

Analogies and metaphors as a mediational strategy for  
conveying the proportional scale cognition at a middle school  
level

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## Introduction

Notions of scale have been identified as one of the four powerful common themes that transcend disciplinary boundaries and levels. (American Association for the Advancement of Science [ AAAS] 2006).

On the other hand, and as explained by Marsh, Parkes, and Boulter (2001), there has been very little research on children's understanding of scale. There is also a tendency of teachers of underestimating the scale aspect of representation of an object, and do not spend enough time teaching scaling concepts.

By analyzing summative evaluation reports and surveys conducted in informal educational settings, it was found that the general public have limited knowledge and consistent misconceptions about atoms, molecules, DNA, cells, and other things the interviewees cannot see (Edu.Inc, n.d.); misconceptions such as the smallest thing that they can think of is something they can actually see (early elementary students) or objects at the microscopic scale (Holladay, 2005). Another common naive conception is the fact that most of the interviewees had no working concept of one billion and did not understand  $10^{-9}$  ( Edu.Inc). Today's middle school students do not demonstrate an adequate understanding of concepts of scale and size on the micro and the nano level (Tretter, Jones, Andre, Negishi, & Minogue, 2006). Students are unable to identify the relative sizes between micrometer-sized and nanometer-sized objects ( Edu.Inc, n.d., 2004, 2005; Holladay 2005; Jones et al. 2004; Waldron, 2006).

These results can further be corroborated with research done by Nakhleh, Samara-pungavan, and Saglam (2005). They have found that although students knew that matter was composed of atoms and molecules, the middle school students could not be classified as having consistent knowledge frameworks because their ideas were very fragmented. They found that some students had the conception that they could see atoms or molecules under an optical microscope in the same way they could see microbes.

Since scale is an abstract concept and human are not able to perceive it with the naked eye, our identified problem is well described by Sabelli et al. (2005) as: "The problem is

29 conceptual and practical” (p.3), objects and concepts at the atomic, nano, and micro scale  
30 are hard to visualize, difficult to describe, abstract, and their relationships to the observable  
31 world can be counterintuitive. According to this problem definition, we suggest then that  
32 middle school students may require abstract thought in order to understand the concept of  
33 scale (Eylon & Linn, 1988; Inhelder & Piaget, 1958).

34 In the following sections of this literature review we will focus first on characterizing  
35 scale cognition, second on identifying the main learning theories that address the cognitive  
36 processes required to attain scale cognition, and finally, on exploring the role of analogies  
37 and metaphors as learning strategies that will scaffold the cognitive processes in order to  
38 attain the proportional schema of scale cognition.

### 39 Characterizing size and scale cognition

40 For the purpose of characterizing size and scale cognition, it is required to determine  
41 a taxonomy for these conceptions. Informed by Gagne’s taxonomy of learning outcomes,  
42 it is identified that conceptions of size and scale may be related to intellectual skills in the  
43 form of students’ ability to apply knowledge; namely conceptions of size and scale, across  
44 a variety of previously unencountered instances. (Smith & Ragan, 2005). We suggest  
45 then, that initial cognitive processes for attaining scale cognition are generalization and  
46 discrimination among objects of different sizes. The generalization part will depend on the  
47 Piagetian logic of classes, and the discrimination one will depend on the Piagetian logic of  
48 relations for serial ordering. Since these two processes suggest a qualitative process, both  
49 are considered as ‘size’; and will be referred as class inclusion conception of size and serial  
50 ordering conception of size.

51 To exemplify these two conceptions the following set of objects is considered: bacteria,  
52 virus, red blood cell, atom, human egg cell, ant, diameter of a DNA double strand, and  
53 human. The process of generalization of sizes will consist on classifying the atom as part of  
54 the atomic scale, the virus and the diameter of a DNA double strand as corresponding to  
55 the nanoscale, the bacteria, red blood cell and human egg cell as part of the microscale and

56 the ant and human as part of the macroscale. In contrast, the process of discrimination  
57 will consist on ordering the objects according to its sizes: atom < virus < bacteria < red  
58 blood cell < human egg cell < ant < human.

