Ethics and code of conduct in zoo management

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DP in Experience and Wellness Management

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There are around 1 million wild animals living in the 10,000-12,000 zoos worldwide. They include zoological parks, biological parks, safari parks, public aquariums, bird parks, reptile parks and insectariums. Zoo tourism is both domestic and international.

The purpose of this research thesis is to clarify the ethics and codes of conduct in present day zoo management by presenting the current nature of zoos, ethics behind zoo business and the current codes of conduct.

Zoo management involves many aspects from capturing animals from the wild and exchanging them with other zoos. Zoos have roles in entertainment, education and conservation. Zoos often work for profit, which means that the commercial and scientific roles of zoos may be controversial. This may cause lack of welfare for the animal at display for the sake of human entertainment. In terms of in-house breeding and conservation, zoos have not done well: breeding healthy animals in a close-knit genepool has proved to be difficult.

Research shows that zoos have faced criticism throughout their history. Public pressure has caused them to develop towards more naturalistic enclosures. Wild animals in captivity show physiological and psychological stress and the standards of animal welfare ranges from zoo to zoo. Many zoos lack legislation that protects animal welfare: the codes of conduct provided by NGOs lack support from a governmental level.

Results indicate that zoos need to develop for them to be accepted in modern society. The discussion suggests that zoos should concentrate primarily on conservation by rehabilitating captive animals back into the wild. The discussion also presents that the conflicting role of commercial and scientific roles should be resolved by governmental involvement. Creating a strict legislation is necessary to improve the welfare of zoo animals, staff and visitors alike. The discussion of this thesis presents socio-cultural indications of current zoo management as well as suggestions for future research.

Keywords
Zoo management, Animal Welfare, Conservation, Ethics, Code of Conduct
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1 Introduction

'The zoo is in such a condition that it's no longer a zoo, it's a concentration camp… When I look those animals in the eyes, I am ashamed to be a human being.'

(Tarnavska on Kiev Zoo, Fox News Europe, 2011).

Zoos became popular attractions at a time when people didn’t have any other opportunities of seeing or learning about wild animals. Nowadays, many zoos still strongly state that their mission is to educate people and conserve endangered species. However, research shows that for most part, zoos exist for the sake of human entertainment and that the conservational role of zoos is questionable, even controversial.

Zoos today have come to face opposition from the public due to the way they are managed. People question the conditions of the animals as well as the ethics behind capturing them from the wild and putting them behind bars. As visitor numbers decline and the public boycotts animal-based institutions, zoos are beginning to face an ultimatum: develop or become extinct. The topic around the welfare of animals in zoos is not new, however, the ethics behind zoo management is not widely discussed or researched in the academic world.

It is important to make a distinction between wild animals and domesticated animals to understand the ethical controversy behind keeping wild animals in captivity. Domestication is a process that makes animals easily adaptable to the environment controlled by humans. Domesticated animals such as farm animals and pets have been bred with the aim of having tame animals for agriculture, work or companionship. Wild animals have not gone through this process of domestication. This distinction is essential for understanding the ethical problems that arise from keeping wild animals in captivity: they are not adapted to our environment. As this research comes to show, wild animals show signs of stress in captivity, unlike their domesticated friends.
This thesis is a desk research with the objective of clarifying the current ethics and codes of conduct in zoo management. This thesis is linked with the concepts of experience and wellness management. The visitor experience is the outcome of decisions made in zoo management. The zoo experience is also affected by ethical questions too – how far can zoo managers stretch to meet visitor expectations without compromising animal welfare? The wellness aspect is more complex. The welfare of animals is a big part of the wellness aspects, but the wellness of humans is also linked. This thesis research takes a humanistic approach towards the ethical dimensions of zoo management. This relation will further be discussed in subchapter 6.1.

The thesis topic was chosen because it is current, yet it is not widely studied. There has been an increase in news related to poor animal welfare in zoos. The public has shown interest in the welfare of zoo animals as well. The society around us seems to have become more interested in ethical treatment of not only fellow humans, but the flora and fauna of our planet. The justification of this thesis also comes from the strong belief of the author: wild animals should not be held captive for the sake of entertainment. Hopefully the reader of this thesis will have a better understanding of the current state of zoo management from an ethical perspective.

This thesis may be useful for further research on the topic when looking for an alternative way of management for zoos. This thesis may be used as a theoretical basis for conducting a research on the effect of the current codes of conduct. It is an instrument for both managers, visitors and researchers of zoos to re-evaluate the current system and seek for a more ethical alternative.

1.1 Research question and method

This thesis is a desk research with the objective of clarifying ethics and code of conduct in present day zoo management. There are three sub-questions that will be delivered:

- What is the nature of zoos?
- What are the ethics behind zoo business?
- What are the current codes of conduct in zoo management?
Chapters 2, 3 and 4 deal with the current nature of zoos, ethical values behind the business and the codes of conduct that relate to zoo management. In chapter 5, the results are stated. In chapter 6, discussion of the results are presented. Suggestions for future research, evaluating the validity and reliability of the thesis and the author’s professional learning are also discussed in chapter 6.

This thesis is a desk research method, which means collecting and drawing together secondary sources of information. The desk research method is efficient in collecting and analyzing data which is based on previous research on the topic. This desk research uses qualitative methods in analyzing gathered information because it was evident from the beginning, that the academically based research and literature on the topic was scarce. This method enables information to be gathered from a widespread of sources: books, journals, e-sources, surveys, articles etc. (Market Research Glossary, DJS Research Ltd., Research Portals Ltd., 2014).

The desk research, also known as secondary research, is the most common method of research nowadays. Desk research includes browsing and collecting data that has been researched by someone else. In this method, research will focus on processing previously published studies, reports, articles and market research projects to come up with a conclusion. This method is affordable compared to other methods, since there is no need for new research to be commissioned. The desk research methods is efficient since sources are numerous and they can easily be accessed online. However, finding the relevant information desired can seem difficult in this method. The biggest disadvantage of this method is the fact that the data you find and process may be out-dated and may thus give inaccurate, unreliable results. Another disadvantage of the desk research method, is that it may be difficult to find exact information that relates to the current research topic. (Market Research Glossary, DJS Research Ltd., Research Portals Ltd., 2014).
1.2 Definition of concepts

Zoos are collections of wild animals, usually established in parks or gardens for study, conservation or display to the public (Oxford University Press, 2014). They include zoological gardens, biological parks, safari parks, public aquariums, bird parks, reptile parks and insectaria (WAZA, 2005 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 13).

