

Understanding curved spacetime

The role of the rubber sheet analogy in learning general relativity

Abstract

According to general relativity (GR), we live in a four-dimensional curved universe. Since the human mind cannot visualize those four dimensions, a popular analogy compares the universe to a two-dimensional rubber sheet distorted by massive objects. This analogy is often used when teaching GR to upper secondary and undergraduate physics students. However, physicists and physics educators criticize the analogy for being inaccurate and for introducing conceptual conflicts. Addressing these criticisms, we analyze the rubber sheet analogy through systematic metaphor analysis of textbooks and research literature, and present an empirical analysis of upper secondary school students' use and understanding of the analogy. Taking a theoretical perspective of embodied cognition allows us to account for the relationship between the experiential and sensory aspects of the metaphor in relation to the abstract nature of spacetime. We employ methods of metaphor and thematic analysis to study written accounts of small groups of 97 students (18-19 years old) who worked with a collaborative online learning environment as part of their regular physics lessons in five classes in Norway. Students generated conceptual metaphors found in the literature as well as novel ones that led to different conceptions of gravity than those held by experts in the field. Even though most students showed awareness of some limitations of the analogy, we observed a conflict between students' embodied understanding of gravity and the abstract description of GR. This conflict might add to the common perception of GR being counter-intuitive. In making explicit strengths and weaknesses of the rubber sheet analogy and learners' conceptual difficulties, our results offer guidance for teaching GR. More generally, these findings contribute to the epistemological implications of employing specific scientific metaphors in classrooms.

1. Introduction

The Earth circles around the Sun and we stay grounded on Earth because of gravity. Yet, the nature of gravity eluded human understanding for centuries. It was only with Albert Einstein's theory of general relativity (1915) that physicists found a fundamental description for gravity which set the stage for the development of modern physics in the 20th century. General relativity (hereafter GR) is a modern theory of gravitation that extends classical mechanics to cosmic scales. Motion at the speed of light and physics close to extremely massive objects such as black holes require a more powerful framework than Newton's classical mechanics can offer. By describing gravity as geometry, GR offers such a framework with greater explanatory power than classical mechanics: the fabric of our universe can be modeled by four-dimensional spacetime and it is the curvature of spacetime that manifests itself in form of gravity.

Gravity as a manifestation of curved spacetime is an abstract concept that students, not being able to rely on the advanced mathematical formalism, must grasp in terms of other areas of experience. Thus, the description of this concept requires metaphoric language. In this study, conducted within the Norwegian design-based research project ReleQuant, we aimed to understand how upper secondary students reason with analogies and metaphors to conceptualize gravity and curved spacetime.

The formulation of GR not only provided impetus to the further development of physics, but it also inspired the emergence of new fields such as cosmology. In fact, the significance of the theory extended beyond the mere contents of scientific laws and theories. Indeed, adopting a relativistic perspective entailed a change in the worldview of many scientists at the time of Einstein (Chandler, 1994). With its apparent metaphysical implications, GR brought about a new heyday of the philosophy of space and time as well (Reichenbach, 1928).

46 With Einstein's insight into the deep connection between gravity, space, and time, a century-long dispute on the
47 nature of space and time found its culmination. The dispute reaches back in the beginning of the 18th century to
48 Newton and Leibniz, who held opposing views on this topic (Vailati, 1997). Whereas Leibniz argued that space
49 and time are relational and can only be defined through orderings between objects, Newton described space and
50 time as absolute entities that are as real as any object in the world. The Newtonian view of absolute space and
51 time dominated academic discourse for almost 200 years. It was only at the end of the 19th century that
52 philosophers and scientists started to question notions of absolute space and time (Mach, 1893; Poincaré, 1898).
53 These considerations were predecessors to the revolutionary ideas of Einstein who eventually replaced absolute
54 space and time with the notion of dynamical spacetime - a replacement whose philosophical impact still can be
55 felt today (Chandler, 1994).

56 Surprisingly, the great importance of GR in physics and philosophy has not corresponded to equivalent
57 attention in education on how students understand such concepts. Even though current fields of physics research
58 such as gravitational wave astronomy (Abbott et al., 2016) as well as the working of modern communication
59 technologies rest greatly on our relativistic understanding of gravity, physics in high schools remains mostly
60 dominated by classical theories of gravity (Henriksen et al., 2014; Velentzas & Halkia, 2013). However,
61 students are confronted with a growing number of representations in the media and popular culture, such as in
62 recent discoveries about gravitational waves, which present gravity as a relativistic phenomenon. While other
63 domains of modern physics such as quantum physics and special relativity have already entered high school and
64 undergraduate education in many countries (Henriksen et al., 2014; Krijtenburg-Lewerissa, Pol, Brinkman, &
65 Van Joolingen, 2017; Levrini, 2014; Stadermann & Goedhart, 2017), it was only very recently that physics
66 educators made first attempts to introduce GR to school curricula and to investigate students' understandings of
67 it (Kaur, Blair, Moschilla, Stannard, & Zadnik, 2017a; Kersting, Henriksen, Bøe, & Angell, 2018). In a society
68 that is pushing knowledge and technological advancement ever further, it is important to teach students our best
69 understanding of the universe, and this can only be done if we know how to communicate relativistic concepts
70 effectively.

71 Studies on secondary school students' conceptual development of key concepts in GR are scarce
72 (Kersting et al., 2018). Existing research either looks at special relativity instead of general relativity (Dimitriadi
73 & Halkia, 2012; Levrini, 2014; Levrini & DiSessa, 2008) or studies undergraduate physics learning
74 (Bandyopadhyay & Kumar, 2010a, 2010b; Hartle, 2005). Based mostly on case studies and interviews, the
75 findings in these studies suggest that students often struggle with the interpretation of relativistic concepts and
76 phenomena.

77
78 Recently, educational projects in Australia and Norway (Kaur et al., 2017a; Kaur, Blair, Moschilla,
79 Stannard, & Zadnik, 2017b; Kersting et al., 2018) have started to investigate the learning of GR at the high
80 school level in response to increased emphasis in national curricula. Efforts in Australia rely on so-called
81 enrichment programs that introduce modern concepts of space and time to 10-16 year-old students. Work in
82 Norway relies on digital learning resources that were trialled with 18-19 year-old students. In an attempt to
83 achieve an educational reconstruction of GR, we reviewed the literature to identify the main challenges of
84 teaching and learning relativity (Kersting et al., 2018). General challenges include the advanced level of
85 mathematics, the lacking experience with relativistic phenomena, and the counterintuitive nature of these
86 phenomena in light of classical physics. More specific challenges concern the role of observers in different
87 reference frames and the Euclidean nature of our universe that students take for granted. Despite those
88 challenges, the results from Australia and Norway are encouraging. Findings suggest that younger students are
89 motivated by topics of Einsteinian Physics (Kaur et al., 2017b) and that students can gain a qualitative
90 understanding of GR when provided with appropriately designed learning resources and support from peers
91 (Kersting et al., 2018).

92 Moreover, the latter study is among the first to present empirical results on upper secondary students'
93 understanding of curved spacetime. Focus group interviews revealed that spacetime is an engaging, yet
94 challenging concept that students felt very uncertain about. The only other study that we are aware of to report
95 on students' conceptual understanding of spacetime looked at senior undergraduate students taking a course on

96 GR (Bandyopadhyay & Kumar, 2010b). However, these researchers only touched upon non-Euclidean geometry
97 and did not investigate students' understanding of the geometry of spacetime in detail. Therefore, the conceptual
98 understanding of curved spacetime still seems to be a mostly unexplored topic in science education research.

99 Teaching GR on undergraduate and upper secondary school level requires teaching approaches that
100 rely on qualitative explanations and elementary mathematics (Kersting et al., 2018). Such approaches entail the
101 use of thought experiments (Velentzas & Halkia, 2013), geometric models (diSessa, 1981; Zahn & Kraus, 2014),
102 hands-on experiments (Pitts, Venville, Blair, & Zadnik, 2014), and simple mathematical approximations
103 (Stannard, Blair, Zadnik, & Kaur, 2017). Common to these teaching strategies is the shared understanding that
104 the mathematical foundation of GR is very abstract and that many of its consequences are counterintuitive
105 (Bandyopadhyay & Kumar, 2010b; Kersting et al., 2018). These challenges affect high school and
106 undergraduate students alike, because GR contradicts what most students have learned in previous physics
107 classes, namely that gravity is a force.

108 While there seems to be consensus about the educational challenges of GR, the most prevailing popular
109 representation of the theory gives rise to a debate among physicists and physics educators. Both in teaching
110 resources and in popular science culture, the so-called rubber sheet analogy (hereafter RSA) is a widely used
111 tool to make sense of four-dimensional curved spacetime (Greene, 2010). The analogy compares the fabric of
112 the universe to a stretched rubber sheet (Figure 1). Gravitation and the dynamic interplay between the movement
113 of massive objects and the curvature of spacetime are illustrated by placing a bowling ball and marbles on the
114 rubber sheet. The bowling ball produces a warp of the rubber, which results in an inward tug that will influence
115 the movement of the marbles. The bowling ball represents for example the Earth and the marble is like the
116 Moon circling around the massive ball. It is the warp of the rubber sheet that creates the gravitational tug. There
117 is no need to introduce a force that, mysteriously, acts at a distance.



118
119 **Fig. 1 A screenshot of the Norwegian learning environment that introduces the rubber sheet analogy.**

120

121 The ubiquity of the RSA in teaching resources and popular science literature nowadays stems from the
122 challenge to visualize a theory whose geometry continues to confound. Einstein had admitted that our
123 imaginative faculty cannot conceive of four dimensions:

124 No man can visualize four dimensions, except mathematically. We cannot even visualize three
125 dimensions. I think in four dimensions, but only abstractly. The human mind can picture these
126 dimensions no more than it can envisage electricity. Nevertheless, they are no less real than electro-
127 magnetism, the force which controls our universe, within, and by which we have our being.
128 (Einstein in Viereck, 1929)

129 In response to this challenge, Einstein was presumably the first to employ the analogy that compares
130 spacetime to a cloth. In a correspondence with his colleague Willem de Sitter, who would later publish joint
131 work with Einstein on the curvature of the universe, Einstein explained: "Our problem can be illustrated with a
132 nice analogy. I compare the space to a cloth floating (at rest) in the air, a certain part of which we can
133 observe. This part is slightly curved similarly to a small section of a sphere's surface." (Hentschel, 1998, p. 301)

134 Only shortly after the publication of GR, Einstein attempted to present the theory of relativity to a more
135 general audience (Einstein, 1917). Similar expositions by others followed shortly after that, and already in 1925
136 the eminent mathematician and philosopher Bertrand Russell used a "soft india-rubber" to illustrate the idea of
137 curved spacetime (Russell, 1925). Interestingly, at the same time Russell cautioned of the risks of simplifying
138 scientific ideas too much: "Einstein revolutionized our conception of the physical world, but the innumerable
139 popular accounts of his theory generally cease to be intelligible at the point where they begin to say something
140 important" - a wise remark that foreshadowed the debate around the RSA that scientists and educators still lead
141 today.

