



**Public understanding of plant biology: Voices from the bottom of the garden**

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## Public understanding of plant biology: Voices from the bottom of the garden

### Introduction

In 1963 Bassey published the results of a modest study under the title of 'Science for Tomorrow's Citizens', a claim reminiscent of Hogben's (1938) classic book, *Science for the Citizen – A Self Educator Based on the Social Background of Science Discoveries*. In his study, Bassey addressed the question: What effect does learning science in school have on persons not engaged in science after they leave school? He surveyed undergraduate students in a London Faculty of Arts, a group who had studied some science at school, but not as their central interest or future intention. The 'test' questions he used were all concerned with knowledge that should or could have been taught in science in secondary schooling, e.g. (i) Are there atoms in air, water, clay and wood? (ii) Which of the following are properties of chlorine? (iii) Which of the following are basic aspects of the modern theory of evolution? He also asked respondents about the 'scientific method'. In broad terms he found that the residual memory of this knowledge was far from substantial, and that the experience these respondents had of school science was that it all seemed to be a long list of irrelevant facts.

This article describes ways in which a group of non-scientists learn what is essentially scientific information, within a part of their lives they consider non-scientific: gardening. The term 'vital relevance' is proposed as describing their informal drive for learning. Their motivation and achievements seem to belie some of the rhetorical claims that science educators make about the value of formal science education. In this sense, it is also, tangentially, a critique of formal schooling in science. On the whole, school science is a rather hidebound, constrained and inertial provision of a somewhat odd selection of titbits of (largely historical) science (DeWitt *et al.*, 2013; Hodson, 2014; Toplis, 2014; Zeyer & Dillon, 2014). The discussion presented here is squarely in the Bassey camp, updated by Feinstein (2011), in maintaining that there is little evidence that prevailing strategies of science education have an impact on the use and interpretation of science in daily life. While most science educators and science education researchers nonetheless believe that science education somehow is intrinsically useful for those who do not go on to scientific or technical careers, Feinstein contends that this sense of 'usefulness' has largely been reduced to a rhetorical claim.

As Bassey's respondents pointed out, a longstanding and sustained critique is that school science lacks relevance. The Relevance of Science Education (ROSE) Project (Schreiner & Sjøberg, 2004) and its mirror projects in other countries (e.g. Jenkins & Pell, 2006, in the UK) make the key claim that science in schools – particularly in physics and chemistry – remains unpopular among students not least because it is perceived as irrelevant both for young

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3 people and for the society in which they live. Moreover, this is a critique that has been  
4 unchanged over many decades (Stukey *et al.*, 2013). In most countries, and certainly in the UK,  
5 the pressures on school science are wholly unrealistic and its ability to respond beyond these  
6 specific and directed pressures is very limited. This is no more than a statement of affairs, and  
7 is entirely understandable given that school science is faced with an array of political agendas,  
8 inspection regimes, assessment stipulations, curricular impositions, health and safety  
9 regulations, student requirements, career education needs and so on (Toplis, 2014; Lloyd-  
10 Staples, 2014). Science teachers and curriculum leaders have their hands very full without  
11 invoking additional demands through articles such as this. The view taken here, then, is that  
12 dramatic *curricular* change in schools is highly unlikely in the next few decades, regardless of  
13 incoming or outgoing political or educational agendas, not least because of the conservatism  
14 induced by international competition through comparator testing systems such as the OECD's  
15 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, 2011) and Programme for  
16 International Student Assessment (PISA, 2012) surveys. From this perspective, school science  
17 should be left to do what it does well in meeting the competing demands made of it within  
18 formal educational structures.

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20 So, rather than expect schools to make radical curricular shifts, the intention here is to turn  
21 instead to the world of informal learning in order to furnish the extended provision needed for  
22 both individual and social relevance – to consider 'vital relevance'. The key argument is that, in  
23 general, people find relevance for themselves and what both formal and informal science  
24 teachers and communicators actually need to do is enable and facilitate access to  
25 developmentally appropriate resources, not least through advances in learning technologies.  
26 The discussion below takes four forms:

- 27 (i) An 'unpicking' of one aspect of science – plant biology – and an argument for its  
28 place within formal and informal science learning systems
- 29 (ii) A discussion of auto-didactic, interest-driven, inquiry-based learning in science as a  
30 proposed antidote to 'lack of relevance'
- 31 (iii) Interviews exploring the *vox populi*, where real citizens talk about their real  
32 science in real time
- 33 (iv) A consideration of what might constitute serendipitous and vital relevance, of  
34 outcomes and possible directions forward.

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#### Plant biology

Plant biology, as the name suggests, is the scientific study of plants: how plants function, their appearance, how they have evolved, their relation to each other, habitats and human use. It

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3 often includes an understanding of algae, fungi and bacteria, and can entail the lives of plants  
4 from tiny floating duckweeds to gigantic redwood trees. Plants are essential to the lives of  
5 humans, providing all food, either directly or indirectly, as well as being major constituents of  
6 the Earth's atmosphere, the global cycles of nutrients and water, as well as the lives of animals  
7 every day. In addition, plants are the source of many important medical remedies, some  
8 produce beautiful flowers for which people pay large sums of money, plants and plant  
9 materials are worn by people, some produce toxins that kill.