59 A particular concept of our interest is the concept of proportion and the cognitive  
60 process behind it; proportional reasoning. We believe that it is this concept of proportion  
61 the bridge between a qualitative conception of size, to a quantitative conception of scale.  
62 Inhelder and Piaget describe the proportional schema as composed of two aspects; the  
63 logical and the mathematical. "In its general logical form, a proportion is the equivalence  
64 of the relations connecting two terms  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  to the relations connecting two other terms  $\gamma$   
65 and  $\sigma$ ." (p. 314). The authors also argue that the logical aspect leads to the mathematical  
66 one; once the learner has acquired the schemata of the logical one, later on, at any point  
67 the numerical values could be inserted.

68 To exemplify the proportional conceptions of size and scale let's consider some dif-  
69 ferences in relative sizes among some of the objects of the previous example: DNA double  
70 strand, bacteria, ant, and human. For the logical proportional conception of size an ex-  
71 ample would be: the difference in sizes between the height of a human and the length of  
72 an ant is approximately the same-proportional as the difference in sizes between a bacteria  
73 and the diameter of a DNA double strand. In contrast, an example illustrating the case  
74 of the mathematical proportional conception of scale would be: the difference in length  
75 of an ant compared to the height of a human is that the length of an ant is about thou-  
76 sand times smaller than the height of a human as the difference in size between a bacteria  
77 and the diameter of a DNA double strand is that the diameter of a DNA double strand  
78 is about thousand times smaller than the size of a bacteria. It is important to point out  
79 that the mathematical proportional conception of scale involves a process of measurement  
80 that according to Campbell, "... is the process of assigning numbers to represent qualities"  
81 (p.223 as cited in Rozeboom 1966) and therefore the numerical proportional conception is  
82 considered as 'scale'.

83 Finally the last conception of scale will be referred as the numerical absolute size of

84 an object, and the general cognitive process behind the numerical absolute conception of  
 85 scale is mathematical cognition. According to Campbell (2005), mathematical cognition  
 86 deals with questions such as how does the mind represent numbers and make mathematical  
 87 calculations. Therefore, this conception of scale consists on the assignment of an absolute  
 88 number or measurement to an object. For example, the size of a bacteria is one micrometer,  
 89 also expressed as  $1 \mu\text{m}$  or in scientific notation as  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  m.

90 For a summary of our taxonomy of size and scale, and the cognitive processes behind  
 91 each conception, see Table 1.

Table 1: Taxonomy for characterizing size and scale cognition and the cognitive processes behind them.

<b>Cognitive process</b>	<b>Taxonomy</b>
Generalization	qualitative categorical conception - size
Discrimination	qualitative relational conception - size
Logical proportional reasoning	qualitative proportional conception - size
Numerical proportional reasoning	quantitative proportional conception - scale
Mathematical reasoning	quantitative absolute conception - scale

92 In contrast with the characterization of size and scale proposed by Delgado et al.  
 93 (2007), our characterization differs slightly in the following way. Delgado et al. identify  
 94 four conceptions of size: a) qualitative relative concerning on Piaget's seriations by relative  
 95 size, b) Piaget's categorical, related to classification of objects according to their attributes,  
 96 c) quantitative relative, if unit is another object, and d) absolute, when exact unit is as-  
 97 signed. The justification that make us suggest the that the quantitative relative is actually  
 98 composed by the logical and mathematical proportional is that although Delgado's quanti-  
 99 tative relative conception of size is not referred as the proportional schema, it does involve  
 100 a proportional relationship.

