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1 **Title:** Evaluating Children's Conservation Biology Learning at the Zoo

2 **Abstract:**

3 Millions of children visit zoos every year with parents or schools to encounter wildlife
4 firsthand. Public conservation education is a basic requirement for membership in
5 professional zoo associations. However, in recent years there has been increasing
6 criticism of zoos from animal rights groups for failing to demonstrate their averred
7 value for public understanding of conservation and related biological concepts such as
8 animal adaptation to habitats. Indeed, no full-scale study to date has rigorously
9 assessed conservation biology-related learning for the key zoo audience of children.

10 The present study represents the largest ($n=2839$) investigation of the educational
11 value of zoo visits for children aged 7-15 reported worldwide. This research evaluates
12 the relative learning outcomes of educator-guided and unguided zoo visits at London
13 Zoo, both in terms of learning about conservation biology (measured by annotated
14 drawings) and changing attitudes towards wildlife conservation. Results show 41% on
15 educator-guided visits and 34% of children on unguided visits evinced conservation
16 biology-related learning. Negative changes in children's understanding of animals and
17 their habitats were more prevalent in unguided zoo visits. Overall, this study offers
18 evidence of the *potential* educational value of visiting zoos for children. However, it
19 also suggests that zoos' standard unguided educational provision is insufficient for
20 achieving the best outcomes for visiting children. The study supports a theoretical
21 model of conservation biology learning that frames conservation educators as
22 toolmakers developing conceptual resources to enhance children's scientific
23 understanding.

24

25 **Keywords:**

26 Conservation Education; Public Understanding of Conservation Biology; Informal

27 Science Learning; Zoo Education; Science Education

28

29

30 **Evaluating Children's Conservation Biology Learning at the Zoo**

31 Conservation biology is a scientific field deeply intertwined with social, cultural and
32 political factors. The fact that many of the most fundamental and intractable problems
33 conservation biologists face have human interests, motivations, assumptions and
34 behaviour as the central feature (Balmford & Cowling 2006) indicates the importance
35 of developing and refining conservation education practice. While conservation
36 education has urgent problems to address amongst adult populations, improving the
37 long-term outlook for species conservation requires effective engagement with
38 children. Millions of children visit zoos every year with their schools, where many
39 will encounter educational messages relating to conservation biology alongside live
40 animals. As such, zoos represent a major opportunity for engaging children with live
41 animals, biological science and conservation. Indeed “keeping animals and presenting
42 them for the education of the public”ⁱ is one of the fundamental activities of the
43 contemporary zoo, required for membership in professional zoo associations such as
44 the European Association of Zoos and Aquariums (also see Moss & Esson, 2012).
45 Moreover, the recent emphasis on public engagement with science by government and
46 scientific institutions (e.g. Holliman, Collins, Jensen, & Taylor 2009; Holliman &
47 Jensen 2009; House of Lords Select Committee on Science and Technology 2000;
48 Jensen & Wagoner 2009) offers zoos the opportunity to position themselves as a key
49 venue for public engagement with both the sciences and wildlife conservation.

50 However, in recent years there has been increasing criticism of zoos for failing
51 to demonstrate their purported educational and conservation impacts. In particular,
52 animal rights groups such as the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to

53 Animals (RSPCA) have leveled criticisms against zoos' educational claims on
54 evidentiary grounds.

55 Given that keeping animals in captivity can bring with it a cost to their
56 welfare [...], it is not enough for zoos to *aim* to have an educational
57 impact, they should *demonstrate* substantial impact. From our review
58 of the literature, this does not yet appear to be the case" (emphasis
59 added; RSPCA 2007, p. 97)ⁱⁱ.

60 Indeed, the RSPCA conducted a literature review evaluating the level of peer-
61 reviewed evidence supporting zoos' educational claims. They concluded that the
62 current peer-reviewed literature on the educational value of zoos is very thin:

63 It seems that zoos are only just beginning to seriously evaluate [...] the
64 impact their educational programs have on visitors and whether they
65 are fulfilling their objectives. In this respect they are lagging well
66 behind institutions such as museums and science centres. (RSPCA
67 2007, p. 97)ⁱⁱⁱ.