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11 The programme of study of the UK's National Curriculum (Department for Education (DfE),  
12 2013) for science at ages 11 – 14 (key stage 3) describe a sequence of knowledge and  
13 concepts, and makes the point that it is vitally important learners 'develop secure  
14 understanding of each key block of knowledge and concepts in order to progress to the next  
15 stage', and are 'equipped with the scientific knowledge required to understand the **uses and**  
16 **implications** of science, today and for the future' (their emphasis). Insecure, superficial  
17 understanding it is said, 'will not allow genuine progression: pupils may... build up serious  
18 misconceptions, and/or have significant difficulties in understanding higher-order content.'

19 The content of the curriculum includes knowledge of such issues as:

- 20 • Plants making carbohydrates in their leaves by photosynthesis and gaining mineral  
21 nutrients and water from the soil via their roots
- 22 • Reproduction in plants, including flower structure, wind and insect pollination,  
23 fertilisation, seed and fruit formation and dispersal, including quantitative investigation  
24 of some dispersal mechanisms.
- 25 • Reactants in, and products of, photosynthesis, and a word summary for photosynthesis
- 26 • Dependence of almost all life on Earth on the ability of photosynthetic organisms, such  
27 as plants and algae, to use sunlight in photosynthesis to build organic molecules that are  
28 an essential energy store and to maintain levels of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the  
29 atmosphere
- 30 • Adaptations of leaves for photosynthesis.

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Granted this is a selective portion of the overall content - it is intended here as illustrative  
rather than definitive. Of interest in this rubric is the sense of school science being built as an  
'antidote' to learners' misconceptions. That has been the subject of an enormous body of work  
over time (for example, Authors, 1983; Driver, Guesne & Tiberghien, 1985; Mikulak, 2011). A  
first question might be, exactly what misconceptions would a school curriculum remedy that  
might otherwise have surfaced (detrimentally) in later life? Allen's (2014) excellent text gives a

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3 wide range of research-noted misconceptions as these relate to both primary-age learners and  
4 their (adult) teachers. For example, since earthworms are invertebrate, so then (apparently)  
5 are snakes. Food like apples goes bad 'all by itself', rather than being acted upon by bacteria  
6 and fungi. An oak is different from an ash tree, and this is an example of variation between  
7 organisms - rather than the understanding that variation refers to differences between  
8 individuals of the same species. Plants get their food from the soil: teaching materials in  
9 biology often contain much information on photosynthesis, yet there is actually minimal  
10 discussion of mineral nutrient uptake by plants: most essential mineral nutrients play a role in  
11 photosynthesis. It is also a common misconception that plants photosynthesise during the day  
12 and only conduct cellular respiration at night. Some teaching literature even states this  
13 explicitly. Rather, cellular respiration occurs continuously in plants, not just at night. As Baron  
14 (2003) points out, any lack of understanding of basic principles of science is not due to a  
15 quantitative scarcity of information. It is probably due to a failure to provide, from schooldays  
16 to adulthood, simple clear outlines of scientific principles that will enable all citizens, let alone  
17 politicians and journalists, to understand their world, their immediate environment and how  
18 decisions can be made and tested rationally. The discussion towards the end of this paper  
19 returns to the substance of 'simple clear outlines' and 'vital relevance'. First, though, an  
20 outline of inquiry-based learning, auto-didactic interest-driven self-education in science.  
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### 33 **Inquiry-based and auto-didactic learning**

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35 The Higher Education Academy (2007) uses Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL) as an umbrella term  
36 to cover forms of learning driven by a process of inquiry, including the more widely known  
37 approach of Problem-Based Learning (PBL). Chomsky (1995) argued that the processes of  
38 inquiry, the forming of – and acting on - questions, is part of the blueprint for human language  
39 and is hard-wired into the brain. Dennett (1991) in turn, coined the term 'informavore': a view  
40 of humans like mythical sharks in continuous motion working incessantly to sate their  
41 'epistemic hunger'. Overall, inquiry involves developing and implementing a plan to satisfy  
42 curiosity, collect data, evaluate evidence, draw conclusions, reflect on strengths and  
43 weaknesses of the plan, and engage in a new sequence (Aulls & Shore, 2008). It entails  
44 learning based largely on learners' interest and curiosity with the intent that they engage with  
45 a complex problem or scenario in which they are able to direct both the lines of enquiry and  
46 choice of methods employed. During the course of this they become increasingly 'inquiry  
47 literate' and enter into personal and collective knowledge creation (Barell, 2003; Bereiter,  
48 2002; Deignan, 2009). Price (2003) outlines five stages which shape formal (institutional) IBL  
49 processes: (i) creating an inquiry focus; (ii) shaping the inquiry; (iii) gathering and evaluating  
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3 information; (iv) refining understanding; (v) reaching closure. Shore, Birlean, Walker, Ritchie,  
4 LaBanca and Aulls (2009) proposed a list of 40 such elements.