The word ‘ethics’ derives from Old English, Old French, Late Latin, Greek and means the ‘study of morals’. Ethics can also be described as the moral principle that guides behaviour. (Online Etymology Dictionary, 2014). Ethics can be seen as one of the most complex human characteristics, since morality is culturally derived (Saul, 2001, in Fennell, 2012, 12).

Code of conduct is a central ethical guide and support in day-to-day decision-making. It is meant to clarify the mission, values and principles of an organization by linking them with the standards of professional conduct. (Ethics Resource Center, 2009).
2 Nature of zoos

This chapter will focus on describing the nature of zoos. The largest zoos in the world, the roles of conservation, education and entertainment, animal welfare, and the future are aspects that will be presented. This chapter is the backbone of this literary review. After the brief look into what zoos are like today, the following chapter will present ethical aspects of the zoo business. The final chapter of the literary review will focus on describing the current codes of conduct.

Throughout history humans have given value to other species as means of entertainment, education and spirituality in addition to being sources of food and clothing (Frost, 2011, 69). Collecting and exhibiting animals originates from Ancient Egypt, where private collections were reserved for the higher class population, as they were symbols of wealth and power (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49-50). One of the oldest public zoos in the world is the Tiergarten Schönbrunn in Vienna, Austria: it was founded in 1752 as a menagerie and is still up and running (Wien Tourismus, 2015). In the 1900’s zoos based themselves as conservation movements, with focus on scientific study of endangered species (Hoage & Deiss, 1996, 137). In the beginning of the 20th century, zoos became an attraction for mass audiences (Beardsworth & Bryman, 2001, 88). By the late 1900’s there was a shift in the nature of zoos with public attitudes and interests changing towards nature and conservation, with concern for ecosystems and sustainable development (Frost, 2011, 1-3).

Mullan & Marvin (1987, 4) describe that domestic animals are not displayed in zoos because they are familiar to us and have been adapted to our environment. Mullan and Marvin continue to describe wild animals are usually strange and unusual to humans, they are not orientated to people. There is an element of danger in wild animals that attracts people to zoos. (Mullan & Marvin, 1987, 4).

Zoos are important and popular tourist attractions around the world (Frost, 2011, 1). There are around 10,000-12,000 zoos in the world and they include zoological gardens, biological parks, safari parks, public aquariums, bird parks, reptile parks and in-
sectariums, out of which there are only around 1000 public or private owned zoos, with around 600 million visitors annually, that are recognized for their good animal care and involvement in species conservation (WAZA, 2005 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 13).

Attachment 1 presents the world map with 10 of the biggest zoos in the world according to Said (2013). The zoos are presented with their respective area, number of species and number of individual animals.

The largest zoo in the world is the Berlin Zoo, Germany with 84 acres, 1500 species and 19500 animals in-house. The second largest zoo is the Columbus Zoo and Aquarium in Ohio, USA with 580 acres, 793 species and 9000 animals in-house. The Columbus Zoo and Aquarium is a non-profit attraction. The third largest zoo is the Toronto Zoo in Canada with 710 acres, 491 species and 5000 animals in-house. The fourth largest zoo is the Beijing Zoo in China, with 219 acres and 950 species. The Henry Doorly Zoo and Aquarium in Nebraska, USA is the fifth largest zoo with 130 acres and 962 species. The Moscow Zoo in Russia is the sixth largest zoo with 53 acres, 927 species and 6000 animals in-house. The National Zoological Gardens of South Africa, Pretoria is the seventh largest zoo with 210 acres, 705 species and 9000 animals in-house. The eight largest zoo in the world is the Bronx Zoo in New York, USA with 265 acres, 650 species and 4000 animals in-house. The ninth largest zoo is the London Zoo in the UK with 36 acres, 755 species and 16000 animals. The tenth largest zoo in the world is the San Diego Zoo in California, USA with 100 acres, 650 species and 3700 animals. (Said, 2013).

Nine zoos out of ten, excluding the National Zoological Gardens of South Africa, Pretoria, are situated in the same geographical latitude. This would indicate that the climate is somewhat similar in this latitude. Most of the zoos are situated in Western countries that can be considered to be economically developed countries, aside from the Beijing Zoo in China, Moscow Zoo in Russia and perhaps even the National Zoological Gardens of South Africa, Pretoria that can be considered to be developing countries.
There are around 1 million living wild animals in zoos around the world (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Many of these animals are rare since they can only inhabit certain geographical areas, they have restricted biological requirements or they have experienced loss of population due to habitat loss and exploitations (Gaston & Blackburn, 1995 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Large animals often face the threat of hunters for game and meat (Dobson & Yu, 1993 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15).

The most popular form of animal use in tourism is claimed to be the entertainment and education provided by the zoo (Hall & Brown, 2006, 142). In 1999, Morgan & Hodgkinson (1999, 227-228) said that zoos are the primary contact point between humans and animals in the modern society. Zoos also contribute economically, since they are a significant tourist attraction for both domestic and international visitors (Frost, 2011, 60). According to studies, zoos are visitor attractions for local people, hence the majority of visitors being domestic. Zoo tourism is usually a family-oriented leisure activity that lasts one day. (Frost, 2011, 5).

Although domestic visitors make up a large amount of zoo visitors, tourists still make up a large number of visitors (Frost, 2011, 6). In Australia there are 8 million visitors to zoos yearly, with 5 million domestic and 3 million international visitors (Tribe 2004, 37). For London Zoo, 13% of visitors are from outside the UK and make up for 130,000 international visitors per year. These amounts of visitors are highly valuable for any leisure attractions, hence the importance of studies related to zoos and tourism is relevant. In Australia the 2008/2009 International Visitor Survey stated that 53% of international tourists visited some sort of wildlife parks, zoos or aquaria. (Frost, 2011, 6).

