

# Science & Theatre

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# **Science & Theatre: Communicating Science and Technology with Performing Arts**

BY

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# Prologue

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Although there is evidence of prolific dialogue between science and theatre since Ancient Greece, the interaction between the two fields has undergone a process of renewed and intensified interest since the early 2000s. During this period, we see a shift in emphasis within science communication, from one-way transmission oriented, or deficit model, approaches to more dialogic modes of communication and an increased enthusiasm for the arts within the field. At the same time, the theatrical world has shown a strong interest in science; Shepherd-Barr (2006) suggests that this may have been sparked by the success of the play *Copenhagen* (Frayn, 1998). A resounding critical success, the play uses a meeting in Copenhagen during World War II between physicists Werner Heisenberg and Niels Bohr as a jumping-off point to explore how memory, like quantum mechanics, is uncertain. One of the aspects of *Copenhagen* that makes it particularly interesting as an example of science-theatre is the way in which quantum mechanics is embedded in the structure and staging of the play, as typically the use of three actors is marked out physically to illustrate Bohr's conceptualisation of the structure of an atom (containing protons, neutrons and electrons). You can enjoy the play perfectly well without realising the role this structure plays; allowing audiences to engage with the content and symbolism on different levels is one of the clever aspects of the play and its original staging.

*Copenhagen* has been staged in several countries, won many awards and has become a landmark within the contemporary phenomenon that is science-theatre. The play seems to have captured the imagination of the science communication community in particular, even though its author, Michael Frayn, has not shown any particular commitment to communicate science through theatre, indicating instead that he was simply inspired by a particular scientific topic. In Brazil, for example, the play was first performed in 2001 by a theatre company from São Paulo at the suggestion of a science communicator. The show's success encouraged the company to continue working with plays addressing science (Palma, 2006). Today, the Núcleo Arte Ciência no Palco [Art Science on Stage Nucleus] is one of the main contributors to science-theatre in the country, with 19 plays in its repertoire, on various science themes, aimed at both adults and children.

Alongside a rise in theatrical productions focusing on science themes or scientists' lives, has come interest from academic communities, though this has been primarily concentrated in those disciplines traditionally associated with theatre, such as literary studies and applied theatre. However, from a science communication perspective, the literature on this new phenomenon remains scarce and poorly systematised. To our knowledge, this is the first book to examine science-theatre specifically from the perspective of science communication scholarship. This book engages directly with both practice and academic research in the space where science-theatre is created through dialogue between the arts and the sciences. Further, we are particularly interested in productions created for the purpose of communicating science, rather than purely as an art form. This focus allows the book to enter into the space where museums, universities and research centres operate, as well as the space of theatre practitioners. It draws on the diverse perspectives of education, communication and sociology, which form the core of the field of science communication.

The term 'science communication' is being used here in a comprehensive way to refer to a practical and academic field that mobilises a series of actors and means to bring science and society closer together. This encompasses approaches that enable the spread of information and knowledge between science and the wider society, including those approaches that seek to stimulate dialogue between scientists and different social groups. We argue that science-theatre is one such approach, but one which has received relatively little attention from the science communication scholarly community. Several other terms, such as public communication of science and technology and public engagement, have been used to refer to initiatives aiming to bring science and society closer together, but these may carry with them more specific meanings and objectives. We chose the term 'science communication' primarily with the goal of inclusion rather than restriction, that is to enable diverse concepts and motivations to be considered. Although we are talking about a particular type of theatre that develops in this context, we are not talking about a specific type of science communication.

## 1.1 The Rise and Rise of Science-Theatre

The recent boom in plays about science is also the result of growing interest, since the turn of the 21st century, from both science communication practice and academia, in the use of art as a strategy for bringing science and society closer together (Halpern & O'Rogers, 2021). The relationship between the arts and sciences can be a difficult one, particularly in a science communication context, where the arts might be seen as somewhat subservient to the sciences. For example, working with artists may be seen by researchers working in academic fields and science communication professionals as offering a mechanism to reach new audiences, make research attractive to different publics or translate scientific concepts into more easily digestible ideas (see also Chapter 4, *Creating Science-Theatre: Who Participates and Why*). There is also an expectation that the arts, through their ability to affect people aesthetically and emotionally, will engage the audience in a deeper and more sensitive way with scientific themes, which are

often seen as complex, arid and controversial, than more traditional methods of science communication (Ede, 2002; Friedman, 2013; Lesen, Rogan, & Blum, 2016). In this scenario, research institutions and philanthropic entities supporting science play a central role by investing in projects and new spaces for the integration of science and technology with different forms of art (Silveira, 2018). We flag the potentially problematic relationship between science communication and the arts not to advocate against working with the arts for science communication purposes, but rather to encourage practitioners to consider these relationships more deeply. There are plenty of examples where scientists and artists collaborate as equals in projects that produce works of artistic merit, as well as examples where such relationships produce new scientific knowledge (Halpern & O'Rogers, 2021). As we will see in later chapters, such projects also exist within the science-theatre realm.