142 On the one hand, advocates of the RSA have praised it as an "excellent analogy" (Thorne, 2009, p. 77)
143 because of its visual power and its intuitive appeal both to students (Farr, Schelbert, & Trouille, 2012) and
144 physicists in the field:

145 The rubber membrane-bowling ball analogy is valuable because it gives us a visual image with
146 which we can grasp tangibly what we mean by a warp in the spatial fabric of the universe.
147 Physicists often use this and similar analogies to guide their own intuition regarding gravitation and
148 curvature. (Greene, 2010, p. 71)

149 On the other hand, critics consider the RSA to be "misleading" (Price, 2016, p. 588) and to pose a
150 "considerable risk to the formation of misconceptions" among students (Zahn & Kraus, 2014), because of
151 oversimplification and incorrect presentation of the physics:

152 Unfortunately, the illustration makes no sense. Students observe that space is not a rubber sheet,
153 does not curve into an unseen dimension, and does not push objects into circular orbits. The rubber
154 sheet does not even reflect the symmetry of the central mass—if you turn the illustration upside
155 down the explanation fails. (Gould, 2016, p. 396)

156 Seeing that experts hold divided opinions on the educational value of the RSA when teaching GR, it is
157 surprising that the ongoing debate is mostly based on opinions and claims without a proper evidential base.
158 Gould, for example, claimed that "(...) students are often confused by literal illustrations of the concept [of
159 curved spacetime]" (2016, p. 396), but he presented no empirical evidence to support this claim. Looking into
160 the literature, the works that address the RSA explicitly can be grouped into two camps. On one side, physicists
161 focus on the mathematics of the RSA to show why the analogy can be an instructive teaching tool (Middleton &
162 Weller, 2016), or to replace it with more appropriate mathematical models (Gould, 2016; Price, 2016). On the
163 other side, science educators investigate how students understand the RSA (Baldy, 2007; Steier & Kersting, n.d.;
164 Watkins, 2014). However, these very few investigations have, so far, addressed the RSA rather as a way to
165 explain gravitational phenomena in the framework of Newtonian physics rather than to shed light onto how the
166 RSA might facilitate students' understanding of curved spacetime in the context of GR.

167 Addressing the problem that secondary students display with a force of gravity that acts magically at
168 distance, Baldy (2007) introduced the "pillow-model" to study French ninth-graders' (15 years old) ideas of
169 attraction between objects. The pillow-model replaces the rubber sheet by a soft pillow, but serves conceptually
170 the same purpose as the RSA. Baldy compared two teaching methods, one based on Newtonian physics and one
171 based on the pillow-model, and studied student's conceptions of falling bodies. She found that the Newtonian

172 approach is less effective, even though she admitted that her results “(...) are not intended to mean that the
173 students built a representation of the universe that conformed to Einstein’s theory on all points, nor that they
174 understood the theory.” (Baldy, 2007, p. 1784)

175 In an exploratory study on the conceptual understanding of curved spacetime that was conducted
176 within the same project as the present work, we analyzed a discussion between two Norwegian upper secondary
177 physics students who showed deep engagement with gravity and spacetime, but struggled to accept certain
178 aspects of the new concepts. The results suggested that the RSA might be problematic for learners, because it
179 makes use of two different concepts of gravity and relies on classical gravity to make the analogy of
180 “Einsteinian” gravity work. (The fact that the analogy draws on classical gravity, like the force that creates a
181 well in the rubber sheet, to explain a new interpretation of gravity lets the pair of students struggle conceptually.)
182 However, it is not clear whether these results can be readily generalized to a broader sample of students (Steier
183 & Kersting, n.d.) .

184 Addressing the controversy around the use of the RSA in the domain of GR, we want to bring the
185 debate forward by offering actual empirical results on upper secondary school students’ ideas about curved
186 spacetime in relation to the RSA. Insights into students’ understanding and their use of the most common
187 representation of curved spacetime are critical in order to investigate learning processes and conceptualization
188 of spacetime in GR and to develop efficient teaching approaches.

189 We aim to understand how upper secondary students reason with the RSA to conceptualize gravity and
190 curved spacetime. To guide our examination, we ask the following research questions:

- 191 1. What features of gravity as they were explained by Einstein does the rubber sheet analogy hide and
192 highlight?
- 193 2. What characterizes students’ understanding of the rubber sheet analogy?
- 194 3. In what ways do students show awareness of the analogical nature of the rubber sheet analogy when
195 conceptualizing gravity and curved spacetime?

196 We hope that addressing these questions will serve as an impetus for the ongoing educational debate
197 around the RSA and that it will add to the emerging body of knowledge concerning the teaching GR. More
198 generally, we hope that our findings will contribute to the epistemological implications of employing specific
199 scientific metaphors and analogies in science classrooms.

200

201 **2. Theoretical Background**

202

203 In the following sections, we frame the challenge of analyzing the RSA and students’ ideas of curved spacetime
204 in relation to research about the use of analogies and metaphors in science education.

205

206 **2.1. Analogies, Metaphors, and Embodied Cognition in Science Education**

207

208 Both the wish to approach GR from a qualitative perspective and our inability to visualize four dimensions make
209 the RSA an appealing tool to communicate aspects of curved spacetime. Indeed, instructional analogies and
210 metaphors have become a popular tool in science education, because they can help to communicate abstract
211 scientific concepts (Aubusson, Harrison, & Ritchie, 2006). However, science educators have also recognized
212 limitations to this approach due to the often-unpredictable ways that students interpret analogies and metaphors
213 (Harrison & Treagust, 2006).

214 Before we unpack further aspects of this criticism in relation to the RSA, let us define what we mean by an
215 analogy or a metaphor in our context. Niebert et al. (2012) reviewed the use of both terms in the science
216 education literature and came to the conclusion that most science educators treat analogies and metaphors
217 synonymously as statements that characterize one thing in terms of another. This characterization goes back to
218 Lakoff and Johnson whose broad definition of metaphors encompasses analogies as well (Lakoff & Johnson,
219 2003). Genter et al. observed that the processes of understanding metaphors and analogies are the same (Gentner,
220 Bowdle, Wolff, & Boronat, 2001). On the basis of this observation, Niebert et al. concluded that the difference
221 between analogies and metaphors is not theoretical but rather technical and basically depending on the number
222 and quality of mappings between the target and source domain. Adopting this perspective, we understand
223 analogies and metaphors as comparisons that construct a similarity between two objects and we do not
224 distinguish between those two notions. This definition will allow us to treat the RSA in the broader framework
225 of metaphor analysis. More generally, understanding the nature of analogy and metaphor is a process central to
226 scientific models and modelling (Gilbert, 2004). For the purpose of this study, we refer to models as artifacts
227 which may be interacted with or visualized and we treat analogies and metaphors as one particular form of
228 model in science education.

229 The increased interest in metaphors and analogies in science education stems partly from the fact that
230 these models play an important role in scientific knowledge construction. There is a long tradition in the
231 philosophy of science to argue for the epistemological importance of analogies (Hesse, 1953). Kapon and
232 diSessa noted that “the generation of analogies and the reasoning stemming from these analogies play a central
233 role in scientific practice, thought, and creativity” (2012, p. 262). Stinner (2003, p. 340) observed that the big
234 theories in science including Einstein’s theory of relativity or Maxwell’s theory of electromagnetism are often
235 the product of imaginative thinking which, according to Stinner, includes “to see analogies between disparate
236 events”. Thus, historical accounts of scientific discoveries abound with examples of how scientists used
237 metaphors and analogies to build their theories (Chandler, 1994; Hesse, 1952; Kind & Kind, 2007; Silva, 2007).
238 It seems that Einstein was particularly apt at finding fruitful analogies. He was presumably the one to introduce
239 the RSA to reason about curved spacetime (Hentschel, 1998), and he used the analogy of riding on a ray of light
240 to work out his theory of relativity in the first place (Kind & Kind, 2007).

241 Systematic metaphor analysis (Schmitt, 2005) is a recent fruitful approach that draws on findings from
242 cognitive science and linguistics to understand the use of analogies and metaphors in science education (Amin,
243 Jeppsson, & Haglund, 2015; Lancor, 2014a; Niebert & Gropengießer, 2014; Niebert et al., 2012). This approach
244 goes back to Lakoff and Johnson who, in their seminal work (2003), argued that metaphors are not only a
245 linguistic phenomenon, but a fundamental feature of thought and mind. Forming the basis of our conceptual
246 systems, metaphors serve as a principal vehicle for understanding, because we systematically use inference
247 patterns from one conceptual domain to reason about another conceptual domain. Since such metaphors are
248 grounded in the everyday human experiences of “having a physical body in a physical world” (Roth & Lawless,
249 2002, p. 336) Lakoff and Johnson suggested that cognition is ultimately embodied. Embodied cognition extends
250 the boundaries of the mind from merely being inside the brain to including the body’s physical interactions with
251 the world. Metaphors are thus the mediators that extend one physical experience to other conceptual domains.
252 For example, the ‘leg’ of a table is an extension of the leg of a body, and allows us to make sense of its function
253 as a structure for support (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p.??). We think about table legs in terms of our bodily
254 experiences of being supported by our own legs and feet. Metaphors are thus not merely comparisons between
255 two different things or concepts, but are rather frames through which we perceive and make meaning of the
256 world (Schön, 1979). Applying systematic metaphor analysis through a perspective of embodied cognition
257 highlights the bodily and experiential aspects of metaphor use.

258 The position that knowledge is embodied and that metaphors can reveal fundamental conceptions
259 allows science educators to study learning processes through the lens of embodied cognition. Amin et al. (2015)
260 acknowledged the emergence of a critical mass of studies that apply ideas from the perspective of embodied
261 cognition in science education. These applications entail investigations into how the use of language and
262 gestures can support conceptualization of abstract scientific ideas. We want to draw on those findings and
263 employ similar methods to investigate the metaphorical patterns of the RSA in order to figure out in which ways

264 students map basic features of the rubber sheet metaphorically onto the abstract scientific concept of spacetime.
265 Embodied cognition does not imply that bodily understanding in some way supersedes the role of language in
266 cognition, but rather suggests that language use and bodily understanding are intertwined.

267 Exploring the conceptual domain of GR from a linguistic perspective resonates with a broader
268 movement in science education that emphasizes “talking science” in the classroom (Lemke, 1990). Reaching
269 ultimately back to Vygotsky (1962), the assumption that language and the development of abstract thoughts are
270 interrelated has brought about fruitful approaches to scaffold learners’ development of scientific knowledge
271 (Chen, Park, & Hand, 2016). Viewing language as a “window in the conceptions of students” (Niebert &
272 Gropengießer, 2014, p. 281) aligns particularly well with the objective of our study: students are not familiar
273 with the mathematical language of GR and have to reason by using the everyday language available to them to
274 talk about abstract relativistic concepts. Metaphors are one particular example of talking physics. By choosing
275 metaphors as our unit of analysis, we are able to employ a powerful linguistic tool to explore students’
276 conception in GR.