Some zoos target themselves for local visitors and some pursue the international markets with charismatic animals such as polar bears and pandas (Frost, 2011, 6). There seems to be clustering of zoos evident in areas of high tourism flows such as Miami where there are four zoo enclosures in close proximity to one another (Shackley, 1996, in Frost, 2011, 6). Small, specialized zoos with bioregional focus and distinctive ani-
mals from a certain area seem to rely heavily on tourists (Frost, 2011, 6). In zoos, visitors can interact with wildlife directly despite the unnatural or artificial setting (Catinbog-Sinha, 2011, 14).

2.1 Roles of zoos

The zoo today is said to have emerged from the demand for a place for education and awareness, as they claimed to protect endangered species (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 50). Frost (2011) argues that zoos have conflicting aims in conservation, education and entertainment. The best examples of zoos are constantly developing and the worst cases continuously exploit animal welfare. (Frost, 2011, 1).

Shackley (1996) reveals that the roles of zoos are educating people about animals, conserving endangered species, safeguarding the welfare of visitors, entertaining visitors to generate revenue, providing visitor facilities such as catering and merchandising, reintroducing captive breeds into the wild and carrying out zoological and veterinary research to improve animal welfare in the wild and in captivity. (Shackley, 1996 in Mason, 2011, 189).

Mullan & Marvin (1987) and Rothfels (2002) argue that zoos are primarily for people (in Frost, 2011, 11). Many studies have shown that people think of zoos as places for entertainment rather than see their value in conservation of species (Hancocks, 2001; Mullan & Marvin, 1987; Ryan & Saward, 2004; Shackley, 1996; Turley, 1999 in Frost, 2011, 11).

According to a research in three Malaysian zoos, visitors went to zoos for recreation and wanted to see attractive and active animals rather than threatened and healthy animals. The research also found that the majority of respondents thought that the animals were kept in order to attract visitors, although most visitors acknowledged conservation, education and research in zoos. (Puan & Zakaria, 2007, 226).

Many have argued that zoos play a vital role in educational purposes (Mason, 2011, 189). Zoos attract criticism since the animals they display in captivity are found in the
wild (Bostock, 1993 in Mason, 2011, 189). Zoos are not always supported by the state, as in the UK for example (Mason, 2011, 193). In 1981 Huxley stated, that zoos depend on paying customers, and this means there is a potential conflict between the commercial and scientific role of zoos (in Mason, 2011, 193).

Zoos and aquariums are often defended by displaying them as necessary parts of education and awareness for conservation of species. This argument is vague due to the fact that animals lose their freedom in captivity and protected areas are heavily exploited for the sake of tourism. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 47).

2.2 Conservation of species

“Once brought to human attention an animal is no longer an animal in itself – it can only be that away from human sight, experience and though… the human experience of a [captive] creature destroys its authenticity (a quality which is linked to its independence) as a wild animal”. (Mullan & Marvin, 1987, 3).

Species loss is a natural process of selection which means that species go extinct naturally all the time. A generally accepted statistic is that around 95% of all species that ever were on the earth are already extinct. However, UN regularly reports that the pace of loss of species is accelerating. (Mercer, 2013, 137). These findings are reported in 2005 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Report (United Nations, 2005) and the annual Red List of the World’s Endangered Species by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN, 2010) (in Mercer, 2013, 137). Some comparison from the 2010 IUCN Red List, with countries and number of endangered species: Ecuador 2227 (top), Indonesia 1116, Malaysia 1167, China 832, Madagascar 641, Canada 68 and UK 72 (IUCN, 2010 in Mercer, 2013, 138).

Large animals are often flagships of tourist attractions mainly due to habitat destruction and danger of extinction (Mercer, 2013, 138). Visitors tend to sympathize endangered large animals, the flagships for conservation campaigns and fundraisers (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). One such species is the Rothchild’s Giraffe, of which only around 700 individuals remain in the wild in mainly Uganda and Kenya (Mercer, 2013, 138).
In addition to captive breeding, endangered species need to be re-accommodated in large reserves. An example of such is the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, a cooperation between Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa. This park includes the 19,000 sq km Kruger National Park, the largest area of conservation in the world. Due to large size and scale, animals can roam freely and make needed migrations in line with seasonality of rainfall and food resources. (Mercer, 2013, 138).

Zoos are often displayed as last refuges for endangered animals, places that breed animals for the sake of future restocking of the wild (Frost, 2011, 9). According to research done in the 1990’s, more than 90% of zoos have poor management in the care of animals in captivity and a poor record of involvement in conservation of wildlife (Kelly, 1997; Van Linge, 1992 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 13).

Zoos have not succeeded in conservation of species historically speaking. The first example is of the Thylacine or Tasmanian tiger. They were displayed in zoos like London, Washington, Vienna, Paris and Antwerp and they were popular because of their rarity in nature; no zoo however engaged themselves in a captive breeding program. In 1936 the last known Tasmanian tiger died at Beaumaris Zoo, Hobart, Australia, on a harsh winter’s night after its keeper forgot to return it to its quarters. (Frost, 2011, 9).

On a positive note, some species have been saved including the Mongolian Wild Horse, Père David’s Deer, European Bison, Oryx and Golden Lion Tamarin (Frost, 2011, 9). Some argue however that it has been luck that these species have been restored rather than the engagement of zoos to protecting the endangered species (Hancocks, 2001; Shackley, 1996 in Frost, 2011, 9). Some zoos tend to boast their role in conservation in their publications and marketing when they are actually doing very little (Frost, 2011, 9). According to Hancocks (2001), a North American zoo opened a “Chimpanzee Conservation Center” with flamboyant nature but it turned out to be no more than another exhibit at the zoo (in Frost, 2011, 9-10).
Zoos can indicate direct actions made by zoos towards education and conservation programs (Catibog-Sinha, 2008 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 14). Several studies have showed that visitors value learning and education in addition to recreational purposes of zoo tourism. The motivating factors for visitors surveyed in the Cleveland Metro-park Zoo (USA) included education as a motivator in addition to enjoyment, relaxation and family togetherness. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 14).

A study conducted in three Indian zoos showed that zoos can help protect wild animals and provide educational experiences that convey the message of conservation (Mallapur et al., 2008, 214). A well planned and executed conservation program can better the zoo visitor’s experience through recreation and learning about wildlife (Rhoads & Goldworthy, 1979 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 14).