68 Reacting to such assessments, Maggie Esson (2009)^{iv}, Education Programmes
69 Manager at Chester Zoo, describes the situation as follows:

70 Zoos are increasingly finding themselves lodged between a rock and a
71 hard place when it comes to substantiating claims to be education
72 providers, and the zoo community is coming under increased pressure
73 to evidence that learning has taken place as a result of a zoo visit.
74 (Esson 2009, p. 1)

75 When paired with ethical criticisms of holding animals in captivity (e.g. Jamieson
76 2006), the lack of evidence of learning has been used to call into question the very

77 legitimacy of the zoo as an institution. Indeed, anti-zoo activist groups have gone
78 much further in arguing that only negative learning could result from a zoo visit (e.g.
79 Captive Animals Protection Society 2010). Thus, evidence of educational impact is
80 crucial if contemporary zoos are to empirically validate their role as charities
81 promoting conservation biology-related learning and wildlife conservation.

82 However, as noted in the RSPCA report, prior published research on zoos
83 often eschews fundamental questions about zoos' ability to deliver effective
84 engagement with science and conservation, instead focusing on dependent (outcome)
85 variables such as satisfaction, 'stopping power' and 'implicit connectedness to nature'
86 and visitor behavior within the zoo (Moss, Esson, & Bazley 2010; Moss, Esson, &
87 Francis 2010), which are assumed to provide some proxy information about
88 educational impact. For example, previous studies have focused on independent
89 (causal) variables such as viewing area size (e.g. Moss, Francis, & Esson 2008),
90 visitor density (Moss, Francis, & Esson 2007), the relative credibility of different zoo-
91 based personnel (e.g. Fraser, Taylor, Johnson, & Sickler 2008) and 'identity-related
92 motivations' (Falk et al. 2007). Amongst those previous published studies that do
93 focus on zoo impacts, most use post-visit only or aggregate-only data (or both), thus
94 making it impossible to identify patterns of learning that can be validly applied at the
95 level of the individual (Molenaar 2004). Indeed, a range of methodological
96 shortcomings such as an over-reliance on self-report data further undermine the
97 conclusions (both positive and negative) of most such studies of zoos' educational
98 impact.

99 **Prior Research on Zoo Visitor Impacts**

100 Perhaps the most prominent prior study of zoos' educational impact was conducted by
101 Falk et al. (2007) at four sites in the United States. This zoo visitor study was called
102 the multi-institutional research program or MIRP (Falk et al. 2007). In this multi-part
103 study, Falk et al. (2007) set out to evaluate adult zoo visitors' motivations for
104 attending and any changes in attitudes towards or learning about conservation. Falk
105 defines this task in terms of 'identity-related motivations'. The focus on these
106 motivations is justified as a prerequisite for 'prediction' of visitor outcomes: "we need
107 to capture the essence of what motivates visitors so we could better predict what they
108 might gain from their visit" (Falk et al. 2007, p. 6).

109 Falk's (2007, p. 9) thesis is that visitors arrive at museums or zoos with
110 "specific identity-related-motivations and these motivations directly impact how they
111 conduct their visit and what meaning they make from the experience". He develops
112 this thesis with an audience segmentation approach that defines visitors as belonging
113 to one of his five categories. The five visitor types Falk (2007, p. 13) proposes are:
114 Facilitators ("desire a social experience aimed at the satisfaction of someone else"
115 such as parents), Explorers ("visit for personal interests" such as learning),
116 Experience Seekers ("visit as tourists [...] value the zoo [...] as part of the
117 community"), Professional/Hobbyists ("tuned into institutional goals and activities"),
118 Spiritual Pilgrims (attend zoos as "areas for reflection"). However, this entire
119 'identity-related motivations' approach has been called into question by a critical
120 essay by Jensen and Dawson (2011). Jensen and Dawson (2011) also challenge the
121 methodological approaches employed in the MIRP study for a range of fundamental
122 errors in assumptions and measurement biases. Complementary critiques have also
123 been published highlighting flaws in Falk's approach (e.g. Bickford 2010) and Falk et

124 al.'s (2007) questionable survey methods (Marino, Lilienfeld, Malamud, Nobis, &
125 Brogliod 2010).