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6 The position adopted in this paper, akin to Dabrowska and Lieven (2005) and Aulds and Shore  
7 (2008), is that inquiry-based learning, question-asking and explanation-seeking (hard-wired or  
8 otherwise) are constructive acts of meaning-making (Authors, 2014). In contrast to Price  
9 (2003) and (Armstrong, 2012), engaging in self-directed learning in general life - away from  
10 formal institutions - is seldom an organised or structured affair. In such broad contexts,  
11 *informal* inquiry-based learning, being auto-didactic, can be seen to include goal-driven  
12 inquiry, the generation of problems, use of discussion and dialogue to learn, and feeling  
13 relatively comfortable with problems being ill defined. Marsick and Volpe (1999, p5)  
14 characterise this kind of learning as:

- 15 • Seldom highly conscious
- 16 • Triggered by an internal or external jolt
- 17 • Integrated with daily routines
- 18 • Haphazard and influenced by chance
- 19 • An inductive process of reflection and action
- 20 • Linked to the learning of others.

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32 It is possible, of course, to engage in non-formal out of school projects and, along these lines,  
33 Silvertown (2009) gives a list of more than twenty 'citizen science' projects, from  
34 polymorphism in the peppered moth to sampling strategies in research on birds by the British  
35 Ornithological Society. OPAL (OPen Air Laboratories) is a large programme of environmental  
36 citizen-science activities led by Imperial College London. The overall aim of such projects is to  
37 increase public engagement with, and understanding of, science and the environment. For  
38 example, community scientists work with local people to develop projects on local  
39 environmental issues of importance to them. Together they record local wildlife and the  
40 quality of air, soil and water; they analyse and interpret data to understand how local  
41 conditions can affect species diversity, distribution and population size. Project Budburst  
42 (Havens & Henderson, 2010) in the USA uses a crowd-sourcing approach through which tens of  
43 thousands of amateur naturalists contribute observations on hundreds of plant species to  
44 amass a very large data set. One focus of this is on the lifecycle, leafing, flowering and fruiting  
45 and the project takes its name from the first opening of leaf buds in spring. Since such events  
46 are sensitive to environmental conditions, they provide a simple and cost effective way to  
47 monitor climate change over the long term.

48 The comments discussed below do not come from organised projects, but from people's  
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3 everyday lives, their daily routines. There are two broad aspects to these conversations: (i)  
4 some illustration and illumination of Marsick and Volpe's (1999) six characteristics, and (ii)  
5 some ways in which they have been tackled and contextualised. Pointers for future action  
6 within informal inquiry-based learning will be drawn from these latter aspects.  
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### 10 11 **Serendipitous learning and vital relevance**

12 According to Bowles (2004), serendipitous learning recognises that the human search for  
13 knowledge often occurs by chance, or as a by-product of a main task. For example, a search for  
14 information may launch the user on a tangent that ends up being more productive than the  
15 original search query. In such instances, Bowles argues, serendipitous learning has taken place.  
16 The term 'chance' here is unfortunate, except in the sense of Pasteur's famous maxim that  
17 'chance favours only the prepared mind'. More reasonably, Zhang, Liu and Si (2011) describe  
18 serendipitous learning as a kind of 'never ending rolling knowledge collection', where the  
19 learner draws in new knowledge from a variety of sources and fairly constantly updates his or  
20 her thinking with this new content. However, since the array of knowledge available is vast  
21 and multifaceted, is an 'open domain' and comes in many different formats, and because 'one  
22 doesn't know what one doesn't know', then the direction and accumulation of knowledge  
23 cannot easily be determined in advance. In these terms, serendipitous learning is neither  
24 chance nor random, simply unplanned and open-ended in a complex learning environment. It  
25 is sometimes called 'learning through browsing' and browsing has a long and honourable  
26 tradition (Xia, 2010). So, serendipitous learning about plant biology and gardening is not  
27 merely waiting for a fortuitous event to happen. Serendipity requires action on the part of the  
28 recipient - action to create favourable circumstances, action to recognise opportunities when  
29 they arise, and action to capitalise on unplanned learning events in a timely manner.  
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42 While in 500BC Heraclites highlighted that 'the unexpected connection is more powerful than  
43 one that is obvious' (Hudson, 2007), 'powerful' here is interpreted as of high personal (vital)  
44 relevance. The manner of informal learning is commonly 'navigation through interest' (Griton,  
45 2011), and such self-determined intentional learning implies that the learner acts consciously  
46 and with intent: it is the person who makes or causes things to happen in his or her life. In this  
47 respect, 'to find' is an intentional act and the people discussed in this research fit well within a  
48 description of personally-driven lively interest, engaged learning that draws from multiple  
49 sources. Fischer and Naumer (2006, p. 2) argue that 'people will first and foremost find  
50 information from people with whom they have a strong relationship, which are usually found  
51 in their circle of family, close friends and their local communities in places such as doctors'  
52 surgeries and libraries'. This kind of informal learning, though, is far from a 'situated  
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community of inquiry' (Lave and Wenger, 1991), because it lacks any organisational situation, tight-knit or even recognisable 'bounded' community. The people discussed in this research may share concerns, common problems or passions about a topic, but they tend to deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area in an ongoing individualistic, episodic basis.