277

278 2.2. Metaphor Analysis as an Analytic Framework in Science Education

279

280 An important study to employ embodied cognition as a framework in science education investigated students’
281 struggles to understand analogies and metaphors as intended by teachers and instructors (Niebert et al., 2012),
282 by reanalyzing 199 instructional analogies and metaphors on the basis of a metaphor analysis. By recognizing
283 metaphors as a useful part of the material that can be analyzed and integrated into a broader research strategy,
284 Schmitt (2005) proposed a systematic procedure for the reconstruction of metaphors to uncover patterns of
285 thought. Niebert et al. built on this procedure to identify and classify conceptual metaphors in science education
286 by first grouping metaphorical terms with the same source and target area and then summarizing the
287 metaphorical model on the level “target is source”. For instance “the gene is a code” and “equilibrium is a dance”
288 are popular metaphors in biology and chemistry textbooks (Niebert et al., 2012). Their findings suggest that
289 good analogies and metaphors in science education need embodied sources. This conclusion is an interesting
290 one in light of the observation that the embodied source of the RSA and students’ embodied understanding of
291 gravity confront students with profound imaginative challenges; the analogy prompts students to transfer
292 embodied understandings of gravity between 3 and 4 dimensions (Steier & Kersting, n.d.).

293 Research studies applied the concept of conceptual metaphor in a variety of ways, and developing a
294 specific and operationalized definition of conceptual metaphor is a challenging but necessary task (Treagust &
295 Duit, 2015). In the context of science education, Niebert et al. defined a conceptual metaphor as the
296 “imaginative principles behind the analogy or metaphor” (2012, p. 855) that becomes apparent once metaphors
297 and analogies have been arranged according to their target and source domain. That is, conceptual metaphors
298 allow learners to imagine one thing in terms of another. Likewise, Lancor (2014a, 2014b) understood a
299 conceptual metaphor as an overarching relationship between target and source domain that is supported by
300 explicit metaphors/analogies that highlight or obscure characteristics of the scientific concept.

301 Metaphors and imagination are closely linked because metaphors mediate imaginative processes.
302 Approaches to imagining depend on the notion of presence. As Nemirovsky, Kelton, and Rhodehamel defined it
303 (2012, p. 131), imagining is the “experience of bringing to presence something which is absent in the current
304 surroundings of the participants (Casey, 1979; Sartre, 2004)”. Imaginers are interacting with objects, ideas, and
305 situations that are not immediately *there* or perceivable. Metaphors, then, function as a way to give presence to
306 these objects of imagination. Niebert et al. explained: “we employ conceptions from a source domain (...) and
307 map them onto an abstract target domain (...) to understand abstract phenomena. Thus, the use of imagination
308 requires a source–target mapping” (2012, p. 852). This imaginative mapping occurs through metaphor. One
309 example used by Niebert et al., (2012) is the metaphor that *atoms are solar systems*. The abstract, difficult to
310 visualize properties of an atom may become present for learners by relating atoms to the more concrete or
311 familiar models of the solar system. We may imagine an atom (including its difficult to perceive properties),
312 through metaphor, by drawing on our previous experiences with physical models of the solar system. By

313 analyzing the structural properties and relationships of metaphor use, we are thus able to gain insight into how
314 learners conceptualize, imagine, and make present abstract ideas.

315 While Niebert et al (2012) presented a broad picture of understanding instructional analogies in science
316 education, other studies have used systematic metaphor analysis to focus on metaphors for individual scientific
317 concepts such as the greenhouse effect or energy. Niebert and Gropengießer (2014) employed metaphor and
318 qualitative content analysis to gain insight into students' and climate scientists' resources for understanding the
319 greenhouse effect. Lancor (2014a) studied conceptions of energy in biology, chemistry, and physics and
320 demonstrated that metaphor analysis can be a fruitful framework to analyze scientific discourse. She took a
321 closer look at the substance metaphor for energy in textbooks and the science education literature and identified
322 six conceptual metaphors within this broad metaphor: "Energy as a substance that can be accounted for, can
323 flow, can be carried, can change forms, can be lost, and can be an ingredient, a product or stored in some way."
324 (Lancor, 2014a, p. 1245) This analysis in turn helps to investigate how students understand science content,
325 since each conceptual metaphor affords a different understanding of a scientific concept.

326 Since both the greenhouse effect and energy are particularly abstract concepts in science education, the
327 above studies suggest that abstract scientific concepts might be too complex to be described by just one
328 metaphor or analogy. Rather, they seem to be embedded in a metaphorical network that structures our
329 understanding of a scientific concept (Lancor, 2014a); this is an observation that mirrors Lemke's (1990)
330 suggestion that scientific concepts do not exist as ideas in their own separate reality, but that they are thematic
331 items that make up a semantic pattern of relationships of meaning. This observation encourages us further to
332 employ the framework of conceptual metaphors and embodied cognition in our study of the abstract concept of
333 curved spacetime.

334 2.3. The Bad Use of Metaphors and the Use of Bad Metaphors

335
336 Ultimately, studying the role of metaphors in science education has the goal to improve instructional practices.
337 In a recent editorial in this journal, Kampourakis (2016) pointed out that science educators have an important
338 contribution to make: in communicating scientific knowledge, they bridge the gap between experts and non-
339 experts. The use of metaphors plays a crucial role in this translation process. Calling for an increased awareness
340 for the inherent limitations of metaphorical language and for the pitfalls that come with communicating
341 conceptual issues, Kampourakis invited us to study "the bad use of metaphors and the use of bad metaphors".
342 Genes are one example of the "bad use" of metaphors in biology education. According to Kampourakis, the
343 popular metaphors of information encoded in DNA and the genome as a book of life can be misleading: those
344 metaphors present genes as autonomous entities without taking the cellular context into account. One has to be
345 explicit in communicating that encoding information is not an inherent property of genes.

346
347 Kampourakis' call created a common interest in metaphorical practices to which we aim to contribute
348 with this study. Investigating how the – possibly "bad" – RSA can be put to good use in teaching and learning of
349 GR is very much in line with a recent exploration by Haglund (2017), who studied the scientific concept of
350 entropy that is metaphorically conceptualized as disorder. Just like spacetime, entropy is "a genuinely
351 challenging concept for students to grasp, due to its abstract, complex, and mathematical nature" (Haglund,
352 2017, p. 208). Haglund argued that the disorder metaphor can give a first flavor of entropy that students in turn
353 can use to develop and refine their understanding of entropy.

354 In contrast to entropy, the notion of curved spacetime, although abstract and mathematical in nature, is
355 intimately linked to the embodied experience of being under the influence of gravity. Coming to full circle with
356 the starting point of our investigation, we wish to understand how learners conceptualize their experience of
357 gravity in the setting of GR.

358 3. Methods

359
360 Before we can explore the ways in which students conceptualize gravity and curved spacetime with the help of
361 the RSA, it is important to have a sound understanding of the RSA. Therefore, our methodological approach

362 entails the analysis of two different data sets: first, we use metaphor theory to analyze the rubber sheet analogy
363 based on the general accounts of physicists and physics educators as found in the literature. These findings serve
364 as basis for the second part: our empirical investigation of students' use and understanding of the RSA in
365 relation to gravity and curved spacetime.

366 **3.1. Metaphor analysis in RSA-relevant literature**

367

368 To study the presentation of the RSA in the relevant literature, we followed the systematic procedure for the
369 reconstruction of metaphors as outlined in Schmitt (2005) and further refined in Niebert et al. (2012). This
370 approach promotes the analysis of metaphors to a qualitative research procedure that allowed us to reconstruct
371 metaphorical concepts based on written accounts.

372 The two crucial steps in a systematic metaphor analysis consist in: 1) identifying a metaphor and 2)
373 reconstructing metaphorical models (Schmitt, 2005). First, to identify metaphors, one looks for phrases that can
374 be understood beyond their literal meaning, which stems from physical or cultural experience (source area) and
375 is transferred to a new, and often abstract, area (target area). Second, to reconstruct metaphorical models, a
376 process that Niebert et al. (2012) called “categorizing the level of conceptual metaphor”, one groups the
377 metaphorical phrases that have the same source and the same target area. Condensing this categorization in the
378 equation “target area = source area”, one thus reconstructs the complete metaphor by identifying its underlying
379 logic.

380 To exemplify the process of the systematic metaphor analysis, we look at an exposition from Baldy
381 (2007, p. 1772) that makes the mapping between target and source area in general relativity very specific:

382 Einstein's theory is introduced to students via the so-called “pillow” model: the pillow represents
383 space, and steel balls of different sizes and masses are used to represent celestial bodies. When a
384 marble representing a body is placed next to a ball, it falls into the dip in the pillow created by the
385 ball. And if the marble is rolled fast enough, it deviates from its normal trajectory in the vicinity of
386 the ball.

387 Here, the identification of metaphors reveals a rich network of source and target areas that, furthermore,
388 interact dynamically. We can identify several source areas rooted in everyday experience – namely a pillow, a
389 dip in the pillow, a steel ball, and marbles. We find three abstract target areas – space, celestial bodies, and
390 trajectories. To structure the analogy on the level “target-is-source”, we can formulate “space is pillow”, “steel
391 balls are celestial bodies”, and “marbles are celestial bodies”. In addition to these mappings of objects, we have
392 another dimension to the metaphor, namely the dynamic interplay between target and source objects: a ball
393 creates a dip in the pillow, a marble falls into the dip, a marble deviates from its trajectory. We return to this
394 example in our presentation of the results in the next section.

395 Since science educators are not only interested in identifying analogies and metaphors in scientific
396 discourse, but are also concerned about communicating scientific ideas fruitfully, one can extend the systematic
397 metaphor analysis in a way that encompasses educational concerns. Niebert et al. (2012) proposed two
398 additional steps as part of an extended metaphor analysis that is valuable in the educational context: the
399 identification of the metaphor's deficiencies and resources, and the comparison and interpretation of students'
400 and teachers' source domains. We incorporate these two steps in our analysis, noting that they allow us to make
401 the transition from our literature review to the empirical interpretation of students' conceptual understanding.

402 Since we conducted this study in the context of the Norwegian physics curriculum, our selection of
403 relevant texts for a metaphor analysis of curved spacetime includes the two Norwegian physics textbooks on the
404 market (Callin, Pålsgård, Stadsnes, & Tellefsen, 2012; Jerstad et al., 2014), two popular science books by
405 renowned physicists in the field of general relativity (Greene, 2010; Thorne, 2009), six peer-reviewed research
406 articles that address the RSA explicitly and that were published within the last 25 years (Baldy, 2007; Chandler,
407 1994; Gould, 2016; Kaur et al., 2017a; Middleton & Weller, 2016; Price, 2016), as well as one master's thesis in
408 science education (Watkins, 2014). Following the systematic procedure as outlined above, we identified 41
409 instances of metaphorical phrases that relate the scientific concept of curved spacetime to a rubber sheet-like

410 object. To simplify the classification in terms of “target-is-source”, we further structured the metaphorical
411 phrases with the help of three subcategories “spacetime is”, “objects are”, “dynamical action via”. This
412 subdivision follows our observation in the previous example that there is a metaphorical mapping of target and
413 source objects, as well as a dynamical interplay between the two. Based on this subdivision, we were able to
414 identify four conceptual metaphors for curved spacetime that allow for a full reconstruction of the RSA. After
415 having unpacked the presentation of the RSA in this way, we followed the extension of the metaphor analysis by
416 Niebert et al (2012) in order to identify deficiencies and resources of each conceptual metaphor: we took into
417 account the strengths and weaknesses of the RSA that were mentioned explicitly in the analyzed literature and
418 compared those to the individual conceptual metaphors that make up the RSA in order to identify features that
419 the RSA possibly highlights or hides.