126 The segmentation-based research conducted by Falk, Fraser, and other zoo
127 researchers - and indeed most other zoo visitor research in the literature - is almost
128 universally focused on adult visitors only. As recently noted by Fraser (2009), there is
129 a surprising paucity of evaluation research focused on children visiting zoos.
130 Published zoo visitor studies of zoo impacts routinely exclude children from their
131 samples. One example of this is Fraser's (2009) research on parents' perspectives on
132 the value of zoo visits conducted at Bronx Zoo in New York City. Interviews and
133 observations of zoo visits were undertaken with eight families (14 adults). The study
134 concluded, "parents conceive of the zoo as a useful tool [...] to promote an altruistic
135 sense of self, and to transfer their environmental values. [...] They could use these
136 visits to actively support their children's self-directed learning" (Fraser 2009, p. 357).
137 However, the study only discusses parents' assumptions of the impact of zoos on their
138 children - or what Fraser calls '*anticipated* utility'. The *actual* utility of zoo visits was
139 not investigated, leaving this issue still unaddressed in published research literature.

140 This lack of direct evidence of the value of zoo-based education for children
141 prompted the present study. The specific case examined in this study is the rich
142 variety of state and privately funded schools visiting the Zoological Society of
143 London's (ZSL) London Zoo in groups with teachers and sometimes with parents.
144 State school visits, funded by the Greater London Authority, were either with an
145 educational presentation to supplement the unguided visit or unguided. Independent,
146 privately funded schools were able to access the same educational experiences on a
147 subsidized per school group fee basis. This arrangement pre-dated the present

148 research, but it was identified as a unique opportunity to test whether additional
149 educational provision results in any increases or decreases in learning or enjoyment.
150 Because the decision about whether to receive an additional educational presentation
151 is made at the school or classroom level and the outcomes are measured at the level of
152 the individual pupil, any differences in pupils' outcomes can be attributed to the zoo
153 experience. That is, the present study takes advantage of a naturally occurring setting
154 in which additional educational content was introduced to pupils on a non-self-
155 selecting basis. This study therefore provides insights about the impacts of zoo-visits
156 by comparing two common formats for such visits (zoo educator supplemented and
157 unguided). The percentages of pupils evincing positive, negative or neutral change in
158 the annotated drawing data collected for this study provides the basis for assessing the
159 potential learning value of zoo visits.

160 This manuscript reports on a large-scale ($n = 2839$) study designed to address
161 the lacuna in the literature identified above by assessing whether zoos' educational
162 programmes can deliver positive conservation biology learning outcomes. It takes an
163 innovative and methodologically rigorous approach to evaluating zoos' impacts on
164 children and adolescents' understanding of animals and habitats. The present study
165 draws on data collected from June to August 2009 from pupils at schools in the
166 Greater London area. The research evaluates and compares educational impact for zoo
167 visits accompanied by an educational presentation conducted by zoo educators and for
168 unguided zoo visits. This comparison addresses the most relevant question for
169 conservation biology educators: What can you achieve with pupils who are visiting
170 your institution? This study address this question with a data set comprised entirely of
171 pupils visiting a zoo. Overall, this study focuses on the cumulative impact of such

172 visits, rather than the specific individual elements of such visits (cf. Marino et al.
173 2010).

174 **METHODS**

175 As indicated above, the main purpose of the present research is evaluating learning in
176 school pupils visiting ZSL London Zoo. This study directly measures stability or
177 change in pupils' attitudes and understanding relating to conservation biology,
178 addressing the following research question:

- 179 • Can a zoo visit facilitate the development of conservation biology learning
180 amongst school pupils?

181 Two sub-questions are used to further refine the focus of this article:

- 182 1. To what extent do unguided school zoo visits lead to conservation biology
183 learning?
- 184 2. Do zoo educator-guided school zoo visits lead to greater learning than
185 unguided zoo visits?

186 One of the methodological aims of the present research is to overcome
187 limitations associated with prior research on educational impact. In particular, this
188 study does not rely exclusively on self-report measures for learning as previous
189 studies have done (e.g. see Marino et al. 2010). Instead a mixture of quantitative and
190 qualitative data were collected, with the present manuscript reporting on quantitative
191 analyses conducted on this mix of data genres, which includes thought-listing,
192 annotated drawings, Likert scales and other items designed to allow for the valid

193 collection of relevant and reliable data, which could be robustly analysed to identify
194 different possible forms of impact from children's zoo visits.

195 **Survey Instrument**

196 It is clear from both national and international zoo perspectives that a key emphasis
197 for zoo-based education is promoting understanding of conservation biology. As such
198 the methods for this study were tailored to explore this domain of pupils' thinking. To
199 accurately elicit pupils' understandings of habitats and animals we asked children to
200 draw their 'favourite animal where it lives in the wild' both before and after their visit
201 or educational presentation. A drawing task, such as this, provides an opportunity for
202 children to express their understanding in a medium that is less reliant on formal
203 linguistic capabilities, thus making it more accessible to young pupils and those for
204 whom English is not their first language.