2.3 Animal welfare

The rights of animals have been widely debated (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49). Animals are commonly regarded as things used for food, clothing, transportation, entertainment, experiments and sport (DeGrazia, 2002; Mullin, 1999; Newkirk, 1999; Singer, 1977 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49). Animals have been exploited, dominated and considered less by humans (Singer, 1977 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49). Humans can discriminate animals in the same way they discriminate other humans (DeGrazia, 2002; Mullin, 1999; Newkirk, 1999; Singer, 1977 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49).

The quality of life for animals in captive displays differs from the approximated 10,000 zoos worldwide (DeGrazia, 2002; Newkirk, 1999 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 50). It is common for the zoos to treat animals as commodities that can be traded, loaned, sold and killed according to trends (Newkirk, 1999 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 50). Concrete is widely used in “natural” animal exhibits because it is easy to keep clean (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 50). Animals can be lured into public viewing by heating up sand underneath them (Bulbeck, 2005; Cain & Meritt, 1998 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 50). The replacement of iron bars with glass windows seems such a step towards a more natural exhibit while it actually makes air ventilation more difficult (Wearing &
Monkeys have used the bars for swinging as a way to defeat boredom (Bulbeck, 2005; Cain & Meritt, 1998 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 50).

Enclosures can’t offer the same level of stimuli and activity to the animals in captivity as they would have in the wild. The size, intelligence and activity level of some animals gives reason why animals are not suited for captivity. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). Tigers can roam from 16-32km/day in solitude and no zoo can replicate this (Moss, 1961 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). Gus, a polar bear from Central Park Zoo in New York became famous due to his depression: staff at the zoo had to administer him Prozac – Gus was the first animal in zoo history to receive antidepressants (Newkirk, 1999 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51).

According to zoologists at Oxford University large, nomadic animals exhibit high stress and neurotic symptoms in captivity (Clubb & Mason, 2003 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). Elephants are now recognized as highly intelligent – being able to recognize themselves in the mirror, this is an indication of self-awareness that previously only humans, apes and dolphins could display (Szabo, 2006 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). Many animals can suffer from physiological or psychological traumas and stress caused by captivity. The Born Free Foundation studied over 100 zoos in US, UK and Europe and found that animals display signs of abnormal behavior due to lack of stimulation and boredom. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51-52).

Orcas in captive settings are affected by separation of family units, living in inadequate sized tanks with chlorinated water and having to perform in shows daily (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 54). Autopsies have revealed diseases and stress as a possible contributing factor in 38 of 74 deaths (Carwadine, 2001; Hoyt, 1992; Smith, 2003; Williams, 2001 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 54).

Research in UK’s aquaria revealed that 83% of visitors did not read the signs at the live exhibit’s from apart from the animals name and 95% did not read the sign at all (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 55). Conservation claims of aquaria are inadequate, as 1.8% of individuals displayed in UK aquaria are threatened (Casamitjana, 2004, 59). The Hum-
The numbers of zoo visitors peaked during the 1950’s Baby Boom, but saw a decline due to environmental consciousness in the 60’s and 70’s. In the 1990’s ecotourism became a trend and it included wildlife tourism. (Frost, 2011, 227). Shackley (1996) argued in Wildlife Tourism, that there was a growing demand for wildlife tourism from high earning Westerners (in Frost, 2011, 227). Zoos were then considered a second best option for people who could not afford traveling to often developing countries to engage in wildlife watching. Shackley (1996) revealed that out of the top ten captive wildlife attractions in the UK, seven had decreasing visitor numbers and 27% thought that zoos should be shut down. (Shackley, 1996 in Frost, 2011, 227-228).

Lack of funds has left zoos in poor conditions, and due to this the Glasgow Zoo was closed down in 2004 after negative media publicity, poor employment engagement and declining visitor numbers (Hall & Brown, 2006, 145).
2.4 Future

In 1999, Swarbrooke discussed the future of zoos and saw that they can’t be seen as a part of sustainable tourism. According to Swarbrooke (1999, in Mason, 2011, 194), zoos couldn’t be considered sustainable because of the way they keep animals. Robinson stated already in 1989 that in zoos, animals are out of their natural context and hence lose content of information and meaning, thus the educational role of zoos is yet again compromised (Robinson, 1989 in Mason, 2011, 194).

For zoos to be accepted in the modern society, they need to concentrate primarily on conservation and education before entertainment. This is because zoos have a poor records in species conservation. (Frost, 2011, 228). According to Hancocks (2001 in Frost, 2011, 228) only five species have been saved from extinction by zoos. According to Baratay & Hardouin-Fugier (2002, 227) out of 48 species conservation plans at zoos, only 19 include reintroducing species back into the wild. Out of the 10,000 zoos worldwide, only 12% (1200) have registered for captive breeding and conservation Only 2% of the world’s threatened species are in included in conservation programmes by zoos and only 16 zoos in total have successfully reintroduced species into the wild. (Shackley, 1996 in Frost, 2011, 228).

Another problem with zoos balancing their multiple roles is the fact that several surveys made worldwide indicate that zoo visitors are mainly there for recreational or entertainment purposes (De Courcey, 1995; Klenosky & Saunders, 2008; Moscardo, 2008; Mullan & Marvin, 1987; Ryan & Saward, 2004; Shackley, 1996; Turley, 2001 in Frost, 2011, 229).

According to Wearing & Jobberns (2011, 54-55) an alternative to zoos could be wildlife release program such as the Species Survival Plan (SSP), the African Lion Environmental Research Trust (ALERT) or such associations.

The Species Survival Plan (SSP) is a cooperative managed by the Association of Zoos and Aquariums (AZA) and its mission is to manage specific, usually threatened or endangered species populations within AZA- accredited zoos and aquariums, certified
related facilities and sustainability partners. The SSP is about developing a population studbook, a breeding and transfer plan that states goals and recommendations to ensure sustainability of healthy, genetically diverse and demographically varied AZA populations. Some examples of animals involved in the SSP are the giant panda, California condor and lowland gorilla. (AZA, 2014).