420 **3.2. Metaphor and thematic analysis of students’ responses**

421

422 With the systematic metaphor analysis of the literature, we have laid the groundwork for investigating students’
423 conceptualization of gravity and curved spacetime. Before we explain how the literature analysis has informed
424 the way that we framed the empirical analysis, we outline the data collection procedure and the greater
425 educational research project that this study is part of.

426 **3.2.1. Data collection**

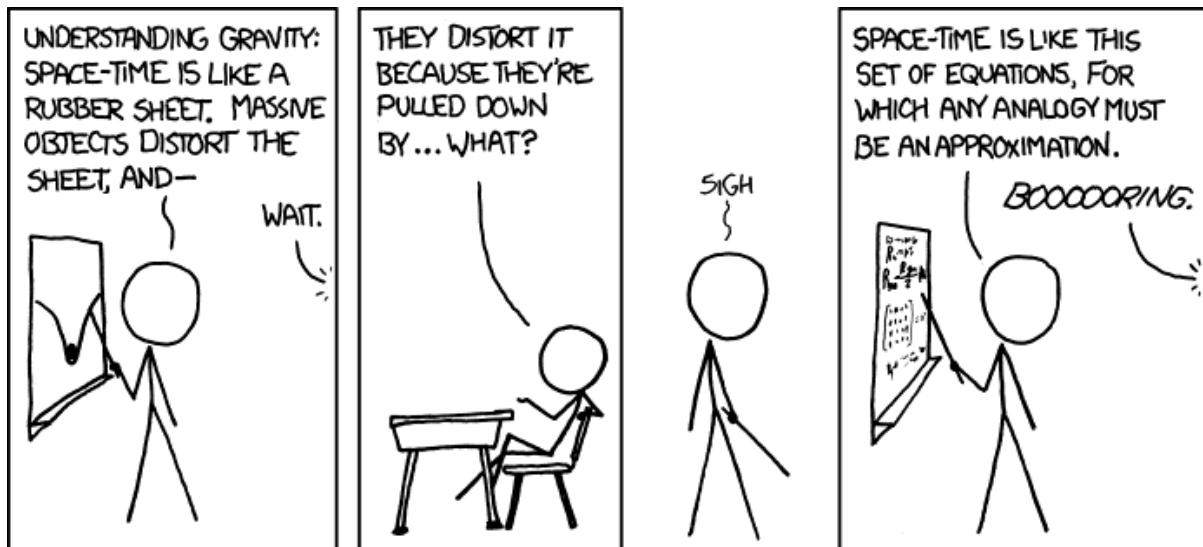
427

428 This work was conducted within the design-based research project ReleQuant that developed collaborative
429 online learning environments in modern physics for upper secondary schools in Norway (Henriksen et al., 2014).
430 Drawing on the tradition of Vygotsky (1962), project ReleQuant builds on a sociocultural approach to learning
431 physics that emphasizes the use of language (Lemke, 1990; Scott & Mortimer, 2005) and the interdependence
432 between the individual student and his or her surroundings in the learning process (Rasmussen & Ludvigsen,
433 2010). Students were encouraged to work in pairs or small groups and discuss key concepts of GR and quantum
434 physics while using the learning environments.

435 This study reports findings from the second round of testing a GR learning environment in five upper
436 secondary physics classes in three Norwegian schools that were considered to be high achieving in national
437 comparison. The schools are partner schools of the ReleQuant project and the teachers were involved in the
438 development of the learning resources that were jointly designed by physics educators and learning scientists
439 from the project. In total, 97 students (70 boys, 27 girls, 18-19 years old) participated in a series of two 2-hour
440 lessons that were part of the regular physics curriculum for final year secondary school students in Norway. The
441 curriculum states that students should be able to “give a qualitative description of general relativity” (The
442 Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2006). The learning environment consists of three thematic
443 units the last of which covers the topic of curved spacetime.

444 Our interest in understanding student ideas of the RSA led us to choose one particular discussion task,
445 which addresses the RSA directly, for further analysis (figure 2). The task invited students to reflect on the RSA
446 by discussing a cartoon that addresses the analogical nature of the rubber sheet representation. The open format
447 of the question is well suited to investigate students’ ideas of curved spacetime and prompts them to consider
448 the role of analogies more generally. In a second step, students had to write a short summary of their group
449 discussion. This summary provides insight into their use of scientific language, as well as what they felt were
450 the most important conclusions in their discussions.. Our data comes from 65 written responses to this retrieved
451 from the online learning platform. The reason that the total number of collected written responses (65) is smaller
452 than the total number of participating students (97) is that several groups of students chose to submit a joint
453 group response instead of writing individual summaries.

454 The discussion task is part of a longer learning sequence that introduces students to the concept of
455 spacetime by presenting different models and interactive visualizations of curved spacetime. In the discussion,
456 we relate the findings of this study to the broader context of investigating students’ conceptual understanding of
457 spacetime.



458
459 **Fig. 2** In the spacetime unit, students worked on the following task: “Use your knowledge in general relativity
460 and discuss the cartoon. Write down a short summary of what you have discussed.” The comic is licensed under
461 a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 2.5 License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/2.5/) and can be accessed under <https://xkcd.com/895/>

462 3.2.2. Data analysis

463
464 We conducted two independent analyses of students’ responses: a metaphor analysis to identify
465 conceptual metaphors and a thematic analysis to characterize students’ awareness of the strengths and
466 weaknesses of the RSA. This double approach resembles the one employed by Lancor (2014b), who
467 characterized students’ conceptual understanding of the energy concept through the lens of metaphor analysis.

468 Employing methods of the systematic metaphor analysis and mirroring our procedure of the systematic
469 metaphor analysis of the literature, we took students’ written responses and identified 39 instances of
470 metaphorical language connected to curved spacetime. The metaphorical phrases were thus again divided into
471 the three subcategories “spacetime is”, “objects are”, “dynamical action via”. Following the scheme “target-is-
472 source”, we then continued to decompose each metaphorical phrase into its various mappings between target
473 and source area.

474 We found students’ responses to be often somewhat muddled and not very clear about mappings
475 between target and source areas. To deal with this ambiguity in the written responses, we were very careful in
476 conducting the metaphor analysis. In particular, we found many phrases in which students used a kind of rubber
477 sheet analogy without directly mapping from the target to the source area, i.e. they remained either in the target
478 or in the source area. Therefore, we chose to generate an additional code for implicit metaphorical mapping and
479 tagged 22 instances of those phrases in addition.

480 To illustrate our method, we present an example of analyzing two responses:

481 Student response 1: If you put a mass on a sheet it will bend and create a deflected/curved spacetime around the
482 mass like that we have seen before where the sheet was time.

483 Student response 2: It has to do with that the mass of an object went down in the paper as it was described.

484 In response 1, we can identify the mappings “sheet is spacetime”, “sheet is time”, “spacetime bends”,
485 “spacetime is deflected/curved”. Response 2 is an example of an implicit mapping, because the student remains
486 in the source area of paper and mass without explicitly mentioning spacetime or celestial objects. Nonetheless,
487 we can identify the conception “mass goes down in the paper”.

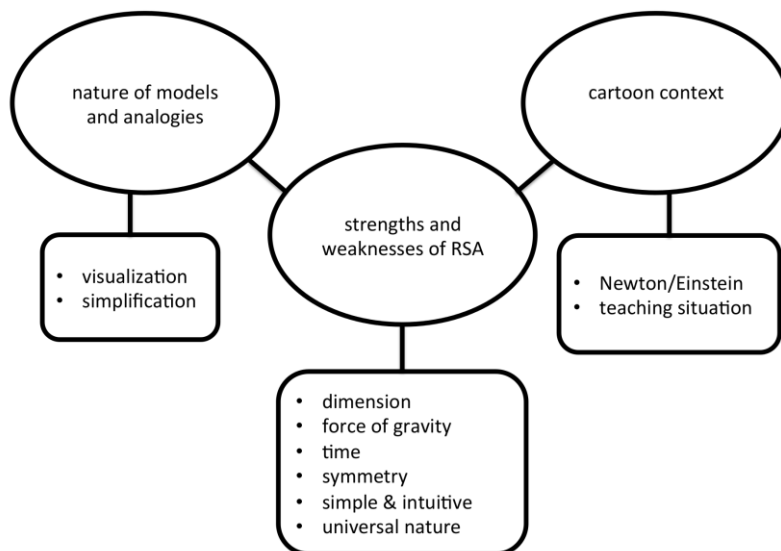
488 Since we were not only interested in the way students’ conceptualize curved spacetime linguistically,
489 but also wanted to gain insight into their awareness of the analogical nature of the RSA as well, we conducted
490 an additional thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) of the data set to unpack students’ understanding thereof.

491 This analysis corresponds to the additional step of identifying strengths and weaknesses of metaphorical
492 mappings as suggested by Niebert and Grobengießer (2014). However, the important difference to the
493 corresponding analysis of the literature is that we aimed to bring to light students' *own* ideas of strengths and
494 weaknesses of their metaphorical reasoning, instead of reconstructing general features that the RSA highlights
495 and hides.

496 Following the five step procedure of a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), we got familiar with
497 the data set by coding it for general occurrences of students' elaboration on analogies or scientific models.
498 Based on our literature analysis, we used the identified strengths and weaknesses of the RSA as starting point to
499 generate a set of initial codes. With this set we analyzed the identified analogical responses and started to create
500 new codes that captured recurring patterns in the responses that we could not have anticipated solely from the
501 metaphor analysis of the literature. For example, eight groups of students addressed the interaction between the
502 student and the teacher in the cartoon. This observation gave rise to the code "teaching situation". With this
503 enriched set of codes, it became evident that we could group student responses dealing with the RSA into three
504 themes: responses that elaborate on the general nature of analogies in physics, those that address specific
505 characteristics of the RSA, and those that comment on the context of the cartoon. Based on this broad
506 classification, we reviewed and refined our codes and coded the data set again. The final set of themes and codes
507 is presented in figure 3.

508 The first author conducted the first two steps of the thematic analysis and identified the relevant
509 responses for the metaphor analysis. To ensure the validity of the analysis, both authors then discussed the
510 mappings and the codes over several rounds while reviewing all responses together until they reached agreement.
511 Particular focus was put on the interpretation of the findings that were critically re-examined in light of the
512 literature findings.

513



514

515 **Fig. 3** Map of themes and codes of the thematic analysis of student responses

516

517 **4. Results**

518
 519 In this section, we attempt to spell out the nature of the RSA and characterize upper secondary students’
 520 understanding of it based on a metaphor analysis of relevant literature and a combined metaphor and thematic
 521 analysis of students’ written accounts. Following this dual approach, we present results from the literature
 522 analysis first and use these results to contextualize the empirical findings from students’ responses.