205 A one-week pilot study used two versions of the pupil questionnaire with
206 different formats and phrasing. These were assessed for the extensiveness and
207 relevance of pupils' responses. The version that elicited the most extensive responses
208 were then used exclusively.

209 The mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) survey instruments
210 developed for this study included a pre-visit form and a post-visit form. Different
211 variations on these forms were used for primary school pupils and for secondary
212 school pupils on zoo visits. The pre-visit form for primary school pupils visiting the
213 zoo included the following elements to be addressed in this manuscript:

- 214 • Demographic details: Name, age and gender.

215 • A thought-listing item with 5 numbered lines and the instruction “What do you
216 think of when you think of the zoo?”.

217 • Space to complete an annotated drawing, with the instruction: “Please draw
218 your favourite wildlife habitat and all the plants and animals that live there.
219 (Please put names or labels on everything)”. Below the drawing space is a
220 question, “What did you draw above?”, in order to elicit further linguistic
221 clues to their level of understanding.

222 This pre-zoo visit form was expanded somewhat for the secondary school pupils in
223 line with their increased linguistic capabilities. Specifically, the following new items
224 were added for secondary school pupils only (which are carried on into the post-visit
225 survey form).

226 • ‘Conservation Self-Efficacy’: This concept of conservation self-efficacy was
227 operationalized in the present study through pupils’ response to the following
228 question both pre- and post-visit (secondary school version of survey only):
229 ‘Do you feel there is anything you can do about animal extinction?’. This is
230 admittedly a very modest first attempt to operationalize this complicated idea
231 of conservation self-efficacy.

232 • An item assessing the pupil’s level of concern about wildlife conservation,
233 with the question “Do you feel personally concerned about species going
234 extinct?”. (response options: ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘not sure’)

235 The post-visit survey forms retained thought-listing and annotated drawing items in
236 exactly the same form as in the pre-visit in order to allow for direct comparisons. In
237 addition, there were items measuring pupils’ satisfaction and enjoyment. The question

238 measuring satisfaction was ‘How was the London Zoo lesson?’. For primary school
239 pupils, a five-point response scale using face drawings from smiling to frowning was
240 provided; for secondary school pupils, a five-point response scale from ‘Very Good’
241 to ‘Very Poor’ was provided for this item. Enjoyment was measured for the primary
242 school pupils with the question, ‘ (response options were ‘Yes’, ‘No’ or ‘Not Sure’);
243 for secondary school pupils the question was, ‘Overall, did you enjoy your time at
244 London Zoo?’ (response options: ‘Yes’, ‘No’ or ‘Not Sure’). In the secondary school
245 version of the post-visit survey form, conservation self-efficacy and conservation
246 concern items exactly matching the pre-visit survey form were also included. Data
247 from other items in the pre- and post-visit survey forms are not used in this
248 manuscript.

249 **Sampling**

250 The Greater London Authority funding pupils’ attendance at the zoo offered a unique
251 opportunity to study patterns of zoo-based educational impact without the potential
252 selection bias of ‘ability to pay’ that would normally apply. Moreover, the fact that
253 there was a split in the population of visiting pupils between those whose visit was
254 supplemented by an educational presentation tailored to the zoo context, and those
255 whose attendance was unguided, offered the opportunity to assess whether such
256 additional zoo education made any difference and whether pupils visiting without
257 such supplementary education still learned anything of value.

258 The sample for this study was mostly comprised of pupils who attended the zoo,
259 either for a zoo visit supplemented by an educational presentation ($n = 1742$) or for a
260 unguided visit with their school ($n = 1097$). There were 890 boys and 834 girls in the
261 education officer-guided zoo visit sample (18 respondents did not specify their

262 gender), making a total sample size for this category of 1742 pupils for whom paired
263 (before and after) survey data was available. The age range for the education officer-
264 guided respondents was 7 – 15, with a mean age of 10. In the unguided zoo visit
265 sample, there were 470 boys and 607 girls (20 respondents did not specify their
266 gender), making a total sample size for this respondent type of 1097 pupils who
267 completed both pre- and post-visit survey forms. The age range for unguided
268 respondents was 7 – 14, with a mean age of 9.9.