The African Lion Environmental Research Trust (ALERT) was created because the number of the African Lion population has dropped from 200,000 to 32,000 in just 40 years. ALERT works together with communities and policy makers, conservation managers, researchers and leaders to come up with solutions that create motivation to conserve lions within these stakeholder groups. ALERT has successfully operated pilot programmes in Zimbabwe and Zambia; other countries have expressed interest in taking part in conserving the species. (Lion Alert, 2014).
3 Ethics of zoo business

There is a trend of presenting captive animals as education and entertainment whilst sanitizing the context of wildlife. Visitors of captive animal settings wishing to be in closer contact with animals, whilst wanting them to live in a more natural setting and with deepened concern for the survival and welfare of those animals. A question of welfare rises from these issues that involves the animals, the humans and the management trying to balance the ethical welfare of both. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 135).

The following chapter will discuss the ethics of zoo business. It will deal with the ethics of human-animal relationships, nature- and animal-based attractions, zoo management and briefly present an ethical framework for animal-based attractions. This chapter focuses on emphasizing the ethical perspective of zoo management.

3.1 Ethics of human-animal relationships

This chapter presents ethics of human-animal relationships, because it tells reveals the history of our relationship with animals. This also gives a basis for discussing the ethics of nature- and animal-based attractions.

According to Beardsworth & Bryman the impact of domesticated animals on human societies and economic process play an important role as food items, companions, providers of work power, experimental subjects and sources of entertainment. However, relationships with wild animals that are not directly in symbiotic alliance with mankind are problematical. Beardsworth & Bryman state that wild animals for urban individuals represent ‘otherness’. It means that they are both ‘outside’ human society and ‘inside’ human culture because humans recognize and categorize them. For urban individuals, experiences with wild animals are rare or at least trivial. (Beardsworth & Bryman, 2001, 84).

The study of relations between animals and people is growing important. This may be due to the fact that animals are a part of people’s lives as companion animals. (Shani & Pizam, 2011, 35). Some studies even suggest a link between caring for animals and car-
There is also growing concern for the welfare of animals in scientific and industrial uses but also in entertainment and transportation purposes. To succeed in conservation and preservation of wildlife, the study of people’s attitudes towards animals is also necessary. (Shani & Pizam, 2011, 35). Professionals in the field of wildlife have difficulties in making policy and management decisions when being unaware of what the public thinks is acceptable (Peyton & Langenau, 1985 in Shani & Pizam, 2011, 35).

Shani & Pizam (2008, 681-682, Table 1) presented an ethical framework for animal based attractions with the aim to discuss animal right’s issues in the hospitality and tourism industry and to give ethical guidelines for operations that use animals.

Table 1: Ethical framework for animal-based attractions

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<th>Ethical approach</th>
<th>Guiding principle</th>
<th>Implications for society</th>
<th>Implications for the hospitality and tourism industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental ethics</strong></td>
<td>Acceptable to use animals for any purpose as long as it doesn't harm the species or ecosystem as a whole</td>
<td>Restrictions on hunting of endangered species. Conservation, recovering and breeding programmes</td>
<td>Tourist attractions such as rodeos, bull-fighting and circuses not considered unethical. Encouraging the keeping and breeding of animals in zoos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Animal Welfare</strong></td>
<td>Acceptable to use animals for most human purposes as long as there is an attempt to maximize their welfare and minimize suffering</td>
<td>Growing awareness and empathy towards animal suffering, improvements in animal farming and certain regulations to improve standards of animal welfare in laboratories</td>
<td>Demonstrations against cruel forms of animal attractions. Transformation towards a more natural presentation, banning methods that cause pain, discomfort and suffering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Animal Rights</strong></td>
<td>&quot;All animals are equal&quot; - all animals should be liberated from pain and suffering, regardless of human interests</td>
<td>Establishment of radical animal rights organizations (e.g. PETA), growing appeal of vegetarian-ism/veganism, boycotting products that use animal testing</td>
<td>Viewing animals in the wild rather than in captivity, establishing animal-free attractions, banning circuses, rodeos and other animal acts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Shani & Pizam (2008, 681-682, Table 1).
According to the table above, environmental ethics approach predominantly sees that humans are allowed to use animals as long as the ecosystem as a whole is not harmed. Measures in society mean having conservational programs to recover species. Rodeos, cockfights and bullfights are seen as unethical in the hospitality and tourism industry. (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 681-682, Table 1).

According to the animal welfare approach it is okay for humans to use animals for most purposes as long as maximizing welfare and minimizing suffering is in accordance with the purpose. Implications in society of this approach show growing empathy towards animal suffering and having regulations for keeping farm animals and improving standards in laboratories that use animals. Demonstrations against animal cruelty and transitioning towards a more natural presentation of animals is highlighted in the implications in the hospitality and tourism industry. (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 681-682, Table 1).

Animal rights is the third ethical approach which sees all animals as equal – all animals should be liberated from suffering regardless of human interests. Implications in society are the establishing of radical animal rights movements (such as PETA), growing appeal towards veganism and boycotting animal testing. Implications in the hospitality and tourism industry can be seen by moving towards viewing animals in the wild rather than in captivity, banning circuses and rodeos and the like. (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 681-682, Table 1).

According to Orams, there are three philosophies that approach the relationship between humans and animals. The first philosophy is predominant in most Western societies, where humans are viewed as superior to animals. In this Judeo-Christian view, animals are subordinate to humans and thus humans have the right to utilize animals for human benefit. The second philosophy is mostly adopted by animal activists and Eastern religions, in which they see humans and animals as equals and thus should be given rights and powers in human decision making. The third philosophy is adopted by
indigenous cultures where animals are seen as superior and may be worshipped as

Cohen (2009, 5) presents seven categories that explain human-animal interaction in the
field of tourism. The list can be found in the attachments (attachment 3). A few of the
categories are directly linked with zoos and they are presented below.

- Animals are used as wild creatures for discovery: In this setting, animals are pre-
sented in natural or semi-natural environments with little contact to humans. A
  sense of the ‘wild’ is relevant in this category.
- Animals are used as objects for exhibition, with the direct example of zoos. An-
  imals are presented in strict, controlled environments.
- Animals are used as sources of education, training or science. Visitor education
  initiatives are included in this category. Whilst zoos claim to portray a scientific
  and educational dimension, the extent of the efficiency of education in zoos
  remains open to debate. (Cohen, 2009, 5).

