips and buds (Figure 1.10). Each cell divides to produce two daughter cells. Both daughter cells may divide again, but usually one of the cells grows and changes its shape and structure and becomes adapted to do one particular job – in other words, it becomes **specialized** (Figure 1.7). At the same time it loses its ability to divide any more. The other cell is still able to divide and so continue the growth of the tissue. **Growth** is, therefore, the result of cell division, followed by cell enlargement and, in many cases, cell specialization.

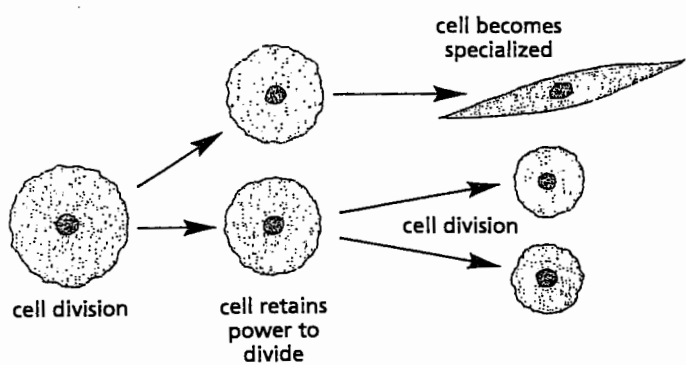


Figure 1.7 Cell division and specialization. Cells which retain the ability to divide are sometimes called **stem cells**

The process of cell division in an animal cell is shown in Figure 1.8. The events in a plant cell are shown in Figures 1.9 and 1.10. Because of the cell wall, the cytoplasm cannot simply pinch off in the middle, and a new wall has to be laid down between the two daughter cells. Also a new vacuole has to form.

Organelles such as mitochondria and chloroplasts are able to divide and are shared more or less equally between the daughter cells at cell division.

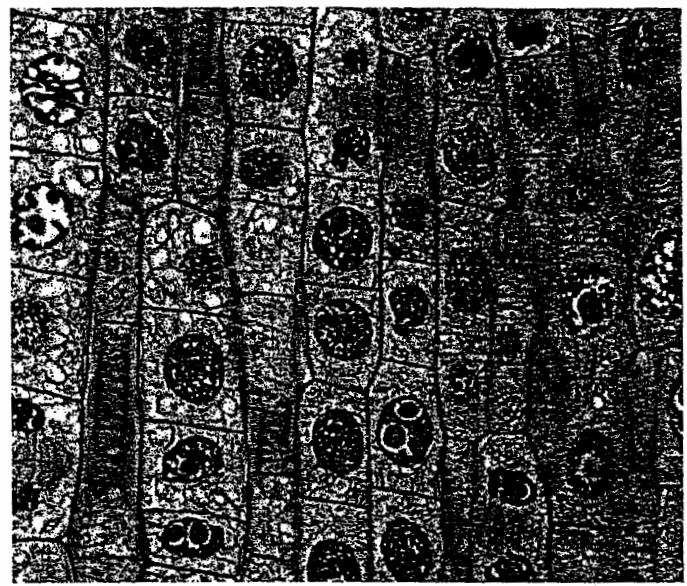


Figure 1.10 Cell division in an onion root tip ($\times 300$). The nuclei are stained blue. Most of the cells have just completed cell division