523 **4.1. Metaphor Analysis of the RSA According to the Literature**

524
 525 The goal of our systematic metaphor analysis was to structure the RSA on the level “target-is-source” and to
 526 identify and reconstruct the conceptual metaphors that guide this classification. Based on our analysis of
 527 relevant literature, we were able to unpack the metaphorical network of the RSA by identifying four different
 528 conceptual metaphors. Each of these conceptual metaphors affords understanding of a different aspect of the
 529 concept of gravity as curved spacetime by highlighting and hiding various features of the scientific concept. In
 530 table 1, we give an overview of the systematic metaphor analysis of the literature.

531 **Table 1 - The RSA encompasses four conceptual metaphors each of which can be exemplified by specific analogies. The**
 532 **conceptual metaphors are synthesized from a systematic metaphor analysis of relevant literature. The examples come**
 533 **from analogies found in the literature. The conceptual metaphors that comprise the dynamical mapping can be**
 534 **formulated either from the spacetime or the mass perspective.**

Conceptual metaphor		Analogies that exemplify the conceptual metaphor	
Static mapping	Spacetime is a fabric that is malleable .	Spacetime is a piece of rubber that is distorted. Spacetime is a trampoline that is stretched. Spacetime is a pillow that is deformed. Spacetime is a membrane that is warped.	
	Spacetime is a 2D-surface that has geometrical features .	Spacetime is flat . Spacetime is curved . Spacetime is bumpy . Spacetime has slopes .	
Dynamical mapping	Spacetime is a background that responds to the presence of massive objects.	Massive objects distort spacetime.	Spacetime stretches down under the weight of an object. Spacetime bends in towards an object. Objects create cavities, slopes and depression in spacetime.
	Spacetime is an actor that influences the movement of objects.	Objects move under the influence of spacetime.	Objects roll across spacetime. Objects fall in towards heavy objects. Spacetime curvature alters the path of objects. Objects deviate from their trajectory in response to deformation.

535
 536 Before looking closer at the four conceptual metaphors that the RSA encapsulates, we want to make
 537 two preliminary remarks. First, it is important to note that there are mappings in the RSA that seem to be less
 538 interesting with respect to the characterization of gravity as the geometry of spacetime. While we have identified
 539 many examples of objects that are commonly placed on the rubber sheet such as bowling balls, golf balls,
 540 marbles, and rocks, these objects do not reflect a relevant imaginative principle that characterizes one thing in
 541 terms of another, but are just examples of massive objects that exert a gravitational effect. Even though we
 542 might say that the *bowling ball* curving the rubber sheet is like the *sun* curving spacetime, this comparison is
 543 mostly an upscaling from everyday size objects to cosmic scale objects. However, the intrinsic feature of being a
 544 massive objective does not change when going from a ball to the sun. Thus, the mapping is qualitatively
 545 different from the mapping that takes place on the level spacetime-is-rubber sheet. When identifying conceptual
 546 metaphors for gravity, we therefore focused on the target-is-source mappings that deal with spacetime itself.

547 Second, as noted already in the methods section, the RSA entails two different kinds of mappings. First,
 548 there is a static mapping that maps an experience-based source area like the rubber sheet and marbles to the

549 target area of spacetime and planets. Second, there is a dynamical mapping that encodes the dynamic interplay
550 between the different actors of the mapping, i.e. how masses curve spacetime just like marbles curve a rubber
551 sheet. It is this dynamical interplay that gives rise to the phenomenon of gravity. We argue that both types of
552 mappings are important and constitute a metaphorical network of gravity as curved spacetime. The static
553 mapping settles the underlying structure of the RSA, whereas the dynamical mapping employs the “basic logic”
554 (Niebert & Gropengießer, 2014, p. 299) of the source domain to make sense of the physical mechanism of
555 gravity.

556 To exemplify the four identified conceptual metaphors below, we will use the following example from
557 a physics education article:

558 (...) let us now think of spacetime as though it were a rubber sheet stretched on a frame hanging over the ground.
559 If there is no matter in it, spacetime is flat. If a particle, a marble or a light ray, were rolled across flat space time, it
560 would go straight. If, on the other hand, matter, a star for example, is present, it acts like a weight on the sheet and
561 creates a distortion. The sheet would stretch down under the weight; the greater the weight the greater the
562 indentation. Now when a marble or light ray is rolled across the sheet it curves into the depression. In this picture
563 the particle is moving rapidly enough to bend in toward the lump and continue to move on out. Another particle
564 might circle and eventually fall into the depression. (Chandler, 1994, p. 171)

565 While spacetime as the target domain remains the same, we have found a variety of source domains
566 that get mapped onto this abstract domain: a rubber sheet, a pillow, a membrane, a trampoline. However, all
567 source domains have one feature in common which leads to the reconstruction of the first conceptual metaphor:
568 **Spacetime is a fabric that can be stretched and deformed.** This conceptual metaphor captures the idea that all
569 source domains are fabric-like objects that are malleable. Evidence for this conceptual metaphor includes the
570 use of a source domain that either implicitly displays this property (as for example a rubber sheet does) or
571 explicitly mentions the stretching and deforming of the source domain: “(...) let us now think of spacetime as
572 though it were a **rubber sheet stretched** on a frame hanging over the ground.”; “The sheet would **stretch down**
573 under the weight; the greater the weight the greater the indentation.”

574 Moreover, most mappings did not stop at the level of comparing spacetime to a fabric. The internal
575 logic of this mapping invites us to deduce further characteristics of the target domain, which leads to the
576 formulation of the second conceptual metaphor: **Spacetime is a two-dimensional surface that has geometrical**
577 **features.** In the literature, we found analogies that characterized spacetime via a source object that is flat,
578 curved, bumpy, twisted, has a slope, and which, accordingly, has geometrical features. These characterizations
579 imply in particular that spacetime is a two-dimensional surface embedded in three-dimensional space: “If there
580 is no matter in it, spacetime is **flat**. If a particle, a marble or a light ray, were rolled across flat space time, it
581 would go straight.”; “In this picture the particle is moving rapidly enough to bend in toward the **lump** and
582 continue to move on out.”

583 These two conceptual metaphors make up what we call the static mappings of the RSA. They
584 characterize spacetime in terms of more familiar notions, but do not yet explain how gravity arises. The
585 explanation of this phenomenon is captured by two additional conceptual metaphors that make up the dynamical
586 part of the mapping. Note that each of these two conceptual metaphors can be formulated either from the
587 spacetime or the mass perspective: **Spacetime is a background that responds to the presence of massive**
588 **objects/Massive objects distort spacetime.** In the literature, the RSA is used to explain how gravity arises by
589 saying that spacetime stretches down under the weight of objects, spacetime bends in towards objects, or that it
590 is distorted by objects. On the other hand, it is said that objects create cavities, slopes, or depressions. Mappings
591 were considered to have evidence of this conceptual metaphor if they discussed either the way that spacetime
592 reacts to the presence of massive objects or the distortion effect of massive objects on spacetime: “If, on the
593 other hand, matter, a star for example, is present, it **acts like a weight** on the sheet and **creates a distortion**. The
594 sheet would **stretch down under the weight**; the greater the weight the greater the indentation.”

595 Finally, we have the metaphor: **Spacetime is an actor that influences the movement of**
596 **objects/Objects move under the influence of spacetime.** Evidence for this conceptual metaphor entails the
597 way objects react to the geometry of spacetime or the way curvature alters their paths: objects deviate from their

trajectories, they curve or fall in towards massive objects, and their motion changes in response to deformation: “Now when a marble or light ray is rolled across the sheet **it curves into the depression**. In this picture the particle is moving rapidly enough **to bend in toward the lump** and continue to move on out. Another particle **might circle and eventually fall into the depression**.”

By definition, conceptual metaphors capture the underlying relationships that guide analogical mappings between the target and source domain. Thus, breaking down the ways that gravity is conceptualized in the RSA helps to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the analogy. In order to do so, we compared the strengths and weaknesses of the four conceptual metaphors that we had identified that were mentioned explicitly in the literature. This comparison allowed us to supplement the literature collection of strengths and weaknesses with our own findings. To answer our first research question, we synthesized the features that the RSA brings into focus and obscures in table 2.

Table 2 - Strengths and weaknesses of the RSA. Findings in the table were synthesized from literature examples supplemented with our own findings based on a metaphor analysis of the literature.

Strengths of the RSA	Weaknesses of the RSA
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • spacetime is dynamic and not static • spacetime is influenced by objects • spacetime alters the movement of objects • gravity exhibits a universal nature: spacetime responds universally according to the weight of the objects - the more massive an object, the more distortion of spacetime it will create • gravitational phenomena involve no “mysterious” action at a distance • gravity is geometry; the RSA provides a mechanism of how gravity arises • the RSA is a simple, intuitive model • the RSA has great explanatory power; it is suitable to show orbital motions, curved space, and photon trajectories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the RSA obscures that spacetime is four-dimensional • the RSA obscures that spacetime has a temporal dimension • the RSA obscures that curvature is an intrinsic feature; it depicts curved spacetime as if there was an unseen dimension into which spacetime curves • the RSA obscures that curvature around massive objects is symmetric in all dimensions • the RSA makes use of the force of gravity to explain the distortion of the rubber sheet

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4.2. Students’ Understanding of the Rubber Sheet Analogy

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We found a big variety in students’ written responses in terms of length, depth of reflection, and the range of issues addressed. This variety shows that students engaged with the task in many different ways. The task was an open one: by asking students to use their knowledge of GR to discuss the cartoon and to summarize their discussion in written form afterwards, we challenged them to figure out what they felt was important. In 39 of 65 responses, we identified instances of metaphorical language that were accessible to metaphor analysis, whereas 42 of 65 responses addressed limitations and strengths of the analogies. Those responses encompassed elaborations on the need to employ analogical reasoning in science, as well as pointed out specific shortcomings of the RSA in the context of GR. In addition, 12 responses dealt with the instructional context of the cartoon and how the interaction between teacher and student contributed to understanding GR.

It was interesting to see how students incorporated different parts of the learning environment in order to solve the task. Many connected the cartoon to explanations previously presented, such as our inability to visualize four dimensions except mathematically. Thus, the format of the question seems to have been successful in engaging students to piece together the different bits of explanations that convey the complex scientific concept of gravity as curved spacetime.

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4.2.1. Systematic Metaphor Analysis of Student Responses

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To characterize students' understanding of the RSA, we first looked at the ways in which students talked about the RSA. Analyzing the language they employed through the lens of metaphor analysis allowed us to approach our second research question.

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In the metaphor analysis of the literature we found four conceptual metaphors that describe the relationships between spacetime and massive objects. Conducting a similar analysis of students' responses, we found that students displayed a wider range of target-source-mappings (table 3, figure 4). While the literature only identified productive target source mappings, students had not acquired a complete understanding of the analogy yet, and were therefore likely to produce mismatches between target and domain areas of the analogy. Naturally, students produced more mappings because there are many possibilities to create mappings between target and source objects. However, on a deeper level, these mismatches allowed us insight into the challenges that students face when conceptualizing gravity and spacetime.