269 **Procedure**

270 Survey forms were administered both before and after pupils' experience with
271 London Zoo formal learning activities. The purpose of these questionnaires was to
272 capture any changes in pupils' thinking about animals and their habitats as they
273 participated in different zoo-related activities. In particular, the use of pre- and post-
274 visit questionnaires was intended to measure the cumulative impact of the zoo visit on
275 pupils' developing understanding of animals, habitats and zoos.

276 The use of a before/after (repeated measures) survey design in this manner can result
277 in false negatives because of inflated 'pre-test' responses to self-report items.

278 However, the present study reports results based on open-ended direct outcome
279 measures (viz. annotated drawings of animals in habitats) rather than relying on
280 closed-ended self-report items, thereby mitigating the methodological risk typically
281 involved in a repeated measures design. The selection of this repeated measures
282 design was also weighted against highly fraught alternatives such as a 'retrospective
283 pre-test' and post-test (i.e. both administered post-visit), which clearly increases the
284 risk of a false positive result along with a high risk of response bias.

285 Data Analysis

286 Questionnaire data was entered into a spreadsheet by research assistants, where it was
287 organized prior to import into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM
288 SPSS) for data analysis. All data except for the annotated drawings could be
289 straightforwardly entered without any analytic judgment required. The non-drawing
290 data were analysed with the assistance of relevant software.

291 For the pupils' annotated drawings (the learning impact measure) the analysis was
292 idiographic (within each case). A content analysis was conducted using a simple
293 coding scheme. On the first measure, drawings were coded as having undergone
294 positive development in learning (coded as '3'), no development (coded as '2') or
295 negative development in learning (coded as '1') from pre-visit form to post-visit form.
296 Positive development was defined in terms of increased evidence of elaboration of
297 physiological characteristics of animals, increased conceptual sophistication in terms
298 of the use of more scientific ideas such as shifting from describing a habitat as 'sand'
299 to 'desert' and/or improved accuracy in the placement of animals within their correct
300 wild habitats. Training in conducting this analysis was provided to the two
301 undergraduate research assistants working on this project. To show how this coding
302 determination worked, an example of positive development is provided below. In this
303 case, there is a substantial improvement over the course of the pupil's zoo visit and
304 educational presentation in the labeling of the 'woodland' habitat represented.

305 FIGURE 1 HERE – EXAMPLE OF POSITIVE CHANGE

306 The pre-visit drawing above only presents two animals (a rabbit and bird); whereas
307 the post-visit drawing includes a dragonfly, butterflies and a generic "insect", as well
308 as a pond with a frog, fish and duck and bird's nest in the tree. In addition, there is

309 evidence of a more sophisticated understanding of the environment in which these
310 animals live, with the addition of “grass” in the post-visit drawing, the more detailed
311 selection of an apple tree and the representation of a hole in the tree “for squirrels”.
312 Thus, there is evidence of a substantial expansion of this nine-year-old pupil’s
313 understanding over the course of her visit to the ZSL London Zoo, which included an
314 educational presentation on ‘Teeth and Diets’^v.

315 A randomly selected sample (n = 350) was blind coded by the lead researcher for
316 quality assurance purposes. A widely accepted statistic for measuring inter-coder
317 agreement was employed (Cohen’s kappa). The result was a finding of kappa = .885,
318 which is considered a good level of inter-coder agreement in content analysis,
319 particularly for latent content as in the present case. Differences uncovered through
320 this quality assurance exercise were resolved through discussion.

321 **RESULTS**

322 Beyond reporting the percentages of positive and negative change in pupils’
323 representations of animals in their wild habitats, the present analysis focuses on the
324 distinction between zoo educator-led versus unguided visits to see whether the
325 addition of a presentation from a zoo educator affected zoo visit outcomes. The
326 dependent (outcome) variables analyzed in this manuscript include actual learning (as
327 measured by annotated drawings), personal concern about species extinction, and
328 conservation self-efficacy (the feeling that one is capable of making a difference in
329 terms of saving animals from extinction).

330 *Descriptive results: Cumulative evaluation of positive change*

331 The area which most frequently benefited from positive change following the zoo
332 visit was the learning evidenced by pupils' annotated drawings of an animal in its
333 habitat. Indeed, in total 1075 pupils (38%) showed such a positive change in their
334 drawings in the post-visit questionnaire compared to the pre-visit drawing (41% of
335 education officer-led visits and 34% of unguided visits). Such positive changes
336 incorporated a range of incremental developments observed across the annotated
337 drawing data, including the addition of accurate labeling (e.g., "canopy",
338 "understory", "rainforest floor"), accurate positioning of animals within specific
339 habitats, and greater elaboration of physiological characteristics of animals
340 represented in pupils' drawings. As with the other results presented below, this
341 finding of a quantitative shift from pre- to the post-visit is based on idiographic
342 (within case) analysis, and therefore represents the actual proportion of unique
343 individuals undergoing this kind of change.