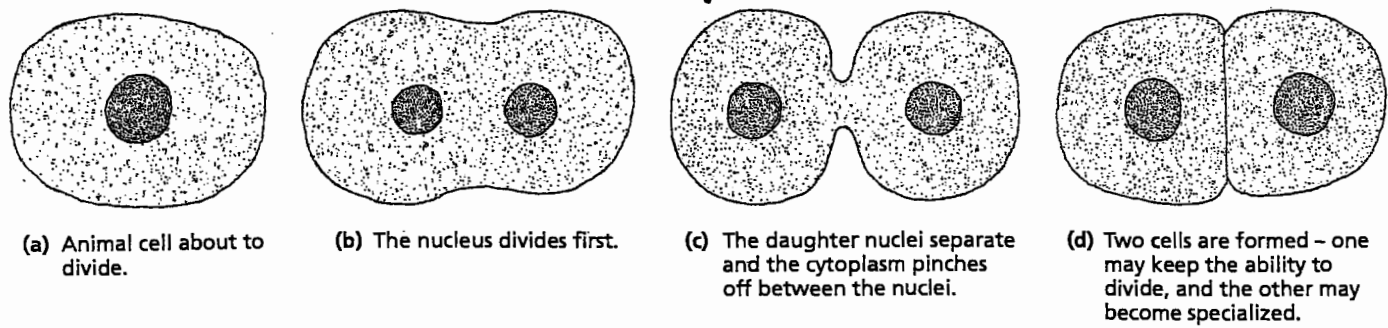


Figure 1.8 Cell division in an animal cell

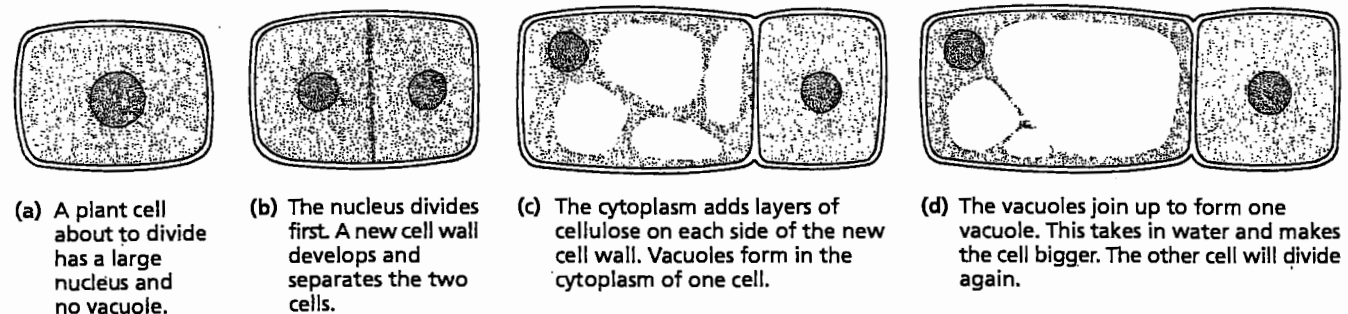


Figure 1.9 Cell division in a plant cell

Specialization of cells

Most cells, when they have finished dividing and growing, become specialized (Figure 1.11). This means that:

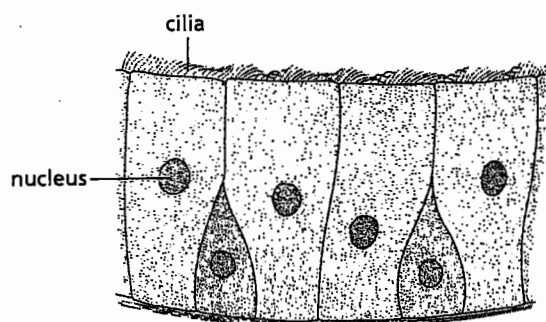
- They do one particular job.
- They develop a distinct shape.
- Special kinds of chemical change take place in their cytoplasm. The changes in shape and chemical reactions enable the cell to carry out its special function. Nerve cells and guard cells are examples of specialized cells.

Nerve cells (Figure 1.11e):

- Conduct electrical impulses to and from the brain.
- Some of them are very long and connect distant parts of the body to the spinal cord and brain.
- Their chemical reactions cause the impulses to travel along the fibre.

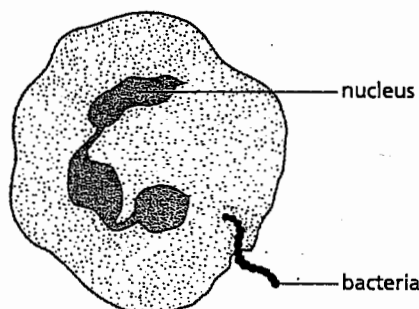
Root hair cells (Figure 1.11d):

- Absorb water and mineral salts from the soil.
- The hair-like projection penetrates between the soil particles and offers a large absorbing surface.
- The cell membrane is able to control which dissolved substances enter the cell.