### Listening to self-educated voices

The participants in this small study are as follows:

Table 1: a list of interview respondents

Comments to be made about this small sample are that, (i) they form an 'opportunity sample' of colleagues, friends and neighbours. All are known to the interviewer, some but not all are known to each other; (ii) there is (by design) an equal number of males and females; (iii) they are largely, but not exclusively, middle-aged, middle-class home-owners, engaged in home improvement with the time and financial means to accomplish this; (iv) they are all broadly educated, though only Cindy (latterly) has developed specialist, formal, knowledge of plants; the others are all active and self-taught gardeners; (v) they are confident and articulate, leaning towards supporting and helping others wherever possible.

Individual informal interviews, around forty minutes each, were conducted over a period of one month in a 'natural' mode, attempting to emulate ordinary conversation without the structural and quality demands placed upon more mediated forms of communication. Questions prompted all participants to reflect on gardening, plants, school science, out-of-school science and their own approaches to science and to learning. The conversations all took place within their own homes, were audio-recorded, the discussions of botanical issues were driven by five specific questions:

- (1) To what extent are you interested in science?
- (2) How do you know what to do in the garden/ allotment?
- (3) From where do you derive your knowledge and understanding of plants?
- (4) How much help has school science been in arriving at your current knowledge base?
- (5) What would make your learning easier?

There are two basic approaches to assessing learning, direct and indirect. The direct is based on observable outcomes, a demonstration by learners of their knowledge or skills. Indirect assessment asks for learners' opinions, of the meaning and utility of the learning having



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3 occurred (Price & Randall, 2008). In this instance, no attempt was made to assess knowledge  
4 directly, no grades were given for 'good garden knowledge' or prizes awarded for healthiest  
5 plants or 'best blooms'. Participants were afforded anonymity, assigned a pseudonym and the  
6 data analysed qualitatively, using an individualised form of Krueger and Casey's (2009) long-  
7 table method to derive answers and opinions related to these five research questions. People  
8 shape and reshape their thinking about issues throughout the conversations (Bates, 2005) so  
9 that, for example, there might be relatively short answers at the start but they commonly  
10 'warmed to a theme' during the conversations.  
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### 12 (1) Interest in science

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19 None of the participants at the start indicated they were very or even 'somewhat' interested in  
20 science in itself. They had no professional or pastime affiliation with science, had not  
21 previously seen their 'plant-' or 'garden-based' activities as much to do with science, classing  
22 these simply as 'gardening'. Overwhelmingly, opinions followed traditional fault-lines between  
23 science and the rest of the world: cold, factual, pedantic science in contrast to the colourful,  
24 creative, emotional and tender care of the plants in the garden. Fran's magnolia tree, Karen's  
25 Canadian-red *Acer rubrum* (a delight in autumn), Brian's sycamore and the horse-chestnut  
26 *Aesculus hippocastanum* hanging over Robert's allotment (both a 'dratted nuisance' in  
27 autumn), had distinct and familiar personalities in the interview responses. Certain plants had  
28 'needs' and 'likes' ('hydrangeas need water and like acid soil' (Wendy) rather than *Hydrangea*  
29 *macrophylla* being sensitive to soil pH): the garden was a labour of love not an intellectual  
30 scientific exercise. These are examples of the common process of anthropomorphism  
31 (Authors, 1996) in everyday life.  
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39 By the end of the conversations, however, they all felt that it had drawn their attention to  
40 science and the nature of scientific knowledge, and were prepared to admit that plant biology  
41 probably fitted somewhere within there. As David said:  
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45 I have a background in design and technology so I kind of, I appreciate something of  
46 science though I don't really lay claim to knowing any of it [... And] science crosses over  
47 so many aspects of life that you just don't really realise. I suppose if there's such a thing  
48 as agricultural science, then my gardening could be a mini amateur version.  
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55 In most interview conversations this led to a discussion of 'passion'. Initially, science and  
56 passion were seen as inimitable, antithetical. Gardening was 'a fascination', a 'keen interest', a  
57 'joy'. Ruth's zeal was for a section of her garden to be 'wild and natural':  
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Ruth: Wildflower meadow planting is enjoying a huge vogue at the moment; they look beautiful and attract wildlife, particularly threatened pollinators. And, you know, real wildflower meadows are vanishing – and native flowers such as green-winged orchid,

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3 oxlip, dyer's greenweed and meadow saffron are all going with them.  
4

5 For Alison, it was a 'release of emotion', a route to calming and well-being, a communing with  
6 nature,  
7

8 Alison: I lose myself in the garden. Don't be daft, I don't mean literally lose myself, it's  
9 not that big. But it's my escapism. Fierce worries in my head, I put on the gardening  
10 gloves and grab a trowel, knock seven bells out of the borders, cut back the perennials,  
11 dead-head the roses until I'm calm again.  
12