344 *Personal concern for conservation.* Respondents were more likely to switch from not
345 indicating pre-visit personal concern with species extinction to beginning to express
346 such concern post-visit (18%), rather than the other way around (3%).

347 *Conservation self-efficacy.* The relationship between perceived ability to do
348 something about extinction as measured in the secondary school pupils survey forms
349 in the pre- and post-visit surveys is limited. Pupils were marginally more likely to
350 switch from having indicated an inability to do something about extinction pre-visit,
351 to an ability to do something about extinction post-visit (13%), rather than the other
352 way around (9%). Indeed, the present data suggest that existing zoo educational
353 provision is better at promoting scientific learning and concern about wildlife

354 conservation than empowering pupils to believe they can take effective ameliorative
355 action.

356 *Conservation Concern in Thought-listing Results.* The thought-listing item provided
357 open-ended responses that were compared from pre- to post-visit to assess aggregate
358 changes in associations between ‘the zoo’ and conservation-related concepts. Seven
359 conservation-related ideas were identified in pupils’ pre- and post-visit response for
360 comparison. The total pre-visit frequency count for these conservation-related ideas
361 was 170 (Extinct – 18; Extinction – 43; Endangered – 24; Save – 15; Saved – 0;
362 Saving – 66; Conservation – 4); the post-visit total was 259 (Extinct – 16; Extinction
363 – 76; Endangered – 27; Save – 10; Saved – 7; Saving = 118; Conservation – 5).
364 Therefore, on this measure there was a 34% increase in aggregate conservation-
365 related thoughts from pre- to post-visit^{vi}.

366 **Comparing Zoo Educator-guided and Unguided Visits**

367 A key question addressed by this study is, what contribution does having an
368 educational presentation make to enhance or ‘guide’ pupils visiting the zoo? This
369 section addresses this question by comparing results for those pupils whose visit was
370 supplemented by an educational presentation connecting animals in the zoo to broader
371 concepts relating to habitats and conservation with the pupils that attended the zoo
372 without guidance from zoo educators (‘unguided’).

373 *Annotated drawings.* Pupils on education officer-led visits showed consistently more
374 positive outcomes on this measure of learning when compared to unguided. Those on
375 education officer-led visits were significantly more likely to have a positive change in
376 their drawings (11%) than those on unguided visits (16%).

377 Sample means were also compared for education officer-led and unguided visits on
378 the drawing-based measure of learning. While both categories evinced significant
379 gains in learning (no impact would be a mean of 2), education officer-led visits
380 yielded greater aggregate learning on this measure ($M=2.297$, $SD=.659$) compared
381 with unguided visits ($M=2.180$, $SD=.686$).

382 **DISCUSSION**

383 The present impact evaluation study focuses on the overall effectiveness of zoo
384 education aimed at enhancing understanding of conservation biology for children
385 visiting with their schools. The headline finding in this study is that 34% of pupils in
386 the study on education officer-led visits showed positive change, while 16% of
387 unguided pupils showed negative change. This is a net positive for unguided visits,
388 but indicates poorer educational impact when compared to the education officer-led
389 visits, where the ratio of positive to negative learning was 41% to 11%. The 7%
390 differential in positive learning impacts between guided and unguided visits may
391 seem modest. Yet, given the millions of children who visit zoos and similar
392 institutions every year, the prospect of increasing the level of positive impacts by this
393 proportion is very important. It also establishes the principle that zoo education
394 interventions may be able to make a positive difference in children's conservation
395 biology-related learning outcomes. While such learning outcomes may not
396 fundamentally change conservation-related behaviour, conservation biology learning
397 may establish the basis for further engagement targeted at fostering pro-conservation
398 social change.