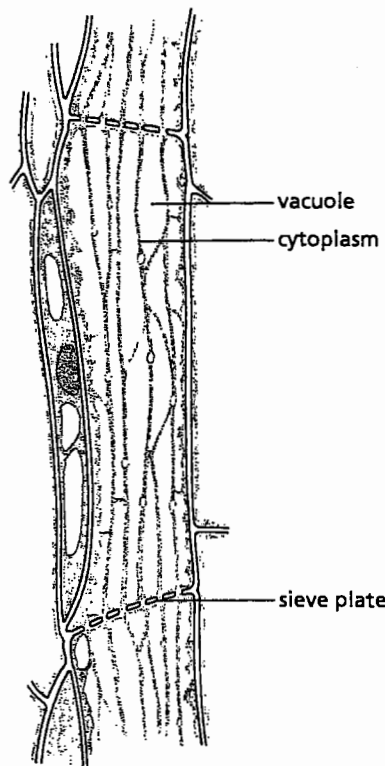
(a) ciliated cells

These form the lining of the nose and windpipe, and the tiny cytoplasmic 'hairs', called cilia, are in a continually flicking movement keeping up a stream of fluid (mucus) that carries dust and bacteria away from the lungs.



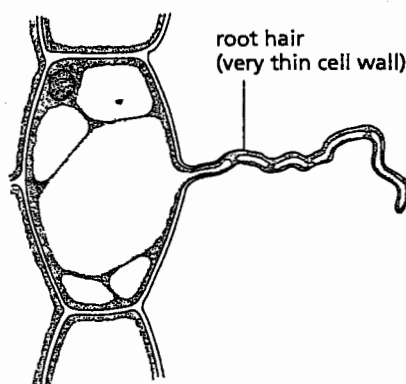
(b) white blood cell

Occurs in the bloodstream and is specialized for engulfing harmful bacteria. It is able to change its shape and move about, even through the walls of blood vessels into the surrounding tissues.



(c) food-conducting cell in a plant (phloem cell)

Long cells, joined end to end, and where they meet, perforations occur in the walls. Through these holes the cytoplasm of one cell communicates with the next. Dissolved food is thought to pass through the holes during its transport through the stem.

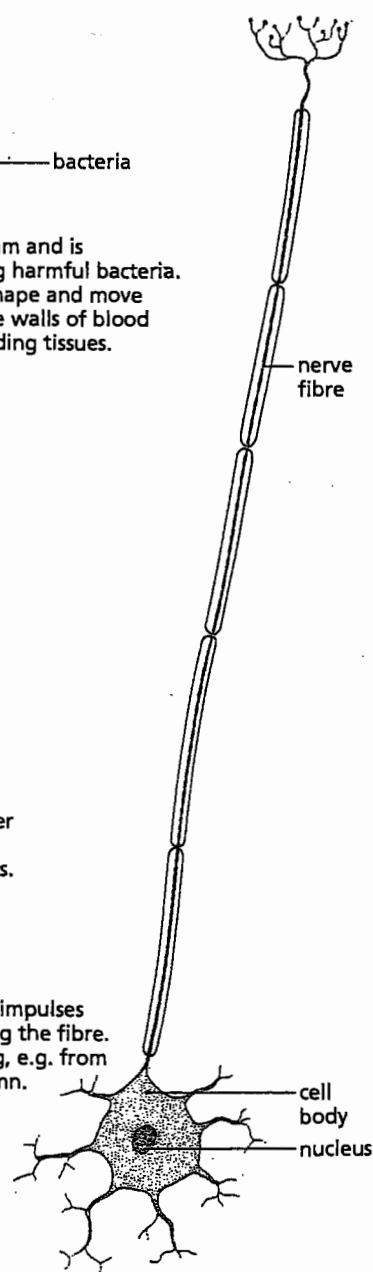


(d) root hair cell

These cells, in their thousands, form the outer layer of young roots and present a vast surface for absorbing water and mineral salts. (See Figures 6.14, 7.6 on pp. 57, 63.)