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Similarly to the characterization of the literature findings, we divided the student-generated mappings into static and dynamic ones (table 3). In general, occurrences of static mappings were less frequent than dynamical ones and there was a greater variety of mappings in the dynamical domain. This difference in frequency provides a first hint that students displayed more misconceptions in the dynamical mappings of the RSA. They might struggle most with the actual mechanism of gravity (i.e. the dynamical interplay between target and source components that give rise to the physical phenomenon of gravity) than with the static mapping between spacetime and rubber sheet as such.

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Most of the static mappings only broke down spacetime into space and time components. Students mapped both the space and the time component onto a fabric-like object that resembled a surface with geometric features. This object could be a rubber-sheet, a sheet, a trampoline, a tablecloth, a paper, or a rubber-pad; but no matter what actual source domain the students chose, their mappings resembled the two static conceptual metaphors we found in the literature. In one instance, students chose "lines" as the source domain to describe spacetime with. We interpret this choice as borrowing from a common way of depicting spacetime with the help of a deformed mesh (figure 1).

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The only novel mapping we found that differed significantly from the common comparison of a rubber sheet to space, time, or spacetime involved the fourth dimension:

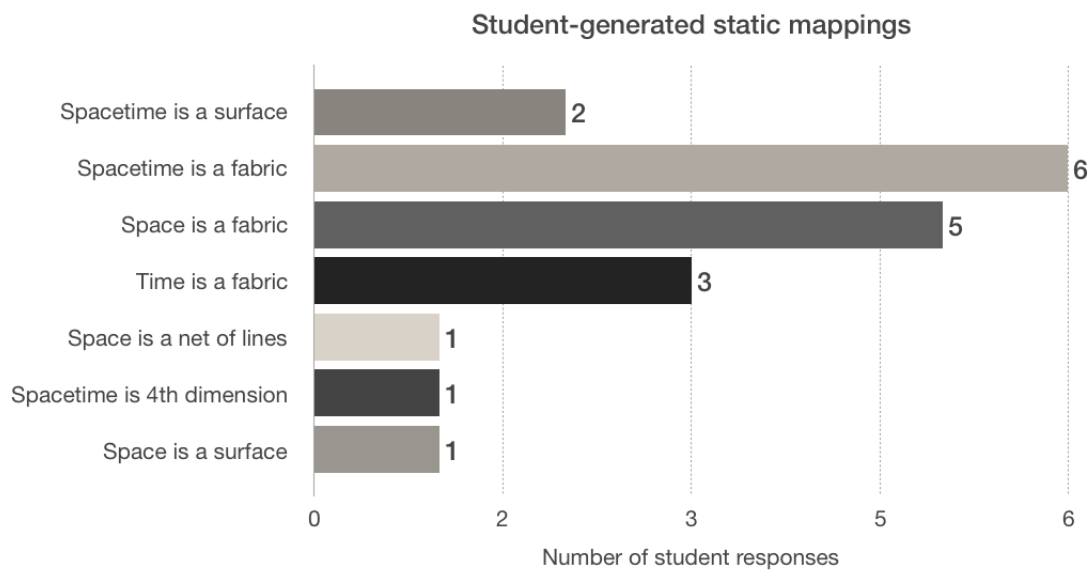
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Einstein thinks that objects with mass curve spacetime, the **fourth dimension**. He thinks that people live in a four-dimensional reality where **the fourth dimension is spacetime**. . (Student group 1)

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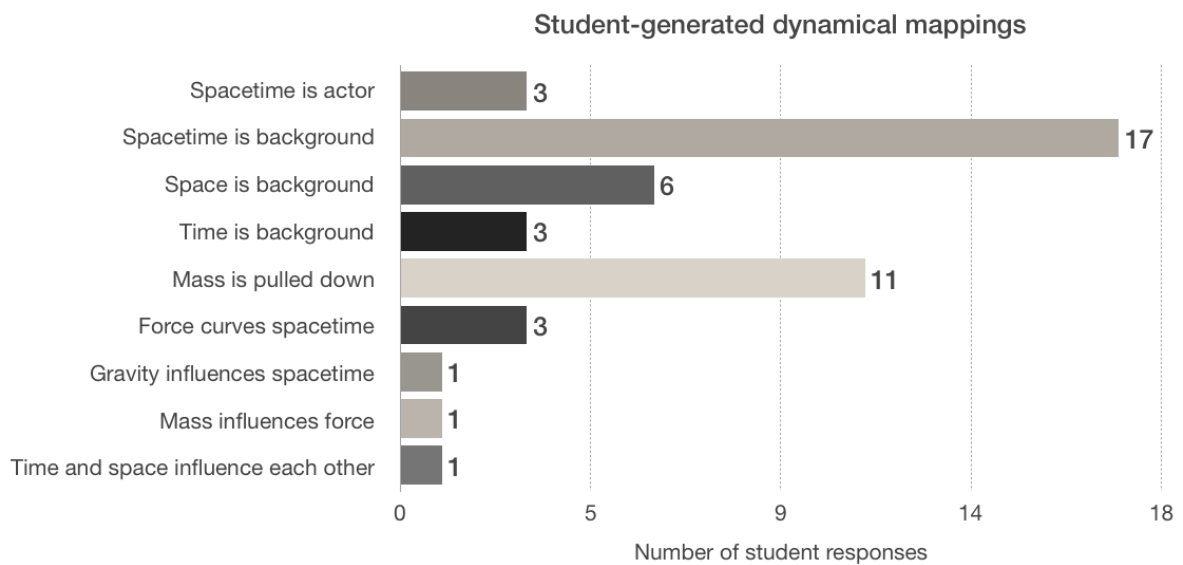
This response shows how students confused the new terminology, which seems to be particularly challenging. Even though the formulation "mass curves spacetime" is a correct one, it becomes clear that this group of students still struggled with the abstract notions of the fourth dimension and spacetime both of which are equated in this response. Thus, using the right terminology could in some cases mask students' lack of conceptual understanding and a metaphor analysis allowed exploring whether this was indeed the case.

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665

666 **Fig. 4** Conceptual metaphors that students generated in the static mapping between source and target domain. The height of the bar represents the number of student responses. In total, 39 responses featured various
667 metaphorical instances of which 19 corresponded to static mappings.
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671 **Figure 5** - Conceptual metaphors that students generated in the dynamical mapping between source and target
672 domain. The height of the bar represents the number of student responses. In total, 39 responses featured various
673 metaphorical instances of which 46 corresponded to dynamic mappings.

674

675 One would expect an added level of complexity when students have to describe the physics of
676 gravitation that is captured by the dynamic relationships between target and source domains. Our findings align
677 with this speculation, as students generated a greater variety of dynamical mappings (figure 5). While the most

678 common mappings corresponded to the ones identified in the literature - namely that spacetime (or space or time
 679 separately) is a background that responds to the presence of massive objects and an actor that influences the
 680 movement of these - we identified various other novel conceptual metaphors. These conceptual metaphors
 681 concerned mainly the interplay of force, mass, and spacetime.

682 Not surprisingly, the most common novel conceptual metaphor addressed the problem that is featured
 683 in the cartoon: in order for the mapping to work, the RSA relies on the force of gravity that pulls a massive
 684 object down, thus explaining the relativistic notion of gravity with its classical counterpart. Of course, the task
 685 invited students to observe this. Accordingly, almost all responses that employed the passive (or Newtonian)
 686 perspective that the mass is pulled down into the sheet instead of the active (or Einsteinian) view that mass
 687 curves spacetime expressed criticism towards this idea. We come back to this observation in the next section
 688 when looking closer at students' awareness of the analogical nature of the RSA.

689 Less frequent but crucially related to the Newtonian conception of gravity is the idea that spacetime is
 690 curved by a force or by gravity acting on it:

691 We discussed what this **force that curves spacetime** could be since it is not a force. (Student group 2)

692 This response and the general mappings that conflated forces with the analogical mappings show that
 693 students still used the force concept in their reasoning even though they “knew” and were told that gravity is not
 694 a force. These conceptual metaphors thus point towards a conceptual struggle that students faced when
 695 attempting the transition from classical to relativistic theories of gravitation. They confused cause and effect in
 696 the analogy: the force of gravity does not curve spacetime, but it arises from the curvature of spacetime.

697
 698 Finally, we would like to comment on the implicit mappings that we already mentioned in the methods section.
 699 Many students used the RSA implicitly – 22 out of 39 metaphorical phrases remained either in the target or the
 700 source area. This observation could first of all be simply a sign of the fact that students inferred from the given
 701 context that the mapping was there without seeing the need to actually spell it out. But it could also indicate an
 702 insufficient understanding of what the target and the source domains were and might display lacking of mastery
 703 of the domain specific language. Possibly, the usefulness of analogical mapping was not clear to them - the
 704 productive use requires explanations of the relationship between target and source.

705 In table 3, we list all student-generated conceptual metaphors. Each metaphor is exemplified by a
 706 student response. It is important to note that student responses often comprise several conceptual metaphors, so
 707 our choice of examples does not necessarily reflect just one particular conceptual metaphor.

708 **Table 3 - Student-generated mappings between target and source domains of the RSA. The shaded conceptual**
 709 **metaphors are the ones found in the literature. Examples are translations from student responses retrieved from the**
 710 **learning environment.**

Conceptual metaphor		Examples of student response.
Static mappings	Spacetime is a fabric that is malleable.	In this cartoon we see that the teacher tries to explain spacetime by comparing it to a rubber pad where heavier masses fall further down than smaller masses. (Student group 19)
	Spacetime is a 2D-surface that has geometrical features.	Spacetime is influenced by gravity, therefore the rubber sheet gets twisted . (Student group 20)
	Space is a fabric that is malleable.	In the cartoon there is a question what pulls the object downwards such that the space gets curved . But you should not see this as a force, but that the space “curves itself around” . (Student group 21)
	Time is a fabric that is malleable.	If you put a mass on a sheet it will bend and create a curved spacetime around the mass like that we have seen before where the sheet was time . (Student group 22)
	Space is a surface that has geometrical features.	(...) space (...) can almost be viewed as a sheet around the object . (Student group 23)

	Space is a net of lines.	Here it is introduced that the “force” of gravity pulls the lines down. This is wrong according to Einstein. (Student group 24)
	Spacetime is the fourth dimension.	Einstein thinks that objects with mass curve spacetime, the fourth dimension . He thinks that people live in a four-dimensional reality where the fourth dimension is spacetime . (Student group 1)
Dynamical mappings	Spacetime is a background that responds to the presence of massive objects.	Spacetime curves itself around the masses because the masses “lie” on top of spacetime and press it down . (Student group 25)
	Spacetime is an actor that influences the movement of objects.	Mass curves spacetime and spacetime determines therefore the movement of the masses in spacetime. (Student group 26)
	Space is a background that responds to the presence of massive objects.	The point is not that the mass is “pulled down” in space. Space curves itself around the mass . (Student group 27)
	Time is a background that responds to the presence of massive objects.	Big masses curve all of time and space and do this in several dimensions. (Student group 9)
	Mass is pulled down.	This can be difficult to visualize, so we usually look at this in two dimensions. Then it looks as if there is something that pulls the mass down . But it is the mass itself that curves the space. (Student group 9)
	A force curves spacetime.	We discussed what this force that curves spacetime could be since it is not a force. (Student group 2)
	Gravity influences spacetime.	Spacetime is influenced by gravity , therefore the “rubber sheet” gets twisted. (Student group 20)
	Mass influences force.	The ball sinks down into the sheet because of gravity and heaviness, but in the outer space heaviness will not make it fall down. This is because there is no force of gravity in outer space. Instead, the mass of an object will tell how much force of gravity it has. How much it attracts other objects. (Student group 28)