101 The logical and mathematical conceptions of size and scale are the focus of this  
 102 literature review.

## 103 Requirements for eliciting abstract reasoning

104 From our problem definition it has been identified that abstract reasoning is required  
105 to attain size and scale cognition. Abstract thought is the focus of the developmental genetic  
106 epistemology of Piaget. According to Piaget's cognitive development stage view (Inhelder  
107 & Piaget, 1958), young children are different kinds of learners and in general thinkers  
108 than adults. Until they reach the age of 12 or so they are not capable of reasoning as  
109 an adult and show abstract thinking. This theory of cognitive development proposed four  
110 major stages of development: the sensorimotor stage, the preoperational thought stage, the  
111 concrete operations, and the formal operations; this same stage continues to the adulthood.

112 It is important to point out that even though Piagetian processes are used as a way to  
113 characterize size and scale cognition, we are not suggesting that size and scale cognition is  
114 attained under the developmental perspective, but rather through principles of the cognitive  
115 information processing perspective. Therefore, although Inhelder and Piaget conclude that  
116 abstract reasoning cannot be shown until formal operations stage, the alternative theories  
117 of cognitive development suggest that students appear quite able to think abstractly as long  
118 as they have appropriate science knowledge of the subject matter even if they are young and  
119 if their ideas are incomplete (Eylon & Linn, 1988). These alternative theories incorporate  
120 elements of the cognitive information processing perspective.

121 Case (1993) suggested that the mental space, a concept similar to working memory,  
122 increases during development. He suggested that this increase occurs because of three  
123 processes: brain maturation and its resulting myelination that increase processing speed,  
124 cognitive strategies become automatic, and prior knowledge becomes more extensive and  
125 better organized (as cited in Smith and Ragan, 2005). This view proposed that it is the  
126 process of encoding that distinguishes cognitive development.

127 Another important aspect to consider is the role of experience in specific domains.  
128 This aspect was deeply studied by Siegler (1983, as cited by Driscoll, 1994). He was focused  
129 on local description as well as on specific task requirements. He suggested that when  
130 emphasized the role of encoding, it resulted in children's construction of more advanced

131 knowledge. Siegler (1994, as cited by Driscoll) developed a performance model for problem  
132 solving. He incorporated four steps consisting on children actively encoding the features of  
133 a problem by trial and error, monitoring these features and selecting specific rules ad hoc  
134 to the problem. Then, combining the dimensions into the rule, and executing it correctly.

135 A study conducted Linn, Clement, Pulos, and Sullivan (1989) corroborates the role of  
136 experience in scientific domain. These researchers assessed the role of science topic instruc-  
137 tion combined with logical reasoning strategy instruction in teaching adolescent students.  
138 They found that topic-related training enhanced knowledge about relevant variables and  
139 resulted in reasoning changes. This suggests that reasoning strategies and knowledge of the  
140 subject matter influence abstract thinking. This improvement results from student's re-  
141 structuring of their naive frameworks modified by exposure to formal instruction (Nakhleh  
142 et al., 2005), and as individuals learn a new domain of science (Carey, 1986).

143 Eylon and Linn (1988) considered the important role that plays working memory  
144 capacity. They suggested that adequate instruction, together with learners consolidation of  
145 information into procedures, would result in learners becoming able to handle more complex  
146 problems using the same amount of processing capacity. Ben-Zvi, Eylon, and Silberstein  
147 (1986a) also proposed that abstract reasoning may vary as a function of working memory  
148 demand rather than development, and therefore, if a given problem overloads working  
149 memory, students cannot reason abstractly and revert to a more concrete approach. One  
150 way to reduce this overload of working memory is by using instructional strategies that will  
151 scaffold abstract concepts.

152 Therefore for conveying size and scale cognition, we will rely on the alternative the-  
153 ories of cognitive development arguing that deep coverage of the topic may elicit abstract  
154 reasoning (Eylon & Linn, 1988). Thus, in order to overcome the limits of working memory  
155 capacity it is necessary to help students in their process of encoding and automatization  
156 (Case, 1993), by providing adequate topic-related formal instruction, knowledge of the sub-  
157 ject matter, reasoning and reflective strategies, feedback for self-monitoring, and integration  
158 of the new information with prior knowledge.