(e) nerve cell

Specialized for conducting impulses of an electrical nature along the fibre. The fibres may be very long, e.g. from the foot to the spinal column.



The specialization of cells to carry out particular functions in an organism is sometimes referred to as '**division of labour**' within the organism. Similarly, the special functions of mitochondria, ribosomes and other cell organelles may be termed 'division of labour' within the cell.

Questions

- 1 Select from the following events and put them in the correct order for cell division in
 - (i) animal cells,
 - (ii) plant cells:
 - a cytoplasm divides,
 - b vacuole forms in one cell,
 - c new cell wall separates cells,
 - d nucleus divides.
- 2 Look at Figure 6.2 on p. 51.
 - a Whereabouts in a leaf are the food-carrying cells?
 - b What other specialized cells are there in the leaf?

Tissues and organs

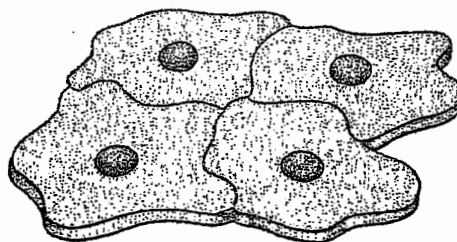
There are some microscopic organisms that consist of one cell only and can carry out all the processes necessary for their survival (see p. 268). The cells of the larger plants and animals cannot survive on their own. A muscle cell could not obtain its own food and oxygen. Other specialized cells have to provide the food and oxygen needed for the muscle cell to live. Unless these cells are grouped together in large numbers and made to work together, they cannot exist for long.

Tissues

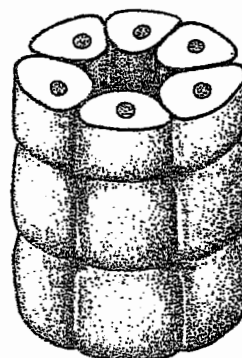
A tissue such as bone, nerve or muscle in animals, and epidermis, phloem or pith (p. 54) in plants, is made up of many hundreds of cells of a few types. The cells of each type have similar structures and functions so that the tissue itself can be said to have a particular function, e.g. nerves conduct impulses, phloem carries food in plants. Figure 1.12 shows how some cells are arranged to form simple tissues.

Organs

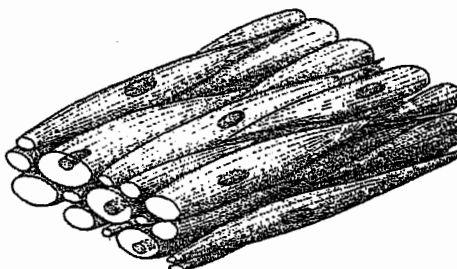
Organs consist of several tissues grouped together to make a structure with a special function. For example, the stomach is an organ which contains tissues made from epithelial cells, gland cells and muscle cells. These cells are supplied with food and oxygen brought by blood vessels. The stomach also has a nerve supply. The heart, lungs, intestines, brain and eyes are further examples of organs in animals. In flowering plants, the root, stem and leaves are the organs. The tissues of the leaf are epidermis, palisade tissue, spongy tissue, xylem and phloem (see pp. 39 and 50–3).



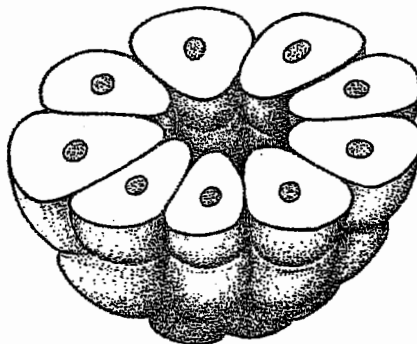
- (a) cells forming an epithelium
A thin layer of tissue, e.g. the lining of the mouth cavity. Different types of epithelium form the internal lining of the windpipe, air passages, food canal, etc., and protect these organs from physical or chemical damage.