13  
14 School science had been anything but passionate. There was some grudging acknowledgement  
15 that odd teachers, TV presenters may be enthusiastic about science, but that was written off  
16 as eccentricity or 'paid to be like that'. In most cases the accumulation of gardening knowledge  
17 was incidental although 'once I got going, it became a fixation' (Robert). He had been moved  
18 to build and use a new composting system for his allotment. This took considerable detailed  
19 research; he had 'compiled a dossier on it' and had acquired a consistent and well-developed  
20 knowledge of the biology involved:  
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23  
24 Rob: When I dig, turn, layer and water my compost, I feel as if I am doing the  
25 composting, but I now know the bulk of the work is actually done by organisms, fungi  
26 and bacteria. The composting speeds up the natural process of decomposition, provides  
27 good conditions for the organic matter to break down more quickly. And its good to  
28 have the larger decomposers too, things like mites, centipedes, bugs, snails, millipedes,  
29 spiders, slugs, beetles, ants, flies, flatworms and earthworms. They all chew and grind  
30 the materials into smaller pieces.  
31  
32

33  
34 Then he grinned and said:  
35

36 Did you know, it is only very recently I found out an earthworm doesn't become two  
37 worms when you cut one in half. One half might live and grow again but the other bit  
38 doesn't. You don't get two worms for the price of one.  
39

40  
41 Two other general points can be made about the responses overall. First, these twelve  
42 participants all held considerable bodies of scientific knowledge related to plants and plant  
43 biology. All could refer to plants by their species names, understood optimal growing  
44 conditions, appreciated the differences - for example - between annuals, bi-annuals and  
45 perennials, had a good sense of rootstock grafting and cloning, an understanding of wind-  
46 bourne and insect pollination, of photosynthesis. Dave even quoted the 'formula', learned by  
47 rote some long years past: 'Carbon dioxide plus water plus light equals glucose plus oxygen'.  
48  
49 Second, as noted earlier, the interviews could probe this knowledge but, necessarily, could not  
50 'test' this in any formal sense, as Bassey did in 1963. The key ingredient in all of the responses,  
51 though, was that knowledge (Richard: 'All that I have learned about gardening') is affect-  
52 driven, motivated and sustained by interest and curiosity at the very least, and veered towards  
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3 zeal, zest and obsession at several points.  
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6 *(2) How do you know what to do?*  
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8 This question was largely interpreted in two ways: (i) as concerning elements of landscaping  
9 and design, and (ii) actually 'what works in the garden'. Most landscaping ideas were derived  
10 from gardening books, magazines, television programmes, 'watching what the neighbours did'  
11 (Fran), hiring – or being – a landscape gardener (Cindy), visits to ornamental gardens in  
12 southern England such as Sisley, Ripley and Kew, and attendance at London's Chelsea Flower  
13 Show (Hamish).  
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17 Peter:  
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19 When I was growing up, the garden was a place to slip out at night to drink beer and  
20 smoke. The lawn was mown, the patio kept neat and tidy, but nothing horticultural ever  
21 took place, my parents just weren't interested. Then came the ownership of my first  
22 house at the age of about 30. Ponds were built, flower beds created and the lawn cared  
23 for. A Readers Digest book was bought from a second-hand bookshop and the  
24 information therein consumed with a passion. I tended to my garden and it really looked  
25 good.  
26

27  
28 Richard:  
29

30 At 13 my pals and I started growing cannabis. It was absolutely essential no one found  
31 out, so a grow-bag was placed on top of the vicarage and the cannabis seeds sown with  
32 loving care. It was guarded and nurtured by the other members of the church choir.  
33 Books and magazines on the subject of irrigation were read eagerly and the secret  
34 maintained. We couldn't consult an adult because this was considered too dangerous.  
35 The crop was disguised between tomato plants but not very well.  
36

37  
38 'What works' came from a variety of sources, principally experience. Trial-and-error and  
39 experimentation featured consistently, particularly in terms of watering and feeding, and all of  
40 the respondents had gardening books of one sort or another on their shelves, to know 'when  
41 to prune the roses', 'how to treat the lawn' or to 'identify bugs and infestation.' Alison said:  
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43

44 Allison: Gardening has always featured in my life. I was given a small part of the garden  
45 as a child, which I called my own. I planted snap-dragons, pansies, lupines, fox gloves  
46 and such like. A bit random, really, mostly what was at the end of a seed packet. When  
47 my mother worked in the garden, I worked my plot. I did a lot of weeding and that was  
48 an exercise in differentiating 'good' flowers from 'bad' weeds. "Is this a weed?" was a  
49 constant question with the answer, more often than not, "Yes, darling, you can pull that  
50 one." This always took place in the summer and was totally forgotten about at other  
51 times. Sweetpeas featured, I remember, for their smell. The source of all information  
52 was my parents.  
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56 'You learn from doing' (Brian), though that was also conceded to be an expensive way to learn  
57 given the cost of nursery-grown plants, and 'you learn from others when they give you  
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3 seedlings or off-cuts'. Brian regularly consulted his father, a keen gardener and considered an  
4 expert on such things.  
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8 (3) *From where do you get your knowledge and understanding of plants?*