159 Proportional reasoning: the cognitive process behind the  
160 proportional conceptions of size and scale

161 According to Lesh, Post, and Behr, (1988), proportional reasoning is a form of  
162 mathematical reasoning involving multiple comparisons, inference and prediction, as well  
163 as both qualitative and quantitative methods of thought. In their work, Lesh et al. examine  
164 it from the perspective of proportional reasoning as a capstone of elementary arithmetic,  
165 number, and measurement concepts.

166 Proportional reasoning is the cognitive process behind the ability to reason about  
167 the relationship between two rational expressions. Therefore, our first inference is that  
168 proportional reasoning is the required cognitive process in order to attain the proportional  
169 size and scale cognition. We have identified that scale cognition is composed by the logical  
170 proportional and numerical proportional conceptions of size and scale; these conceptions  
171 and the cognitive processes behind them are explained below.

172 For describing the logical proportional conception of size we referred to the work con-  
173 ducted by Tretter et al. (2006). Tretter et al. describe unitizing as the first required  
174 cognitive process in order to attain scale cognition. Unitizing refers to the process of cre-  
175 ating new meaningful units from the existing objects. Tretter et al. suggest that students  
176 must create scale conceptions focusing on relative sizes and not much on exact size infor-  
177 mation. These conceptions could be based on everyday uses of size with relations based on  
178 experience, organized into categories and containing prototypes as exemplars of categories;  
179 such as well known landmarks and reference points. For example, a well known unit for  
180 a novice learner can be the relationship in sizes between two objects from the macroscale,  
181 that will serve as a landmark or reference size for objects in the microscale, atomicscale and  
182 nanoscale. (e.g. the difference in sizes between the height of a human and the length of  
183 an ant is approximately the same—proportional as the difference in sizes between a bacteria  
184 and the diameter of a DNA double strand).

185 The numerical proportional conception of scale, on the other hand, point us to con-  
186 sider the mathematical relationships with pairs of rational expressions; such as ratios, pro-

187 portions, rates, quotients, and fractions. For the case of ratios and proportions, Hart,  
188 (1988) and Behr, Lesh, Post, and Silver, (1983) agree that a ratio is a comparative index  
189 between two entities that conveys the notion of relative magnitude. On the other hand,  
190 a proportion refers to the equivalence of two ratios, "When two ratios are equal they are  
191 said to be in proportion to one another. A proportion is simply a statement equating two  
192 ratios." (Behr et al., p.95). For the case of rates, and as explained by Lesh et al., (1988),  
193 it refers to a single quantity (e.g. 30 miles/hour), while ratios involve two quantities. Frac-  
194 tions include percentages, decimal expressions, and operations or points on the number line  
195 (Person, Berenson, and Greenspon, 2004) and finally, a quotient is simply an operation of  
196 indicated division (Karplus, Pulos, and Stage, 1983).

197         The proportional mathematical conception of scale would be considered then as the  
198 comparison of two equivalent ratios; namely a proportion. (e.g. the difference in length of  
199 an ant compared to the height of a human is that the length of an ant is about thousand  
200 times smaller than the height of a human; therefore, the difference in size between a bacteria  
201 and the diameter of a DNA double strand is that the diameter of a DNA double strand is  
202 about thousand times smaller than the size of a bacteria).

203         To better understand proportional reasoning and at the same time infer instructional  
204 strategies that will address this cognitive process, research related to this area was analyzed.  
205 For this purpose three authors and their research were considered: perspectives proposed by  
206 Piaget, Karplus, and Lesh. Piaget's perspective was selected because he and his colleagues  
207 conducted the first attempts to measure proportional reasoning in their experiments for  
208 clarification of young people's development of the logico-mathematical concept (Lesh et al.,  
209 1988). But because the designs of their tasks were not designed specifically to illustrate  
210 proportional reasoning, more specialized studies were consulted. Robert Karplus, in con-  
211 trast, focused on proportional reasoning by trying to minimize the need for knowledge of  
212 physical principles Lesh et al.. Finally, the research conducted by Lesh was also considered  
213 because of his attempts to contrast and compare prior research in this area.