399 Zoos' claims to serve a vital educational and engagement role in persuading publics
400 of the importance of biodiversity conservation and involving them in this cause

401 cannot be simply accepted at face value. As Moss and Esson (2012, p. 8) argue, “for
402 many years, they have confidently promoted themselves as education providers
403 particularly with regard to the conservation of biodiversity; perhaps even used this
404 educational function as part justification for their existence. Because of this, the
405 burden of evidencing educational impact falls squarely on the shoulders of zoos. Yet
406 the research undertaken thus far (and there is a substantial amount) has clearly not
407 been universally accepted as an effective demonstration of zoos’ positive impact”.
408 This study was designed to address whether and to what extent zoo visits can help
409 develop such positive impacts by employing rigorous social scientific impact
410 evaluation (also see Jensen 2011a; Jensen 2011b).

411 This study is the first large-scale effort to quantify the potential educational impacts
412 of zoos for children, and it is broadly supportive of the idea that zoo visits can deliver
413 pro-conservation learning and attitudinal impacts. However, there are some important
414 limitations inherent in this study. The most significant limitation given the study does
415 not employ an experimental design is the uncontrolled risk of confounding variables,
416 the most obvious of which is the role of the teacher (and accompanying parents).

417 Although the results of this study are consistent with the explanation that the zoo visit
418 yielded aggregate positive learning outcomes, it is possible that the teacher or some
419 other unidentified factor was the key to the positive and negative impacts identified in
420 this study, rather than the zoo^{vii}. For example, one alternative explanation for the
421 educational impacts observed in this study is that teachers use the zoo experience as a
422 platform for delivering conservation biology learning. This research also leaves
423 unanswered the broader policy question of whether zoos are worthwhile conservation
424 education institutions when compared to other public engagement sites such as
425 botanical gardens and natural history museums. This broader policy question should

426 be addressed by future research, which would most likely need to employ a quasi-
427 experimental and/or microgenetic evaluation (Wagoner & Jensen, in press) approach
428 in order to better control for confounding variables.

429 The present results indicate that pupils visiting the zoo are significantly more likely to
430 evince positive conservation biology learning impacts when they attend an
431 educational officer-led presentation, when compared to zoo visits that are exclusively
432 ‘unguided’ by teachers. This finding is consistent with a Vygotskian theoretical
433 explanation: Zoo educators may be assisting pupils’ learning within a ‘zone of
434 proximal development’, as theorized by influential developmental psychologist Lev
435 Vygotsky. On the basis of his research, Vygotsky argued that there is a zone of
436 potential ‘assisted’ learning that can occur above and beyond the autonomous learning
437 potential of a pupil.

438 This study suggests that the zoo is a setting in which this distinction between a
439 proximal zone of potential assisted learning and a zone of ‘autonomous learning’ (i.e.,
440 unguided) is very applicable. Vygotsky’s social development theory proposes that
441 learning is inherently connected to social relationships and communication. Most
442 relevant in the present context is his argument that learning can be assisted by a ‘More
443 Knowledgeable Other’ who can provide support or guidance through the learning
444 process. In this case, the More Knowledgeable Others are the education officers who
445 helped pupils to develop their scientific and conservation learning. The provision of
446 conceptual tools relevant to the zoo context yielded enhanced learning outcomes,
447 beyond the level that could be achieved autonomously or by non-specialist teachers.

448 A further direction for theorizing the present research results connects to the work of
449 another influential developmental psychologist and learning theorist, Jean Piaget.

450 Piaget's (1957) classic theory proposes that learning takes place when children face
451 new situations that existing mental schema are not set up to process, thereby leading
452 to cognitive 'disequilibrium'. To re-equalize, children must extend their existing
453 schema. Thus, in the present context, children are confronted with new stimuli at the
454 zoo- animals they have never seen before. These stimuli may cause disequilibrium in
455 pupils' existing mental schema relating to animals. If facilitated effectively by zoo
456 interpretation and education, the re-equalizing process may have the potential to
457 extend pupils' thinking about animals. However, from this point in the zoo learning
458 process, the present data support the Vygotskian explanation regarding a zone of
459 proximal development. That is, on the basis of the present data I would argue that
460 viewing new animals in a zoo may have the potential to result in a form of cognitive
461 disequilibrium as theorized by Piaget. However, the assimilation of new ideas into a
462 pupil's existing mental schema for understanding animals and habitats can be
463 significantly enhanced through assistance from a More Knowledgeable Other (in this
464 case a zoo educator).