9 This generated a profusion of responses, with two main directions: general versus specific  
10 knowledge. Responses concerning general knowledge and 'background' were directed towards  
11 books, magazines, the back of seed packets, neighbours, the radio (BBC's *Gardener's Question*  
12 *Time* being a favourite), TV gardening programmes, other allotment users, the staff at garden  
13 centres, Brian's father (again). In terms of specific knowledge, the overwhelming answer was  
14 from the Internet.  
15

16  
17 David: If you have the time and energy you look everything up. What's the fastest  
18 growing hedgerows? Because the fencing got blown down and I don't want to replace it.  
19 What's the best way to encourage butterflies? – grow *Buddleia* by the way – so that the  
20 garden looks good. How to de-moss the lawn? What feed to give what plants? What's  
21 the best way to get rid of slugs and snails? - coffee grains apparently, saves my lettuces.  
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24  
25 Otherwise these respondents were resourceful and resilient in other ways in their pursuit of  
26 knowledge,  
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30 Ruth: I mostly go online, you can get most things there. Sometimes I sit in the local  
31 library because they have those oversize coffee-table books. I smuggle in bits of leaf and  
32 flowers in my handbag – I'm sure they'd object if they knew - so I can identify what they  
33 are, match them against the pictures.  
34

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36 Cindy: It depends if you mean tricks-of-the-trade or real knowledge. Even though I've  
37 worked in the business quite a while, I realised that I was relying on kind of pass-me-  
38 downs, you know, hearsay and old-wives tales, bits and pieces of knowledge and know-  
39 how. That's why I enrolled in this course I'm doing at Kew Gardens. And wow! Now, the  
40 people there really do know their science! They're great.  
41

42  
43 Peter: The weekend newspapers are good, there's usually a section on what you should  
44 be doing in the garden at particular times of year. I have thought about joining a  
45 gardening club but, to be honest, I wouldn't make the time. The local nursery is good, I  
46 phone them, they're probably sick of me, but they do have a help-line and the girl on  
47 the other end does sound like she knows what she's doing.  
48

49 A general point to be made here concerns the discussion of informal knowledge by Marsick  
50 and Volpe (1999) above. The scientific knowledge displayed by these interviewees is largely  
51 tacit and seldom highly explicated, commonly integrated with their daily routines, patently  
52 serendipitous and shaped by chance, an inductive process of action and reflection, and often  
53 linked to the learning of others. As Fensham and Harlen (1999) suggest, their knowledge is  
54 highly relevant to everyday situations – memorable and enduring simply because of that.  
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*(4) How much help has school science been in arriving at your current knowledge base?*

Following the last point above, this question was greeted by a degree of head shaking, wry smiles, laughter and mild embarrassment. None of the participants wanted to lay claim to any consistent school-based knowledge, and all but a few had disparaging anecdotes about their school science. Karen said:

If I go back to year two in junior school, I remember we were asked to go out and collect different kinds of leaves and bring them back to class. I asked "why?" and was told that she would explain once we collected the leaves. "Why can't you tell me now?" and I was told, "Just go and get leaves". I said, "Well which leaves should I get if you won't tell me what we are going to do with them?" "Just get anything then". So I didn't because I didn't see the point.

Fran mentioned:

It's hard, the link between what is taught and what we know is really difficult to identify. One year the kids and I planted a Christmas tree. It would gradually drop leaves and I remembered – from school quite possibly – that they make the soil below the tree acid. So we then went out and found and planted some acid-loving plants below.

David returned to the notion of background versus specific knowledge:

I guess there must be some background in there, stuff you know but you don't know you know. It's like anything at school, history, geography, French, it's in there somewhere and you don't realise you call on it because you've never had reason to isolate where exactly it came from. You dredge things up in a pub quiz you never knew you knew. But nowadays, when I go to find out about something, I remember where I got it. You know, where I read it, who told me, where I saw it. School science was pretty useless, but who knows what drips and dregs are still in there?

Hamish was prepared to concede some learning:

In secondary school - I failed my 11-plus with distinction - we were shown how to extract alcohol from yeast. I remember the teacher explained each phase and the principles of extraction and the exact temperatures. Like the good lads that we were, we could then make our own alcohol. And later, I used the same principles, bottles of wine were carefully frozen and the alcohol was taken before it froze itself. Learning had certainly taken place, just not as originally intended.

*(5) What would make your learning easier?*

This question gave rise to long pauses for thought. Each of the twelve respondents already drew on a variety of sources for support and practical advice, had a good grasp of information systems and access to guidance. In general they were active in increasing their 'background knowledge' as well as resilient in pursuing particular inquiries to solve specific problems.