214         Piaget (1968, as cited in Lesh et al., 1988) describes the development of adolescent's

215 proportional reasoning in three stages. The first one is the global compensatory strategy  
216 focused on additive strategies, the second one is based on a multiplicative strategy, and the  
217 third one is based on a formulation of a law of proportions. In contrast, Karplus focused  
218 on categorizing the responses of children as a demonstrative of a level of understanding of  
219 proportion ( Hart, 1988). Karplus et al., (1983) argue that Piagetian tasks were not  
220 selected exclusively for characterizing subjects' proportional reasoning, leaving unanswered  
221 many questions related to how proportional reasoning is applied in problem solving in dif-  
222 ferent contexts and numerical relationships. Instead Karplus et al. and the research group  
223 at the Lawrence Hall of Science at Berkeley, focused on assessing children's proportional  
224 reasoning using tasks in which knowledge of the physical principles was minimized. They  
225 found that "academically upper-track or upper middle-class students used proportional rea-  
226 soning increasing after about age 12 years, only a small fraction of urban low-income and  
227 academically lower track- students used proportions at age 14 or even 17 years." (Karplus,  
228 1981 as cited in Karplus et al., 1983, p. 47).

229 Compared to the results obtained by Karplus et al., as well as Inhelder and Piaget,  
230 Lesh et al. (1988) concludes that in mathematics education research, proportional reasoning  
231 is characterized by a gradual increase in local competence; and not by a global ability related  
232 to a cognitive structure. These results point us to consider that environmental interactions  
233 are a very influential factor for the development of proportional reasoning.

234 Singer-Freeman and Goswami (2001) also investigated children's intuitive approach  
235 to proportions, arguing that their intuitions of proportional reasoning were based on their  
236 ability to recognize relational similarity. This idea is consistent with Lesh et al. (1988)  
237 remark that "proportional reasoning deals with one of the most common forms of structural  
238 similarity "(p.95). This recognition of structural similarity is what points us to consider  
239 analogies and metaphors as a way to scaffold proportional reasoning in young learners for  
240 the following reasons. First, although similarity and analogy are not the same, Gentner and  
241 Markman (1997) suggest that the process of carrying out a comparison is the same in both  
242 cases, summarizing the idea as similarity is like analogy, involving a process of "structural

243 alignment and mapping between mental representations” ( Gentner and Markman, 1997,  
244 p.45).

245 Second, classical or conventional analogies take the form of A:B::C:D (L. English,  
246 2004), where the A and B can be termed as the base or source, and C and D can be  
247 termed as the target (Gentner, Holyoak, & Kokinov, 2001). These analogies are basically  
248 proportional or relational problems.( L. English; Gentner and Markman).

249 Finally, we rely on the fact that it has been identified that one reasonable way to  
250 convey proportions is through means of existing conceptual knowledge as a basis for teaching  
251 (Singer-Freeman & Goswami, 2001), as well as on the fact that children’s ability to recognize  
252 relational similarity may be present as early as infancy; namely the capacity for analogical  
253 thinking ( Goswami, 2001; Holyoak and Thagard, 1997).

#### 254 Analogies and metaphors for attaining proportional scale cognition

255 Analogies are a fundamental cognitive mechanism that people use to map processes  
256 by identifying relevant information from a more familiar domain to a less familiar one  
257 (Mason, 2004). Since early times it has been well recognized the powerful role of analogies  
258 in enabling people to communicate, explore, and infer about novel phenomena, as well as to  
259 transfer learning across subject domains ( L. English, 2004; Gentner and Markman, 1997;  
260 Goswami, 2001; Richland, Morrison, and Holyoak, 2006).