Educational entities (including academic associations, such as the Royal Institution of Great Britain, cultural organisations, such as museums, zoos, heritage sites and schools, but also theatre companies with pedagogical orientations) also contribute to the phenomenon that is science-theatre, developing programmes that draw on pedagogical theatrical traditions, such as theatre in education and educational drama. These institutions argue for approaches to education that merge scientific and artistic disciplines through an approach known as STEAM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Art and Mathematics). This movement advocates incorporating art into the more traditional term STEM and the transdisciplinary educational model it represents (Maeda, 2013). One argument for the inclusion of the arts in more traditional science and technology education is that it opens up space for greater creativity and might highlight the innovative nature of scientific research. Other arguments for bringing art and particularly theatre into the science classroom include to help learners understand the social relevance of science (see Dawson, Hill, Barlow, & Weitkamp, 2009), challenge socially damaging concepts and help make the invisible visible (Braund, 2015; Weitkamp, 2021).

Several qualities of the performing arts make them particularly interesting for science communication. First, theatre is a narrative format that uses storytelling and dialogue to convey meaning. Narratives provide an alternative to more typical approaches to science communication which may focus on concerns about jargon in the presentation of factual knowledge. Instead, a narrative approach invites the reader, or in the case of theatre, the spectator, to enter a storyworld, a place where everyday language and lived experience dominate (Weitkamp, 2019). In this space, we can place scientific knowledge in a context familiar to the spectator, allowing her to draw connections between the story told and her own lived experience, potentially making it easier to integrate this knowledge into the existing schema. Put simply, narratives help to contextualise science (Lafrenière & Cox, 2012), thereby making it relatable and 'provid[ing] the structure to make meanings apparent' (Weitkamp, 2019, p. 241). Furthermore, theatre is an art form that encompasses several others (Lopes, 2005), such as literature, music and the visual arts. By combining different arts and languages, it offers a very particular way of seeing and reflecting upon the world, based on the mobilisation of senses and emotions (Fruguglietti, 2009). As a live event, the theatre has its own

dynamics, directly affected by the participation of the audience, who are also protagonists at the performances. Theatre creates new realities, triggers imagination and creativity (Hughes, 1998). Finally, theatre has a precious feature for science communication, which is its ability to mix affective and cognitive stimuli. This powerful attribute is central to achieving the various objectives that can underpin science-theatre in the context of science communication, whether they are teaching, arousing curiosity, changing perception or behaviour, stimulating debate and criticism, or empowering.

With all this potential to be explored, there has been a proliferation of science communication initiatives that merge scientific and theatrical elements. Many of them have gained visibility through networks and events that bring together the community of professionals and researchers in the field, such as the Network for the Popularization of Science and Technology in Latin America and the Caribbean (RedPop), the European Network of Science Centres and Museums (Ecsite) and the Public Communication of Science and Technology Network (PCST), and their respective periodic conferences. Through the aforementioned events and networks and the extant literature, we have spotted initiatives that bring together science and theatre in various parts of the world, including United Kingdom, United States, Australia, New Zealand, Vanuatu, Japan, Cambodia, Thailand, Vietnam, India, Nepal, South Africa, Kenya, Poland, Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, Greece, Italy, France, Portugal, Spain, Mexico, Argentina, Peru and Brazil. Some of these countries (e.g., India, Brazil and Italy) also periodically organise science-theatre festivals, revealing prolific production in the field.

## **1.2 Brief History of Science Communication and Its Paradigms**

As a dynamic field, which seeks to respond to the challenges of its space-time, science communication must reflect on its own theories and practices; it is only through this reflection that transformation occurs within the field. Despite sharing a common commitment to bringing science and society closer together, the area is driven by various goals and motivations that have changed and developed over time. Within this field of academia and practice, different views and conceptions now coexist. In this section, we present a brief history of the field of science communication and the different paradigms that mark its trajectory, to better situate the bases on which we will discuss the interactions between science and theatre throughout the book.

The history of science communication follows the trajectory of modern science, as communicating science to the general public, regardless of where, how and why, has always been an important part of doing science and building a scientific culture. Public discussion of science was common in many European countries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and took place in diverse venues from coffee houses to private salons; it was only in the twentieth century that science communication activities began to be seen as a ‘distraction’ from the real work of being a scientist (Wilkinson & Weitkamp, 2016). Gascoigne and Schiele (2020) argued that the post-World War II period saw a significant



shift in emphasis on science communication, as science became seen as essential for national economic competitiveness in many countries. This period sees the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) encourage governments 'to mobilise their population through the development of science culture by the implementation of programs to promote and propagate scientific knowledge and scientific thinking' (OECD, 1981, p. 5). As such, it is during this post-war period that academic reflection on the relationship between science and society really begins in earnest.