Wendy said:

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3 Wendy: I'm plagued by Japanese knotweed. I go on the Royal Horticultural Society  
4 website and the Environmental Agency site to see how to get rid of it, but it seems to be  
5 a mammoth job over three or four years, with loads of herbicides. I understand most of  
6 the things they say – I had to look up what a rhizome is. I have an app for my iPad for  
7 good gardening but I don't really use it. I prefer to learn by chasing things up.  
8

9  
10 They all agreed there was an abundance of information, that they had easy access and enough  
11 'nous' (Richard) to navigate the available systems to get what they wanted. Ruth describes her  
12 drive and motivation as 'oomph',  
13

14 Ruth: there's nothing I can't really find if I want it, if I have the oomph to go get it. I  
15 suppose I really like someone to show me things, you know, physically be there to guide  
16 and for me to copy, like when I was trying to do some grafts recently. Following  
17 instructions on screen [on the laptop] is not easy in the garden shed!  
18  
19

20 The last words here lie with David:  
21

22 I think if I was researching something else in science, I'd be more worried about what I  
23 don't know. But the garden is hardly life or death. Well, to the plants maybe, but not to  
24 me. If I get the watering wrong, the feed, the soil, the light etcetera, then I'll lose some  
25 plants. But the beauty is that there is always next year, I get to have another go. It's real  
26 fun when it all comes right but it's not a disaster if it goes wrong. Hard on the wallet,  
27 maybe, but nothing else.  
28

29 Then he added,  
30

31 Mind, I suppose you *can* get it wrong if you introduce, what are they called? Invasive  
32 species. I think rhododendron is one, and they go out of control. Putting the wrong fish  
33 in the pond that eat all the others. Yup, I think you have to know your science properly  
34 for that bit.  
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### 38 Discussion

39 The public (non) understanding of science is an easy target. Bauer, Allum and Miller (2007)  
40 chide against a simple deficit model and make the clear point that if there were not a  
41 substantial gap between the knowledge of scientists and that of the general public, then  
42 science would be in a serious way indeed. They also note that the public is not homogeneous,  
43 that there are many who have specific high-level knowledge and understanding in certain  
44 fields without being more generally and broadly scientifically literate. Nor do they see the  
45 school educational system to be the remedy for any knowledge 'ills'. While many have been  
46 vexed by what exactly counts as science, or studying something scientifically, as debated by  
47 Ziman (1991), Wynne (1996) and numerous others, Rahm (2010) and Rahm and Grimes (2005)  
48 most certainly see gardening as a science-based activity. Azevedo's (2013) work on science  
49 hobbies sheds light on how such long-term, interest-based leisure activities operate to foster  
50 and sustain the highly personalised knowledge and understanding.  
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3 It is worth re-stressing that this small-scale research is representative only of a very specific  
4 social grouping. The high level of interest in gardening exhibited by these respondents  
5 demonstrates that, at a basic level, their 'everyday hobby' is actually an effective science  
6 engagement tool. It is well known that the process of interviewing itself can act as an 'active  
7 intervention' in people's thinking (Authors, 1987) and it is clear that the informal interviews  
8 documented here increased the salience of plant biology for these respondents, many of  
9 whom felt, upon seeing the connection with science, that they could – and should - form an  
10 more educated opinion.

11  
12 As noted earlier, there was no sense in which the interviews were a test of knowledge,  
13 although respondents' understanding of botanical issues was raised on several occasions.  
14 Peter searched his memory at one point in an attempt to recall what was, and was not, a  
15 monocotyledon; Hamish recalled that the botanical sense of a 'fruit' includes many structures  
16 that are not commonly called 'fruits', such as bean pods and tomatoes. Similarly, Ruth became  
17 embroiled in a long discussion on the nature of 'seedless' grapes, failing to understand how  
18 they became seedless in the first place and how they could possibly propagate to provide  
19 further (seedless) crops if they were, in fact, seedless. Her knowledge within biology, as for all  
20 the respondents, had 'not come together' for her. One consequence was that she immediately  
21 resolved to explore what was meant by *parthenocarpy*, understand what it was and how it  
22 worked. As Baron (2003) points out, there exists ample information to assist people in learning  
23 about, in this case, plants: any lack of understanding can be the result of guiding orchestration  
24 (Authors, 2005).

25  
26 Informal learning is difficult to link directly to outcomes but some can be identified and  
27 assessed, for example, by the way that beliefs affect choices and their consequences for action  
28 taken. Individuals bring themselves to their learning tasks, and so, their strategies and  
29 approaches are mediated by their ideals, values, histories, and prior socialisation. Context  
30 greatly shapes learning practices and choices, including triggers for learning, and these vary by  
31 the interests and preferences of the learners themselves (Poell, Chivers, Van der Krogt &  
32 Wildemeersch, 2000). The responses here support the idea that an individual's intentionality,  
33 pro-activity, learning intensity and critical reflectivity affect the nature of their learning. In  
34 their study of adult 'learning lives', Facer and Manchester (2012, p4) observed that individuals  
35 draw on five key types of learning resources: *cultural* (e.g. cultural repositories of knowledge  
36 and information such as museums, books, libraries); *people* (e.g. friends, families, educators,  
37 counsellors); *commercial* (e.g. advertising, sales advice); *embodied* (working things out through  
38 bodily movement); *reflective* (e.g. reviewing, auditing and reflecting upon experiences). These  
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resources are clearly evidenced here in this short study, with individuals following particular trails through the science information they gathered - as and when they needed it.