261 While analogy is a sophisticated process used in creative discovery, similarity is, as  
262 described by Gentner and Markman, (1997), brute perceptual process. Gentner (1983)  
263 define an analogy as ”a device for conveying that two situations or domains share relational  
264 structure despite arbitrary degrees of difference in the objects that make up the domains  
265 This promoting of relations over objects makes analogy a useful cognitive device, for physical  
266 objects are normally highly salient in human processing” (as cited in Gentner and Markman  
267 (1997), p.46). They emphasize the importance of common relations to analogy and not  
268 common objects.

269 In contrast, L. D. English, (1997) describes metaphors as characterized by cross

270 domain mappings. She explains that reasoning by metaphor implies conceptualizing the  
271 phenomena in terms of another mental domain by finding a mapping between the target  
272 domain and the source domain. "Like analogical reasoning, metaphorical reasoning can gen-  
273 erate new inferences and lead to the construction of mental models based on the relational  
274 structure shared by the source and target".( L. D. English, p.7).

275         Although Piaget concludes that reason by analogy must depend on the development of  
276 categorization skills and therefore developed in the formal operations stage; recent research  
277 proves that the ability to reason by analogy was shown by young children (Vosniadou,  
278 1995). Vosniadou argues that in the Piagetian perspective the focus was on "how the  
279 development of analogical reasoning could be explained in the context of his [Piaget's]  
280 theory of intellectual development, rather than how analogical reasoning might contribute to  
281 intellectual development".(p.300). Supporting this idea Goswami (1992) and her colleagues  
282 found no support for the claims made by Piaget in his theory of analogical development,  
283 including the idea that reasoning about relational similarity requires the ability to reason  
284 about proportional equivalence (as cited in Vosniadou, 1995). Goswami also concludes that  
285 "domain knowledge is the primary constraint in children's analogical reasoning" (p.250, as  
286 cited in Richland et al., 2006).

287         We conclude that due to the facts that a) analogical reasoning does not depend on  
288 the ability to reason about proportional equivalence, b) young children have the ability to  
289 reason by analogy, and c) analogies and metaphors are powerful tools in enabling people to  
290 communicate, explore, infer about novel phenomena, and to transfer learning across subject  
291 domains; we therefore propose that proportional analogies may be a sense-making way to  
292 unitize and at the same time serve as a scaffold that will emphasize relative sizes of objects  
293 in different scales. These analogs, as explained by Tretter et al. (2006) could be based on  
294 everyday uses and conceptions of size with categorical relations that conceptions of scaling  
295 must be based on experience, and containing prototypes as exemplars of categories; such as  
296 landmarks and reference points.

## Conclusion

297

298 In the final analysis, we conclude that scaling related concepts have been identified as  
299 one of the important unifying topics in science, engineering, and technology education. We  
300 have also identified that today's middle school students do not demonstrate the adequate  
301 understanding of concepts of scale and size on the micro and the nano level.

302 We characterized scale cognition in four components; class-inclusion, serial-ordering,  
303 logical proportional, and mathematical proportional. We also identified the abstract nature  
304 of scale cognition and have proposed the alternative theories of cognitive development as  
305 the learning theories that suggest strategies for eliciting abstract thinking. We have also  
306 suggested that proportional reasoning is the cognitive process behind the proportional con-  
307 ceptions of scale. We identified the process of unitizing as the first required cognitive process  
308 in order to attain the logical proportional scale cognition and mathematical relationships  
309 of ratios as a comparative process for attaining the mathematical proportional conception  
310 of scale.

311 To sum up, it is our expectation that classical or conventional analogies would facili-  
312 tate the logical aspect of the proportional schema of scale cognition. These same analogies,  
313 together with a scale metaphor, would also facilitate the mathematical aspect of the pro-  
314 portional schema of scale cognition. Analogies and metaphors will serve as a scaffold for  
315 the learners in which two pairs of objects that students are familiar with and visible to the  
316 naked eye will serve as the source, and two other objects that are in the micro, nano, and/or  
317 atomic scale will serve as the target. Students then may map the structural similarity of  
318 the objects; namely their difference in sizes.

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