465 Thus the present research supports (but does not confirm) a theoretical model in
466 which new stimuli (viewing live animals) create the *potential* for the assimilation of
467 new information about conservation biology into existing mental schema, as predicted
468 by Piaget. However, this assimilation process is more likely to occur and likely to be
469 better elaborated with guidance from a More Knowledgeable Other (i.e., a
470 conservation educator or tailored educational materials). In sum, regardless of the
471 precise nature of the learning facilitator, this study supports Vygotsky's (1987, 1994)
472 argument that the facilitator plays a vital role in drawing children's attention in useful
473 directions and providing conceptual tools that allow children to develop their
474 conservation biology learning. In other words, this theoretical model places

475 conservation educators in the role of toolmakers, seeking to develop the most
 476 effective explanations possible to provision children for the process of developing a
 477 higher level of conservation biology-related understanding.

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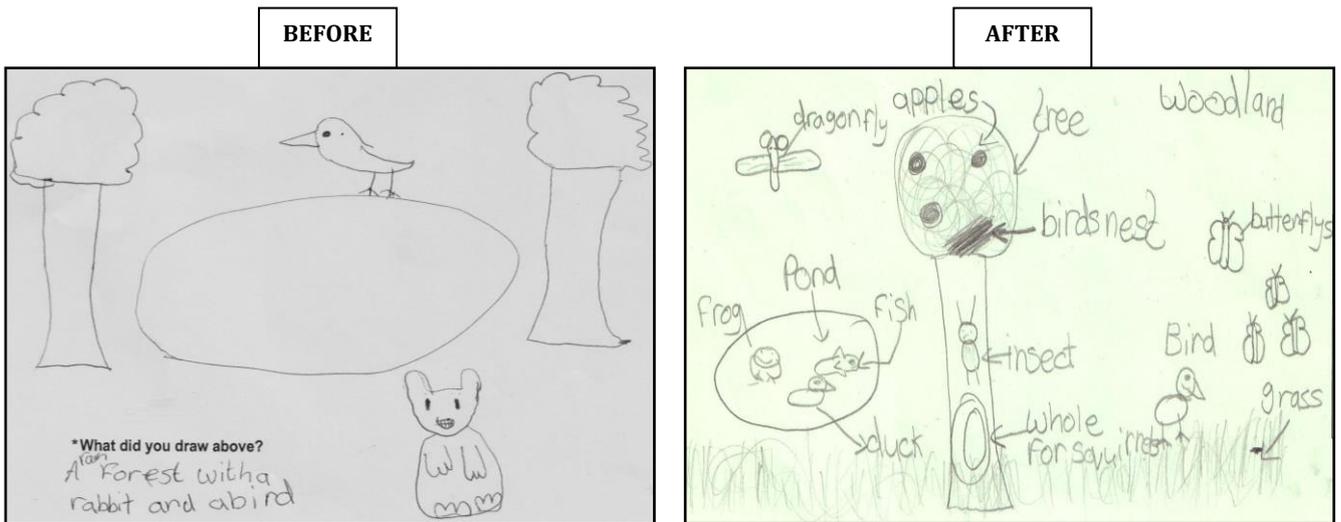
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Figures

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546 **Figure 1: Greater elaboration, labelling post-visit evincing positive change**
547 **(female, age 9)**



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ⁱ <http://www.eaza.net/activities/Pages/Activities.aspx>

ⁱⁱ ‘Evaluation of the effectiveness of zoos in meeting conservation and education objectives’ in *The Welfare State: Measuring animal welfare in the UK 2006* (published by the RSPCA).

ⁱⁱⁱ ‘Evaluation of the effectiveness of zoos in meeting conservation and education objectives’ in *The Welfare State: Measuring animal welfare in the UK 2006* (published by the RSPCA).

^{iv} [http://www.biaza.org.uk/resources/library/images/Part%202%20Apr%202009%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.biaza.org.uk/resources/library/images/Part%202%20Apr%202009%20(2).pdf)

^v This educational presentation is described on the ZSL website as follows: “Animal skulls and images are used to teach children about the function of teeth and the different foods animals eat” (<http://www.zsl.org/education/schools/zsl-london-zoo-schools/primary-programme-at-zsl-london-zoo,189,AR.html>).

^{vi} It is important to note that this aggregate increase in conservation-related thoughts does not mean that 34% of individuals evinced an increase, as each individual offered multiple thoughts. However, it is one indicator of positive change at the aggregate level.

^{vii} Although the fact that unguided visits with teachers under-performed against the visits including a zoo educator would suggest this is not the case. Moreover, subsequent qualitative research at London Zoo indicated that teachers were playing a net negative role in pupils learning experience during unguided visits.