711

712

4.2.2. Thematic Analysis of Student Responses

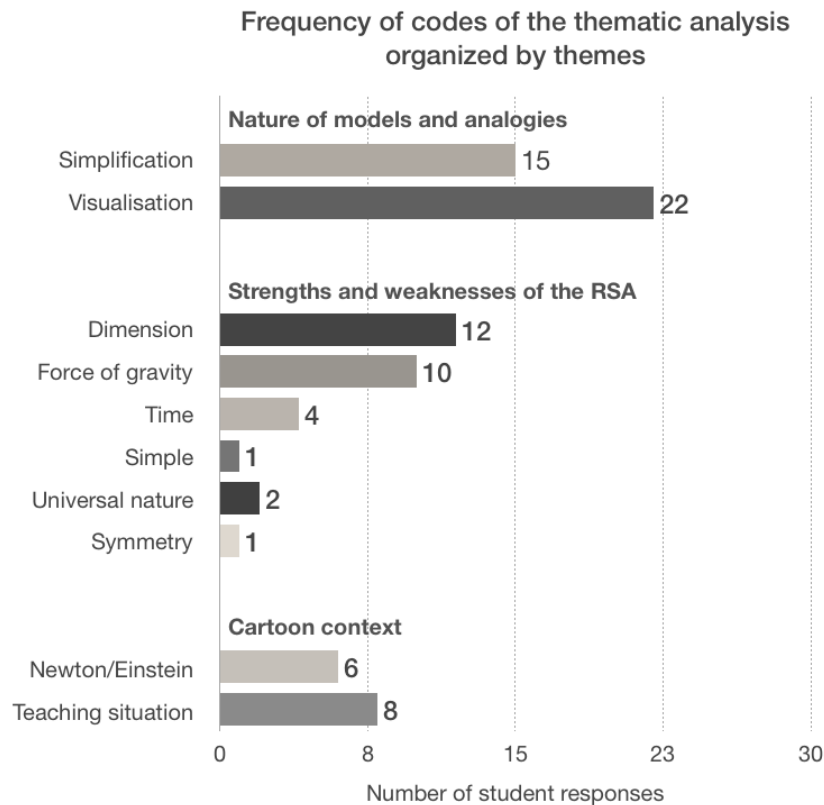
713

714 The metaphor analysis of students’ language served as a starting point from which we further explored students’

715 understanding of the RSA. The thematic analysis of student responses allowed us to move beyond the structural

716 linguistic level by taking into account how students showed awareness for the analogical nature of the RSA. An

717 overview of the frequency of codes is displayed in figure 6. In what follows, we explain the findings in detail.



718

719 **Fig. 6** The thematic coding of student responses comprises three themes and ten codes. In total, 42 responses
720 featured student talk about analogies.

721 In the two most frequent types of responses, students displayed a general understanding for the role of
722 analogies and analogical models in science, which we turned into the theme “nature of models and analogies”
723 and that consists of the codes “visualization” and “simplification”. The code “simplification” encompasses
724 written accounts that express the insight that analogies are always limited in their explanatory power and that
725 they inevitably simplify or approximate a phenomenon to a certain extent:

726 A useful tool to understand physical phenomena are models. The problem with the models is that they are
727 simplifications. In this case the models become actually wrong. You could think that it is the force of
728 gravity that pulls the object down, but there is no force of gravity. The alternative is to explain the
729 phenomenon purely mathematically, but then you don’t have any illustration. (Student group 3)

730 Here, students displayed awareness of the limited nature of the RSA and expressed the understanding
731 that models of gravity can only be an approximation, as well as that it is only through mathematics that one can
732 fully describe GR. Other students were more explicit in relating the need for visualizations to their
733 understanding of the simplifying function of models:

734 We make models to describe physical phenomena, but these models are simplifications and not quite precise. They
735 help us to visualize, even though they don’t tell the whole truth. Mathematically, we get the correct results just by
736 using calculations, but to understand curvature of spacetime we need to visualize it with help of simplifications.
737 (Student group 4)

738

739 In those two examples, we can also identify another important issue that got mentioned repeatedly: the
740 inability to visualize curved spacetime. Students expressed their awareness for their inability to visualize more
741 than three dimensions:

742 *It is impossible to make a precise three-dimensional representation of a four-dimensional phenomenon.*
743 (Student group 5)

744 *It is impossible to visualize¹ four-dimensional spacetime, and you need to use two- and three-*
745 *dimensional analogies that approximately can give an understanding of how four dimensions work.*
746 (Student group 6)

747 *We live in a four-dimensional world where three of them can be understood by human beings. To*
748 *understand the concept of curvature of spacetime we can use analogies, but analogies will never make*
749 *you visualize time, this can only describe the effect of spacetime curvature.* (Student group 7)

750 While students showed a quite sophisticated understanding of the need for analogies and visualizations
751 in the domain of GR, many of the responses remained on a rather general level and only about half explained
752 specific shortcomings of the RSA. These strengths and weaknesses that relate directly to the RSA are
753 summarized in the second theme that encompasses six codes which we contrast with the significantly longer list
754 of strengths and weaknesses as synthesized based on the literature analysis in table 2.

755 The most common limitation of the RSA that students identified was the reduction of a four-
756 dimensional phenomenon to a lower-dimensional representation tagged by the code “dimension”. While this
757 weakness of the RSA is closely related to the general inability to visualize four dimensions, some students
758 touched upon the problem of “intrinsic” curvature versus “extrinsic” curvature:

759 We discussed how curvature does not happen within the dimensions the object is in, but in a new
760 such that we cannot observe that space itself gets curved. (Student group 8)

761 This response reflects a common criticism brought forward by physicists and physics educators (e.g.
762 Gould, 2016), namely that the RSA suggests that spacetime curves into an unseen additional dimension. Indeed,
763 it seems that students struggled with this depiction of spacetime and were not necessarily aware that the unseen
764 dimension is an artefact of the analogy that does not correspond to a real physical phenomenon.

765 The second most common analogical weakness identified by students was the problem related to the
766 force of gravity:

767 Large masses curve everything of time and space, and do this in several dimensions. This can be difficult to
768 visualize, so we usually look at this in two dimensions. Then it looks as if there is something pulling the mass. But
769 it is the mass itself that curves space. (Student group 9)

770 Here, students summarized the key problem of the RSA addressed in the cartoon: that “something” is
771 needed to exert a pull on the massive object. In the source domain of the rubber sheet, this pull is provided by
772 the force of gravity – which does not have an analogue in the target domain of abstract spacetime.

773 Almost all of the ten responses tagged by the code “force of gravity” addressed the incorrect
774 assumption that the mass is being pulled down:

775 We discussed that this model is a bit wrong to use, because it refers to a force of gravity that holds the ball down.
776 It does not work like this according to Einstein. . (Student group 10)

777 However, student discussions about the analogy suggest that many still thought along the lines of
778 classical physics or struggled with reconciling how masses can exert an influence without the mediating force of
779 gravity:

¹ The original Norwegian „å se for seg“ can be translated as „to visualise“, „to envision“, „to see in your mind’s eye“ or more literally “to see in front of you”. In our translations we chose the expression „to visualize“.

780 *It is difficult to describe spacetime. It is also difficult to visualize that mass influences spacetime just by*
781 *being mass. That mass is not influenced by a force and that that's the reason it exerts an influence.*
782 (Student group 11)

783 *We discussed how mass can influence spacetime, if spacetime does not have mass itself.* (Student group
784 12)

785 This finding shows us that, for students, the phenomenon of gravity seems to be deeply associated with
786 the concepts of force and mass. In particular, the second quote is interesting, as it expresses the idea that
787 spacetime itself might have mass in order for it to be influenced by other masses. This finding gives insight into
788 students' ability to use their existing knowledge to deduce characteristics of novel scientific concepts. In this
789 case, the justified conclusion that spacetime must have mass because it reacts to the presence of other masses
790 was discarded by the students themselves.

791 Another important feature that the RSA hides is that spacetime has a temporal dimension - masses
792 curve time as well. Even though the learning environment introduced the RSA by pointing out that this is a
793 weakness of the analogy, only few students addressed this weakness:

794 *The first analogy does not take the time coordinate into account and there is a simplified model.*
795 *Therefore, there arise questions concerning imprecisions of the analogy. We have to use simplified*
796 *models because we cannot visualize four dimensions.* (Student group 13)

797 Student group? *We discussed Einstein's model where curvature in spacetime and geometry around it*
798 *lead to what we call gravity. The most difficult to understand is the time parameter in the model and*
799 *how also this is curved.* (Student group 14)

800 The relatively few responses that mentioned the time dimension suggest that, generally, students were
801 not aware that the time dimension plays an important role in the origin of gravitation; those that showed such
802 awareness admitted that this part of the theory was difficult to understand. This observation suggests that the
803 role of time might have posed a conceptual challenge for students when dealing with gravity in the setting of GR.
804 Alternatively, the cartoon might have set students on a different track by emphasizing the force aspect of the
805 analogy, making them neglect the time aspect.

806 Interestingly, students usually only addressed one flaw of the RSA. Of the 26 responses that addressed
807 a specific strength or weakness, only four mentioned two specific flaws/strengths and three of those responses
808 mentioned the dimension problem. Even though the task was open-ended, thus allowing students to explore
809 different problems that come with the use of the RSA, most seemed to have settled on one problematic issue.
810 This observation suggests that there might be instructional potential to facilitate conceptual understanding of GR
811 by presenting various strengths and weaknesses of the RSA explicitly.

812
813 The last theme, "cartoon context", does not directly relate to the RSA, but offers interesting insights into
814 students' conceptualization of gravity in GR nonetheless. The theme contains the codes "teaching situation" and
815 "Newton/Einstein".