- (b) cells forming a small tube
e.g. a kidney tubule (see p. 132). Tubules such as this carry liquids from one part of an organ to another.



- (c) one kind of muscle cell
Forms a sheet of muscle tissue. Blood vessels, nerve fibres and connective tissues will also be present. Contractions of this kind of muscle help to move food along the food canal or to close down small blood vessels.



- (d) cells forming part of a gland
The cells make chemicals which are released into the central space and carried away by a tubule such as shown in (b). Hundreds of cell groups like this would form a gland like the salivary gland.

Figure 1.12 How cells form tissues

System

A system usually refers to a group of organs whose functions are closely related. For example, the heart and blood vessels make up the **circulatory system**; the brain, spinal cord and nerves make up the **nervous system** (Figure 1.13). In a flowering plant, the stem, leaves and buds make up a system called the shoot (p.50).

Organism

An organism is formed by the organs and systems working together to produce an independent plant or animal.

An example in the human body of how cells, tissues and organs are related is shown in Figure 1.14.

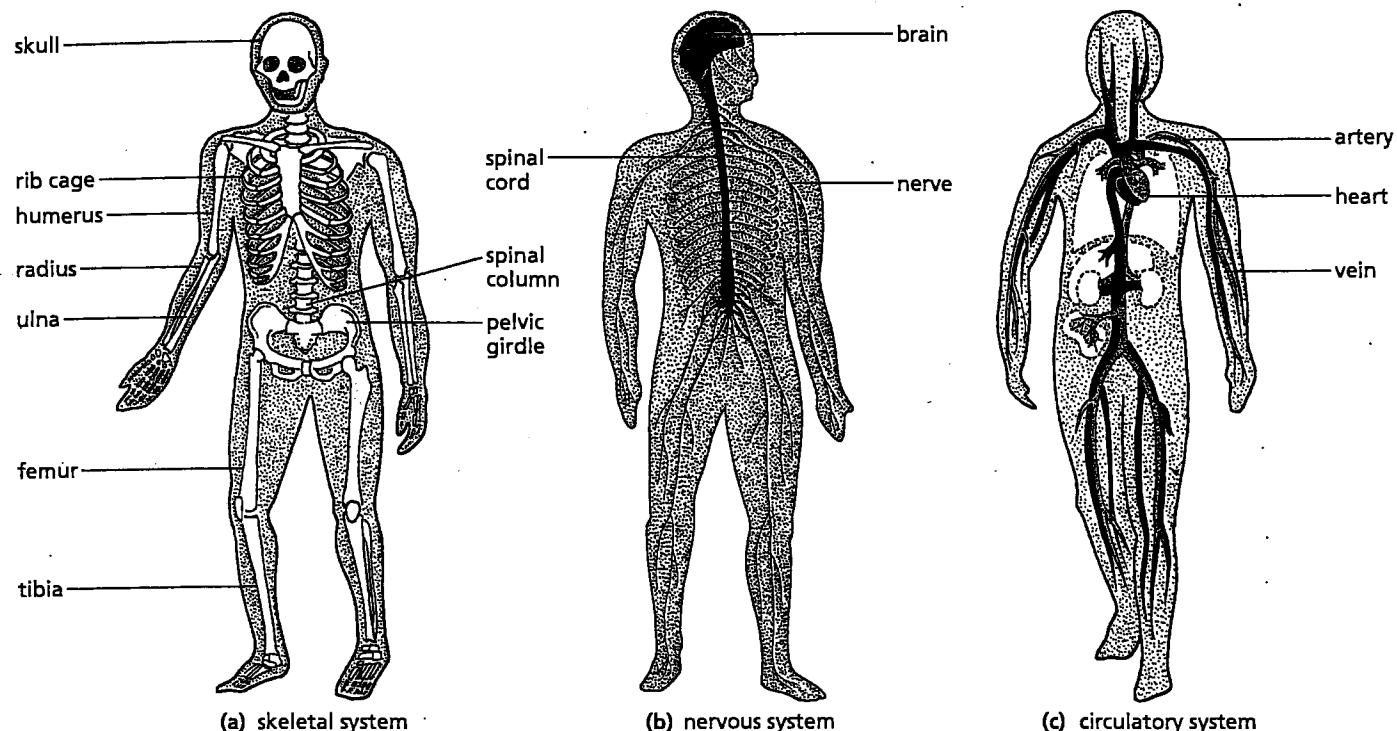


Figure 1.13 Three examples of systems in the human body

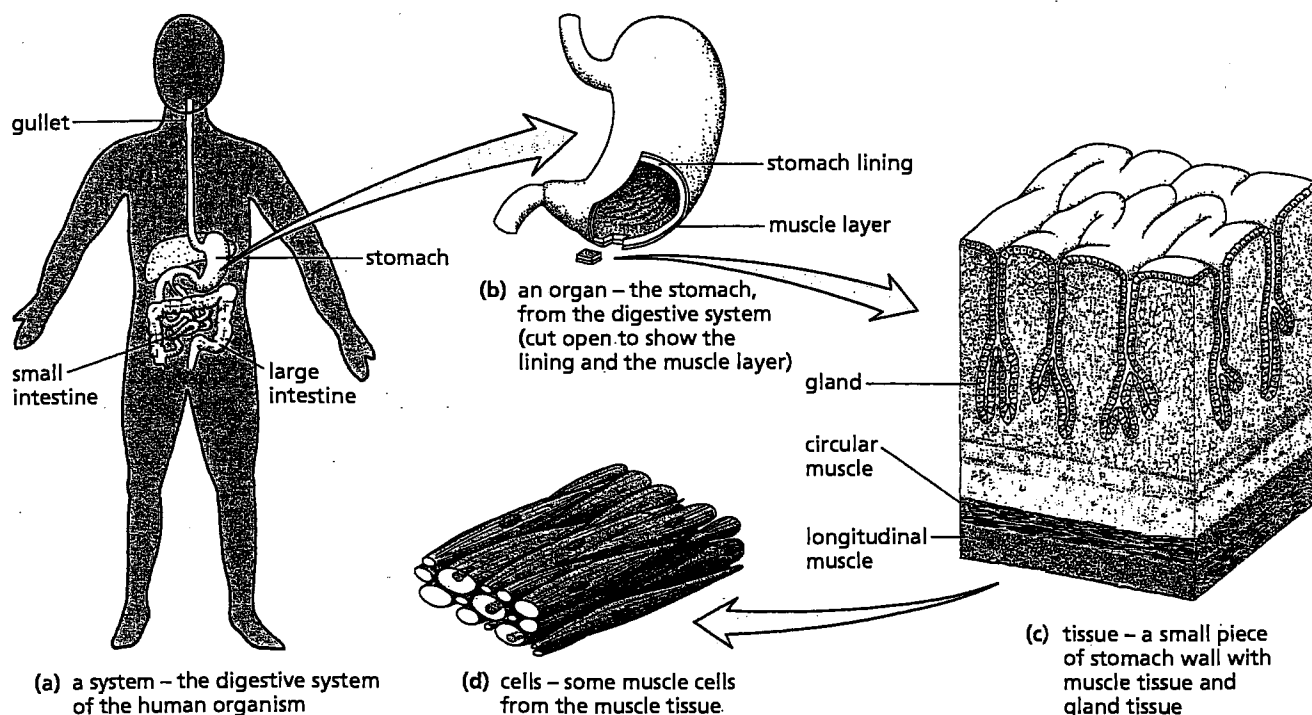


Figure 1.14 An example of how cells, tissues and organs are related