Animals are unable to reveal their thoughts to us and we have the inability to fully un-
derstand and interpret animal behaviour, thus we impose our own interpretations of
their world. This means animals are not equally considerer, despite their intelligence or
uniqueness: it all boils down to what the animal means to us, or does for us. (Fennell,
2012, 9).

Animal ethics is a new field of study that can guide the future for the tourism industry
(Fennell, 2012, 11). Collins et al. (2008, 752 in Fennell, 2012, 11) describe it as a study
that ‘considers the acceptability of the use of animals in different contexts’. It includes
the principles of moral responsibility that humans have towards animals (Hästein et al.,

3.2 Ethics of nature- and animal-based attractions

The previous chapter presented elements of human-animal interactions which gives
reason to discuss ethics of nature-based attractions and ecotourism due to their rele-
vance to the ethics of zoo business.
Zoos as attractions can be considered to be closely linked to nature-based attractions due to their ‘wild’ aspect. As previously stated, zoos include zoological gardens, biological parks, safari parks, public aquariums, bird parks, reptile parks and insectariums (WAZA, 2005).

The quest for profit from nature-based activities often leaves the industry with a lack of ethics towards nature and animals. The economic incentive is often more highly regarded as the intangible value of nature. This results in lack of development or inappropriate use of natural resources, thus making the resources unable to meet customer expectations. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 47).

When speaking of management issues of tourism and recreation that involves animals, there are two management issues. The first issue is the attitudes and responsibility towards the role of animals in captivity. The second issue is the ethics of ecological relationship between humans, animals and the environment. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 140).

Conservation ethics sees that the environment should be conserved for future generations. The ethics of the environment sees that the environment should be given the same respect and moral considerations afforded to humans. The anthropocentric ethics views that humans are the only ones worthy of moral considerations. The anthropocentric view seems to dominate the tourism industry, where animal rights are not fully considered. (Holden, 2003 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49).

Pine & Gilmore (1999: 24, 44, 60) debate that the use of animals for human recreation is a part of the ‘experience economy’ as they can provide education, entertainment and emotional enrichment.

Breeding within a limited gene pool can conclude in deformed individuals is a management issue species conservation programmes struggle with (Hall & Brown, 2006, 145). Clough & Kew (1993 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145) identify an issue in conservation programme management that is dealing with diseases that spread in captive breed-
ing settings and may damage the population living in the wild after reintroducing individuals from captive settings into their natural habitats.

Animals are taken out of context in zoos (Turley, 1999 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145) and thus they lose their meaning and value. This may be due to zoos being poorly financed and having low political value, thus becoming a cycle of not having enough funds to develop and innovate. The educational role of zoos thus remains vague. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 145).

The table below presents arguments in favor of and against animal-based attractions.

Table 2: Arguments in favor of and against animal-based attractions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In favor of animal-based attractions</th>
<th>Against animal-based attractions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Animal-based attractions play important role in entertainment, especially for children</td>
<td>The dignity and welfare of animals in captivity are severely damaged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People can see rare animals, which they would otherwise not see</td>
<td>Modern means such as nature films, tv series and magazines provide reasonable substitute for animal-based attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitors can enrich learning experiences by witnessing animal behaviour</td>
<td>Visitors get a twisted, false conception of wildlife and the animals' natural behaviour in animal-based attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research done in animal-based attractions plays important contribution to understanding species</td>
<td>If there were no animal-based attractions, there would not be a need to improve their life. Regarding wildlife, the best policy is to &quot;let them be&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many endangered species would be extinct without conservation programs by animal-based attractions</td>
<td>Conservation doesn't justify damage caused to individual animals. Captive animals don't preserve their natural characteristics, which makes conservation less meaningful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass tourists see animals in controlled environment, rather than risking themselves and the flora/fauna in the environment</td>
<td>Animals exhibited pay a heavy physiological and psychological price for living in such unnatural and confined environments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The arguments in favor of animal-based attractions state that they play an important role in education and enhancing visitor learning experiences. People would not be able to see wild animals if there were no animal-based attractions, as well as mass tourists can see animals in controlled environments rather than in the wild where they might
put themselves and the environment at risk. Research done in animal-based attractions is important for understanding species: without animal-based attractions many endangered species would be extinct. (Shani & Pizam 2008, 2009, 2010 in Shani, 2012, 141, Table 2).

The arguments against animal-based attractions state that the dignity and welfare of animals is damaged in captivity – they also suffer heavy physiological and psychological damage when living in such unnatural environments. Modern means are a reasonable substitute to animal-based attractions in addition to visitors getting a false conception of wildlife in captive settings. The arguments against animal-based attractions also include the statement that without animal-based attractions there would be no need for improving their life: the best policy regarding wildlife is simply “letting them be” (Shani & Pizam 2008, 2009, 2010 in Shani, 2012, 141, Table 2).

Hall & Brown (1996, 41-57) suggested that very little effort has been done towards regarding the ethical dimensions of using animals in hospitality and tourism. Even in non-consumption oriented tourism, animal rights and animal welfare is for most part ignored. (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 684). According to Shani, there has been limited efforts of exploring the ethical aspects of using animals in entertainment and leisure activities. There is an evident lack in the tourism literature, despite the considerable incorporation of animals in animal-based attractions in the tourism industry. (Shani, 2012, 139).

Animal-based tourist attractions with captive settings have a growing concern for animal welfare as a response to public pressure. Operators in the field need to realize the changing opinion of the public towards a more humane treatment of animals. (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 648). It needs to be recognized public pressure derives from both customers and non-customers: animal rights movements affect public opinion, legislations and the hospitality and tourism industry as whole. Respecting animal rights issues has the possibility for operators to avoid criticism, improve the image of the hospitality and tourism industry and contribute to profitability of a business. Businesses can involve themselves by contributing to animal right campaigns and organizations, sending employees to educational programs to these organizations and by adopting an open,
Shani & Pizam (2008, 687-688, Table 3) presented ethical guidelines for operating of animal-based attractions and it can be found in the attachments (Attachment 2). The table presents three components of animal-based attractions: entertainment, education and animal welfare.