Recent literature on the history of science communication points to a division of the last six decades into more or less well-defined phases, though this trajectory varies with geography. Drawing on the British experience, which has served as a global model for science communication, Bauer, Allum, and Miller (2007) proposed dividing science communication into three paradigms, which they named: *Science Literacy*, *Public Understanding of Science* (PUS) and *Science and Society*. According to these authors,

each paradigm has its prime time, more or less clearly defined, and is characterized by a diagnosis of the problem that science faces in its relationship with the public. [...] Each paradigm defines particular problems and offers preferred solutions. (Bauer et al., 2007, p. 80)

In the first paradigm, referred to in the literature as *Science Literacy* and which runs from the 1960s until the mid-1980s, the public's deficit of scientific knowledge was considered to be the most serious problem in the relations between science and society. In this phase, a minimum knowledge of scientific facts was considered necessary for people to live in a society governed by science and to participate in political decisions. Surveys were carried out to measure and monitor the public's scientific knowledge, with quiz-like items – for example, 'the sun goes round the earth', 'electrons are smaller than atoms'... true or false? The results of these surveys were considered real catastrophes, increasing the concern of scientists and authorities that the public was scientifically illiterate. To solve the problem, programmes were designed with the aim of transmitting scientific knowledge to the public. However, these approaches failed to improve the results of the polls. In the scientists' and authorities' view, the public remained scientifically illiterate and, therefore, was unable to participate in science policy decisions.

Between 1985 and 1990, a phase marked by the influential Bodmer (1985) report<sup>1</sup>, the apparent problem changed from being the public's lack of scientific knowledge to their attitude – not positive enough – towards science and technology. This is often referred to as the *Public Understanding of Science* (PUS) paradigm. The scientific community in particular was concerned about the lack

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<sup>1</sup>Report published by the Royal Society of London in 1985, officially called 'The Public Understanding of Science', but most known by the name of the coordinator of the group responsible for the document, Dr Bodmer.

of public support for science and was convinced that this was directly related to a general lack of knowledge. Thus, within the PUS paradigm, the assumption was that if people understood science better, they would start loving it! Consequently, a series of initiatives were planned and financed to educate people and at the same time increase their enthusiasm for science. From a research point of view, the focus shifted from exploring public knowledge to public attitudes, and sometimes the correlation between them.

Both the scientific literacy and PUS paradigm assume a public state of deficiency: citizens lack either enough or the right kind of knowledge, and thus fail to display sufficiently positive attitudes or 'reasonable' risk perceptions. (Bauer et al., 2007, p. 84)

The concept of science communication generated from this assumption and the strategies developed based on it became known as the 'deficit model', a continuing target of debate and criticism in the field (Gregory & Miller, 1998; Irwin, 2009; Lewenstein & Brossard, 2010; Miller, 2005; Wynne, 1991; Ziman, 1991).

A further and significant paradigm shift took place in the 1990s, when an inversion in the deficit idea took place. It was no longer the lack of public knowledge or support that was at stake, but society's lack of trust in science, and importantly, scientists were seen as at least partially responsible for this state of affairs. The public mistrust in science was then associated with scientists' lack of knowledge about the public, its interests and needs. For the first time, the focus of attention shifted from a public deficit to an expert deficit. The popular rejection of Genetically Modified Organisms (GMO) and the British mad cow disease affair are considered some of the main causes of what was then perceived as a crisis of confidence in science, and which urgently needed to be remedied.

Faced with the failure of previous predominantly top-down actions, first aimed at transmitting scientific facts and then trying to convince the public about the wonders of science, more horizontal strategies were conceived to improve relations between science and society. In this sense, the 'Science and Society' report, prepared and released by the House of Lords in 2000, despite pointing out the persistence of a crisis of confidence in science and a popular unrest related to GMOs, detected a cultural change in the position of British scientists in favour of outreach and science communication activities aimed at the general public, as well as a new willingness for dialogue (House of Lords, 2000). It was in this context that new kinds of participatory activities emerged, such as hearings, citizen juries, deliberative opinion polling and consensus conferences. Great hopes were placed in these new approaches, in the sense that they might reverse the perceived crisis and win back society's trust in science. 'Public deliberation and participation are the new "royal road" to rebuild public trust' (House of Lords, 2000, p. 85). In terms of research, a series of impact studies soon began to investigate the effectiveness of these initiatives, which ended up raising a whole new range of questions that are still under discussion.

This bumpy trajectory, full of misunderstandings and redirects, is often presented in the literature as one that went 'from deficit to dialogue', which we could