816 Many students picked up on the teaching situation illustrated in the cartoon that emphasized the role of
817 the teacher when learning GR. They stated that it is difficult to teach GR and that falling back to mathematics
818 might be a convenient way for teachers to avoid facing difficult questions by students:

819 *We discussed that the teacher didn't have a good response to the question of the student and responded*
820 *with a really theoretical calculation to stop the questions. The reason for this can be that it is*
821 *impossible for us to visualize four dimensions, and therefore it is also difficult to teach this.* (Student
822 group 15)

823 *First the teacher explains via drawings, the student does not understand this, so it gets explained via*
824 *formulas and logic and the student thinks this is boring. The topic is possibly also too difficult for the*
825 *student to understand if you just jump right into it. (Student group 16)*

826 Surprisingly, interpretations of the teaching situation produced an interesting response in five cases:
827 students compared the teacher to Einstein and the student to Newton. This is in line with the presentation of GR
828 in the program where GR is presented in opposition to Newtonian physics. Students projected the Newtonian
829 and the Einsteinian view on the two protagonists in the cartoon. Here, we recognize an observation made
830 already during the metaphor analysis: students drew on previous presentations of GR in the program and several
831 students seemed to remember the contrast between Einstein and Newton well:

832 *The teacher is Einstein, while the student is Newton. (Student group 17)*

833 *First the teacher tries to explain how time and space can be curved by objects. The student doesn't*
834 *understand this and he tries to explain it with equations instead. He thinks this is boring. These are two*
835 *persons that maybe have two different ways to look at spacetime. The teacher looks at it in the same*
836 *way as Einstein and the student in the same way as Newton. Therefore, they don't quite understand*
837 *each other. (Student group 18)*

838 We have used the thematic analysis of student responses to explore student awareness of the analogical
839 nature of the RSA and to answer our third research question. In summary, we can see that students displayed a
840 sound understanding of the scope and limitations of analogies as one particular model in the domain of GR.
841 Nonetheless, students addressed specific strengths and weaknesses less often. The reduction of the number of
842 dimensions and the incorrect mechanism of the curving of the rubber sheet by means of the classical force of
843 gravity were the weaknesses that students mentioned most. Less common was the observation that the RSA only
844 depicts curved space and thus neglects the curvature of the time component in spacetime.

845 **5. Discussion**

846

847 We began with the goal of understanding the RSA and the affordances it provides for students to conceptualize
848 gravity as curved spacetime in the domain of GR. In this section, we want to summarize our findings in light of
849 our research questions and discuss instructional implications related to the approach of embodied cognition.

850 Two rounds of independent analyses of student responses (coding for conceptual metaphors and coding
851 for strengths and weaknesses of the RSA) showed that students generated more conceptual metaphors than the
852 ones found in the literature. The greater part of the conceptual metaphors had much overlap with the ones
853 employed by experts in the field and merely deconstructed spacetime into its space and time components.
854 However, we observed novel mappings between the target and source domains as well, and those mappings led
855 to essentially different conceptions: whereas GR posits that force is a consequence of the curvature of spacetime
856 (we interpret geometrical properties as forces acting on objects), students turned this reasoning upside down.
857 They described a force that curves spacetime or talked about gravity curving spacetime. Thus, metaphor theory
858 suggests that students might confuse cause and effect when working with the RSA.

859 Niebert and Gropengießer (2014) made a related observation concerning students' conceptions of the
860 greenhouse effect. They found that students and scientists used the same source and target schemata but mapped
861 them differently, leading to different conceptions of the greenhouse effect. Selecting those mappings that will be
862 fruitful when conceptualizing scientific concepts is thus an intricate task in abstract domains such as climate
863 change or general relativity.

864 We casted our investigations into the framework of embodied cognition, which assumes that
865 conceptual understanding requires grounding in experience (Niebert et al., 2012). According to this framework,
866 it is not enough to relate instructional analogies to everyday life. Students use their embodied experience to
867 understand analogies, something that instructors need to be aware of. For analogies to be successful in

868 communicating scientific concepts, the chosen source domains need to be embodied in such a way as to not
869 conflict with the target domain. A metaphor for gravity should not depend on student's embodied experiences
870 with gravity.

871 In light of our findings, we would like to put this observation further into perspective. Even though the
872 source domain of the RSA draws on students' embodied experience, it seems that exactly this conceptualized
873 experience of gravity often got in the way of inferring the right analogical mappings. In order to conceptualize
874 the physical mechanism of gravity in the domain of GR, students need to develop awareness of the tension
875 between the physical force of gravity in the everyday experiential sense and the curved spacetime explanation.

876 Nonetheless, the RSA gives students a concrete object to visualize and interact with. If we make
877 students become aware of the scope and limitations of their imaginative capacities, this analogical visualization
878 could fill in a link in the chain of reasoning leading from experiential understanding of gravity towards a more
879 sophisticated understanding in the context of GR. After all, many students linked their understanding of curved
880 spacetime to their ability to visualize it. This finding resonates with a shared interest in visualizations among
881 science educator who have called attention to the significance of developing students' skills of visualization
882 more systematically (Gilbert, 2005).

883 More generally, we argue that GR is a domain in which students can benefit from a teaching approach
884 with a greater emphasis on the nature of science and scientific models, in particular on the scope and limitations
885 of scientific models. While many students displayed a good understanding of the role that analogies and models
886 play in GR, significantly fewer identified specific limitations of the RSA. There seems to be untapped potential
887 in creating awareness for exactly those misleading features of the RSA in order to foster conceptual
888 understanding of relativistic phenomena. We have thus identified several specific instructional strategies for
889 improving the introduction of GR in classroom settings. First, we suggest that teachers might provide an
890 explicit classroom discussion of the flaws of the RSA as listed in Table 2. Identifying the shortcomings of a
891 two-dimensional, spatial representation of four-dimensional curved spacetime can help prevent the formation of
892 mismatches and incorrect mappings between target and source domains.

893 The RSA is one way of visualizing the physics of curved spacetime. To prevent the one-sided
894 presentation of the concept of curved spacetime as a deformed rubber sheet, teachers can supplement this
895 analogy with other models of spacetime such as the world map model that compares the geometry of spacetime
896 to the geometry of two-dimensional maps (Gould, 2016; Stannard et al., 2017). Seeing that the time dimension
897 tends to be a neglected feature in the RSA, it is moreover important to emphasize that curvature and movement
898 in spacetime entails both curvature and movement in space and time. The role of time as a crucial part of
899 teaching and instructional in GR is taken up in a related study of project ReleQuant (Steier & Kersting, n.d.). In
900 this case study, that reports on the first trial of the ReleQuant project learning environment, students struggled to
901 use Einstein's model, and in particular the RSA, to explain gravitational phenomena from everyday life. While
902 they could explain planetary movement according to GR, students failed to draw on Einstein's model to explain
903 why they were pulled towards the ground. It seemed that students related curvature to movement and lacked an
904 understanding of their continuous movement along the time-dimension. Teachers should thus pay particular
905 attention to the role of time when using the RSA to teach GR.

906 In their discussions, students frequently juxtaposed Newton's explanations of gravity to Einstein's and
907 identified the stickmen in the cartoon with Newton and Einstein respectively. Thus, another fruitful way for
908 teachers to introduce the physics of GR might be to address the historic development of GR and Einstein's
909 struggle to overcome Newtonian physics. Helping students contrast their own classical conceptions of gravity
910 with the novel relativistic ones can serve as a fruitful addition to the use of the RSA.

911 More generally, linking the concept of spacetime and other key concepts of GR to students' life worlds
912 is one design principle for learning resources that project ReleQuant has identified as important in the domain of
913 GR (Kersting et al., 2018). To counteract the lack of experience with relativistic phenomena, visualizations in
914 form of digital simulations and animations can supplement static representations of spacetime.

915 In this study, students encountered the analogy as part of a learning sequence that guided them through
916 different explorations of curved spacetime in form of interactive simulations. Each separate task provided a
917 slightly different perspective on spacetime, which constitutes one conceptually important part of GR. The way
918 Einstein modeled gravitational phenomena through geometric reasoning extended his original ideas about the
919 principle of relativity and the relation of space and time in special relativity. A broader account of this
920 development and students' understanding of other concepts in GR is given in (Kersting et al., 2018).

921 Finally, we would also like to discuss what we view as two important limitations of this study. First,
922 our data consist of written responses from five physics classes in three Norwegian upper secondary schools. The
923 analysis of students' metaphorical language allowed us to gain insight into the ways that students conceptualised
924 curved spacetime through the RSA. These insights are, however, often only supported by a small number of
925 responses. While our results are thus not generalizable per se, we think that knowledge of the student-generated
926 mappings between target and source domain can help teachers to identify possible sources of conflict with the
927 RSA. This knowledge has thus the potential to be quite broadly applicable in teaching and instruction of GR.

928 Second, the discussion task featuring the cartoon of the RSA was open-ended. Students were thus not
929 necessarily interpreting the cartoon in a way that aligned with our research questions. Asking students to use
930 their knowledge of GR to discuss and comment on the cartoon can of course only give a partial insight into their
931 conceptual understanding of gravity and curved spacetime. Keeping this in mind and viewing our study as a first
932 step towards a more holistic understanding of learning processes in GR, however, the format of the task had
933 advantages as well: the cartoon addressed explicitly a particular flaw of the RSA, thus prompting students to
934 comment on its analogical nature. Also, by leaving the task open, students could not merely repeat back answers
935 from other parts of the learning environment – a common behavior that we had observed in the first trialling of
936 the learning environment.

937 **6. Conclusion**

938
939 Addressing the controversy around the use of the RSA in the teaching and learning of GR, this study presents
940 empirical evidence of upper secondary school students' reasoning when conceptualizing gravity as curved
941 spacetime. First, we performed a metaphor analysis of the literature to identify four conceptual metaphors that
942 comprise the fundamental relationships between target and source domains of the RSA. Based on this analysis,
943 we identified strengths and weaknesses of the RSA. A second metaphor analysis of students' written responses
944 revealed a greater variety of student-generated conceptual metaphors than held by experts in the field and a
945 thematic analysis gave insight into students' awareness of the analogical nature of the RSA.

946 We hope that knowledge of students' different conceptions of gravity as curved spacetime and our
947 compilation of strengths and weaknesses of the RSA can give guidance for teachers and science educators alike.
948 Making students become aware of the strengths and weaknesses of the RSA might be as important as
949 introducing them to the physics of gravitation according to the relativistic framework. Moreover, teaching
950 should be explicit about identifying the source and target domains in order to make it clearer to students what a
951 metaphor is and how it is used. One area to be explored in future work would be to teach students
952 simultaneously about gravity with the RSA along with an introduction to the structural features of metaphors
953 more generally so that they can better interpret and apply the RSA.

954 Moreover, our study contributes to a growing body of recent research on metaphor analysis and
955 embodied cognition in the field of science education. While previous research has found that it takes more than
956 connecting analogies and metaphors to students' everyday life, namely an analogy that employs embodied
957 sources (Niebert et al., 2012), we present findings that give important nuances to this observation. We observed
958 a conflict between students' embodied understanding of gravity and the abstract description of GR. Even though
959 the source domain of the RSA draws on students' embodied experience, it seems that exactly this
960 conceptualized experience of gravity can get in the way of inferring the right analogical mappings. Thus, even if
961 an analogy builds on an embodied source domain, it can fail in communicating scientific concepts fruitfully. It is

962 therefore crucial that students probe their imaginative skills when conceptualizing abstract scientific concepts
963 such as curved spacetime to build awareness for the processes of their own metaphorical reasoning.

964 Despite some inherent conceptual flaws, the RSA has the potential to serve as a good metaphor.
965 Teaching GR can be successful if approaches build on students' understanding of the limited nature of scientific
966 models, communicate explicitly target and source domain and strengths and weaknesses of the RSA, and point
967 out the disagreement between students' experiential understanding of gravity and the reliance of the RSA on
968 exactly this experiential understanding to explain gravity in more abstract terms.

969 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

970
971 Conflict of Interest: No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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976

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