The first component is entertainment and the meaning of the component is to implement responsible ways for visitor entertainment. The guiding principle behind this component is the preference for naturalistic presentation of animals, using webcams and videos to enhance visibility of animals to visitors, maintaining the dignity and privacy of animals presented. The ethical concerns that arise from the entertainment component are the following:

- Should animals be kept in captivity for the sake of entertaining visitors?
- To what degree can tourism sites stretch the animal welfare principle in order to entertain visitors?
- Can the visitors need for good visibility of animals be in line with the needs of the privacy of animals?

(Shani & Pizam, 2008, 687-688, Table 3).

The second component in the presentation of ethical guidelines is education. The meaning of education is to provide educational and learning opportunities for the visitors, and establishing conservation programs. The guiding principle is providing biological information and behavioural characteristics to visitors about the animals, integrating explanations on the importance of animal welfare to visitor activities and launching conservation programs. The ethical concerns that arise are the following:

- Are the educational aspects of animal attractions effective in generating environmental awareness among visitors?
- Do education and conservation programs, even when sincere, justify the keeping of animals in captivity?

(Shani & Pizam, 2008, 687-688, Table 3).
The third component is animal welfare: keeping the welfare and wellbeing of animals presented at the sites. The guiding principle is cooperating with animal and environmental organizations, enabling animals to express normal behaviour and providing them with sufficient space and companions. Providing privacy, preventing suffering and pain and establishing a code of behaviour for staff and visitors are also included in the guiding principle. The ethical concerns that arise are the following:

- What kind of mechanisms can be established to ensure the welfare of animals in tourist attractions?
- To what extent can attractions be trusted to care for animals’ welfare if it clashes with tourists’ expectations?

(Shani & Pizam, 2008, 687-688, Table 3).

3.3 Ethics of zoo management

The previous chapters presented ethics of human-animal relationships and ethics of nature- and animal-based attraction management. This leads to the concise ethics of zoo management itself, of which the roots stem from the previously discussed chapters.

In 1993, Lea (in Hall & Brown, 2006, 10) saw a change of climate new climate of responsibility within the tourism industry with pressure from external players. Non-governmental pressure groups (NGPGs) and Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) began demanding a sense of corporate social responsibility by battling ethical debates (Botterill, 1991; Gonsalves, 1991 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 10). In 1970’s and 1980’s there was a demand for industry guidelines and code of conduct for both tourism companies and tourists (ATIA, 1990; BITS, 1992; D’Amore, 1992, 1993 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 10).

The idea that wild animals in zoos might suffer loss of natural behaviour due to captivity is not new. Visitor dissatisfaction was expressed already in the 1800s and 1900s. In a survey carried out in Mulhouse zoo, France in 1969 stated that 67% of the respondents felt the need for animals to be rehoused before new animals could be brought in. (Bar-
In 1964 Morris (in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145) revealed, that captive animals in zoos suffer from their incarceration and show distress and boredom by displaying abnormal behaviour. The same was stated by Mitchell & Hosey in 2005 (in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145). A problem for the entertainment role of zoos is that exhibition visitors may be disappointed with the normal behaviour which may not go in hand with the conditioning of consumers that animals are perpetually active and engaging. Zoo visitors may be looking for interaction with the captive animals, which often becomes a disappointing factor to the visitor when they don’t catch the attention of the animal that shows ignorance towards viewers. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 145).

Ways to manage the welfare of animals and visitor experience include providing comprehensive information and education material to visitors. Also, creating a code of conduct for visitors and employees to ensure welfare of both visitors and animals is necessary. Using audio visual tools to view animals to avoid bothering and intrusion of peace of animals is an alternative way to view captive animals that would prevent disturbing animals in their habitat. Opening times can also make a difference: zoos could be open for public when animals are naturally more active eg. The Singapore Night Safari, when the weather is cool and animals are active. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 148).

Since 2003 all EU member states have had to fully implement the EU Zoos Directive that protects animal welfare (Hall & Brown, 2006, 148; Council for the European Union, 1999). Many zoos around the world lack any kind of legislation or directive protecting the welfare of captive animals. Welfare NGOs are in a disadvantaged position because of this, as they have no governmental legislation to support their efforts. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 148).

Key directives, standards and codes of conducts in zoo management are presented in chapter 4 of this thesis.
4 Codes of conduct in zoo management

The following chapter presents the current form of management in terms of codes of conduct used in today’s zoos.

To succeed in the business, zoos need to maintain healthy animals (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Zoos often acquire their collections by animals that are trapped in the wild or those that are bred in captivity (Hanson, 2002 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Gathering species from the wild can be complicated and political. The loss of natural habitat, global degradation and over-exploitation of wildlife together with strict governmental policies have caused problems in acquiring and transporting animals from the wild into zoos. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15).

Zoos often exchange animals within themselves or use the collections of their in-house breeding programs to replenish their collection of animals. Sustainable zoo management would require proper genetic management and behavioral studies for in-house breeding programs to be successful and sustainable. Not all zoos have the financial or technical capabilities to fulfill these requirements for good zoo management. As part of good zoo management, breeding programs in zoos should manage the founder population to prevent inbreeding and the health problems often caused by them. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 16). This prevention of genetic uniformity can be done by increasing the founder population (preferably collected from the wild) and moving animals (or their genetic materials, gametes and embryos) to various breeding facilities within the country or around the world (Catibog-Sinha, 2008; Ellis & Seal, 1996 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 16).

4.1 Code of conduct as management tool – case Five Freedoms

The Five Freedoms was created in 1964 by the Animal Welfare Council in the UK in order for the agriculture industry to adopt and execute welfare standards. These freedoms were also included in the 1981 and 2000 UK zoo licensing legislations, which meant that not meeting these freedoms could result in denial or revocations of a zoo license. (Kleinman et al., 2010, 11). Since 1984 zoos in the UK have been regulated by
the Zoo Licensing Act of 1981 which promotes minimal welfare standards (Hall & Brown, 2006, 144).

The Five Freedoms are:

1. Freedom from injury and disease
2. Freedom from hunger, thirst and malnutrition
3. Freedom from thermal or physical stress
4. Freedom to express most ‘normal’ behaviours
5. Freedom from fear

(Kleinman et al. 2010, 11).