Important work by Layton, Jenkins, Macgill and Davey (1993) at the University of Leeds provided fascinating case studies of adults in situations where they needed to know some science in order to 'survive'. Compared with the passivity of the science knowledge in Bassey's survey here was, in the words of those researchers, 'practical knowledge-in-action'. Science for their adult respondents was not a 'conceptual cathedral' to be remembered, but a 'quarry to be raided' for information to be put to use. Much as Layton *et al.* report, the participants discussed here were rarely inclined to frame their gardening challenges in terms of science. 'Everyday' activities like gardening are seldom included in science unless directed, and the knowledge these respondents gained shows many of the characteristics suggested by Marsick and Volpe (1999) discussed earlier and, being somewhat haphazard, lacking structure and 'orchestration' (Authors, 2005b). While some of these respondents saw the social obligation of 'keeping up appearances', more often than not they sought the pride and emotional comfort to be derived from well-kept and thriving garden plants.

### **Vital relevance**

Beyond the basic level of awareness-raising, the responses reported here strongly suggest a marked qualitative difference in the kind of 'engagement' with the topic. Each of these respondents, in his or her own way, exhibited what might be called 'vital relevance'. Stuckey *et al.* (2013) make the point that there are many meanings for the term relevance, and these vary according to the stakeholders, in this instance, within science-learning enterprises. High levels of relevance for some barely register for others: relevance for distant examinations or future employers may feature far less for the thirteen year-old faced with a worksheet on osmosis. There are several dimensions to the relevance exhibited by the respondents here, in that it:

- (i) Is very personal, concerning individuals' private 'learning life', relationships, and passions
- (ii) Can generate long immersive periods of animated 'learning intensity' (Rivero, 2010)
- (iii) Means knowledge and learning is specific and 'grounded' (sometimes literally) in immediate activities – in this case in the garden
- (iv) Has a strong affective dimension: feelings and emotions, pleasure, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are important drivers
- (v) Is really quite specific: the interest and drive can be directed at one very particular distinct and definite topic.

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In their work mentioned above, Facer and Manchester (2012) observed four broad prompts or motives for learning, these were: *personal events* (personal experiences and transitions that required emotional adjustment and personal development); *practicalities* (the development of skills and knowledge in pursuit of action in the world); *participation* (learning in pursuit of social engagement) and *pleasures* (learning prompted by curiosity and interest for its own sake). It is certainly possible to see three of these four prompts at play here, the least observable being gardening for social participation. While this may well have been the case, for example, for allotment holders, partners and neighbours, it did not surface distinctively in these interviews.

Gardening is an affective pastime: it engages emotions at a variety of levels – from satisfaction of a job done to the aesthetics of the garden, from colour and variety to touch and smell. Once the ‘motivational fuse’ was lit, these respondents became forcefully active learners, pursued personal lines of inquiry, undertook typical inquiry-based learning; became auto-didactic. The immediacy of the gardening experience produced strong emotional reactions in many of these respondents, which contributed clearly to the issue under discussion (cf. Authors, 2000). These respondents were surprised at themselves in being able to put science in a social and emotional context. It made the issues seem worthy of serious consideration.

There is clearly a gap between what happens in the majority of school science classrooms, and the ways people can be immersed in the various issues in their personal and social spaces. ‘Vital relevance in everyday science’ as discussed here clearly arises in unpredictable ways. While it does not provide complete answers, it contributes a significant element to a more complicated process of meaning-making. Having the drive (or ‘oomph’) to be self-educative, auto-didactic, engage in self-directed inquiry learning, allows learners significant input into the selection of topic or focus of the activity, engages them more deeply with the learning task, generates a greater intensity of learning.

Formal schooling lasts a short time relative to a normal lifespan. Beyond schooling, we must look to release the power of self-directed, interest-driven, inquiry-based, immersive and transformational problem solving that is characteristic of auto-didactic learners. Advances in learning technologies through information gateways, rich audio-visual communication, sophisticated resources, social networking and knowledge communities all allow for a wealth of provision for the motivated. Learners like the ones discussed here are likely to experience greater learning benefit from access to developmentally appropriate resources, increased time to explore topics and multiple opportunities to undertake information searches throughout the learning activity (Armstrong, 2012).

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Alison	Retired art teacher, recently moved to a new house, reshaping garden abandoned by previous owners
Brian	Mid-thirties father-of-two, newly 'up-sized' to a larger family house, busy re-shaping the garden for two young children
Cindy	Mid-forties owner of a florist business, now undertaking a course in landscape gardening
David	Retired secondary head teacher, having built a substantial house extension is now creating a garden from the ensuing building site
Fran	Re-furbisher of furniture and clothing, avid traveller to Australia and the far east, keen DIY gardener
Karen	Owner of a small suburban garden, interested only in so far as the garden remains neat and tidy
Hamish	Aged fifty, manager of a car salesroom, knowledgeable about plants and floral arrangements
Peter	Retired educational administrator, recently constructed a new patio area round the house
Richard	Retired policemen, dog owner, keen to make the most of the garden for his pets
Robert	An allotment owner, keen gardener (and cook) of vegetables principally for the kitchen and the table
Ruth	Keen interior designer, floral arranger, enjoys decorative gardening, herbaceous borders
Wendy	Currently re-furbishing the family home and restoring a house in France, soon to begin work on the garden

Table 1: A list of interview respondents