The example of Five Freedom shows the link between codes of conduct and zoo management. In the context of this thesis, code of conduct describes the ethical principles according to which zoos today operate. It is the first and foremost a management tool for ensuring a certain standard of conduct, a common set of rules and principles which, in this case, a zoo complies to follow. The following subchapters will describe the current codes of conduct, minimal standards and directives that shape the current state of zoo management.

4.2 World Zoo and Aquarium Conservation Strategy

In 1991 Tudge (in Hall & Brown, 2006, 144-145) debated that a globally cooperative zoo conservation programme could save around 2000 species of land vertebrates. According to Urry (1995 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 144-145) The World Society for the Protection for Animals argued, that only 16 projects conducted by zoo conservation programmes were successful in releasing species back into the wild, and that a remaining 20 species could be considered for further conservation. Species conservation programmes seem to be struggling with several factors, including the reintroduction of species back into the wild has been unsuccessful due to damage of species natural habitats (Hall & Brown, 2006, 145).

The WAZA (World Association of Zoos and Aquaria) is a global network of zoo operators and authorities that promotes conservation, research and education, which has
formulated the World Zoo and Aquariums Conservation Strategy (WZACS) (WAZA, 2005, 7). One of the visions of the WZACS 2005 is for members to follow ethical principles and to maintain high standards of animal welfare. This is done to sustain healthy animal populations for conservation purposes, whilst presenting a clear conservation message to the public. (WAZA, 2005, 59). According to WAZA (2015), zoos have the biggest potential network for worldwide species conservation. Conservation of species can be seen through a broader context of sustainability that comprises principles of biodiversity conservation, precautionary principle, public education and awareness and community involvement and participation (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 13). The WZACS is presented later in this chapter.

In 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development and UN Millennium Development Goals put forth a set of challenges that WZACS was a response to. The strategy states that zoos are not only for entertainment, but for promoting conservation of wildlife, particularly endangered or threatened species, both in captivity and in the wild. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15).

According to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD, Article 9) ex situ conservation serves as complimentary to in situ conservation. In situ conservation includes conservation of species in their natural habitat through wildlife protection and habitat management and restoration. Ex situ conservation includes establishing back-up populations of endangered species through captive breeding, which is necessary only when their natural habitats are degraded and/or the species themselves are seriously over-exploited. When natural habitat conditions return to normal, reintroduction of populations bred in captivity can be done. The complementarity between in situ and ex situ conservation can be achieved through improved cooperation among zoos, conservation organizations and governmental bodies. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 16-17).

The World Zoo and Aquarium Conservation Strategy (WZACS) has nine chapters that reveal specific strategies related to the field of zoo management. The World Association of Zoos and Aquariums (WAZA) was formerly known as the International Union of the Directors of Zoological Gardens. They produced their first strategy of
conservation in 1993 with a clear vision of what the role of zoos and aquariums in conservation was going to be for the next decade. It was ground-breaking, since it was the first time the zoo and aquarium community attempted such things. The first strategy was created through international collaboration by professionals of the field and it was translated into many languages: since 1993 it has been the founding principle for conservation in zoos and aquariums. The WZACS 2005 is a product of preparation from the 2002 10th anniversary meeting where a developed strategy was discussed together with yet again, many professionals of the field. The WZACS 2005 is a strategy for all zoos and aquariums, not just the members of WAZA. (WAZA, 2005, 5-6).

The WZACS 2005 has nine chapters, these being Integrating Conservation, Conservation of Wild Populations, Science and Research, Population Management, Education and Training, Communication: Marketing and Public Relations, Partnerships and Politics, Sustainability, Ethics and Animal Welfare (WAZA, 2005, 3). A few of the following chapters are presented below.

The first chapter Integrating Conservation defines in what ways zoos and aquariums need to be directly involved with conservation programmes in the wild and how their work needs to come across in their own organizational activities both internally and externally. Internal activities relate to the issues of how a zoo or aquarium is managed in everyday life, where as external activities refer to how conservation is conducted outside the zoo or aquarium premises. The first chapter is about collaboration, coordination and communication: internal and external activities as well as basic strategies are discussed, listed and suggested in this chapter. (WAZA, 2005, 11). An example from the chapter reveals the relation between scientific research and conservation. The purpose of collaboration, coordination and communication is to support scientific research both in zoos and in the wild. This research should contribute directly to conservation of nature with preference on protecting natural habitats and declining number of species. (WAZA, 2005, 13).

Conserving of Wild Populations is the second chapter in the strategy. This chapter presents a vision of zoos and aquariums being a driving force of worldwide
conservation, and how these objectives can be met. This chapter involves regional, national and local action plans for biodiversity and species recovery programs. (WAZA, 2005, 14). This chapter states that zoos and aquariums can conserve wild populations directly through a number of activities: keeping appropriate breeding in collection, executing reintroduction and translocation programmes, and being conscious on animal behaviour, diet and welfare standards (WAZA, 2005, 19).

The seventh chapter is about Partnership and Politics. This chapter distinguishes the nature of zoos and aquariums as being vital in the global cooperation of achieving conservation goals. As zoos and aquariums represent a wide range of legal and environmental ethics and biological diversity, it is of high importance for them to carry out conservation in cooperation with other related institutions: protected areas, governmental departments, wildlife and environmental agencies, animal welfare organizations, conservation organizations and academic, professional, cultural commercial and communal organizations. This can be done by supporting exchanging training and materials and involving local zoos and aquariums in conservation projects and outreach programmes in the community. WAZA is an example of a key player in conservation that links several organizations together. (WAZA, 2005, 48). This chapter recommends for example that national and regional associations should persuade their respective governments to be involved in the zoo community. This can be done governments improving and creating adequate zoo and aquarium legislation that will ensure the success of conservation purposes. (WAZA, 2005, 54).

Chapter nine is about Ethics and Animal Welfare. This chapter emphasizes that the vision is to work ethically and to maintain the highest standard of animal welfare. When dealing with surplus animals, rehabilitation or transfer to other premises or semi-reserves is recommended: only as last resort is a painless, quick euthanization considered. Providing animals with suitable environments by designing enclosures should be done in regards to evidence-based assessment. (WAZA, 2005, 59).

### 4.3 EAZA Code of Ethics and Minimal Standards

The European Association of Zoos and Aquaria (EAZA) is a professional zoo and aquarium association that has 345 member institutions in 41 countries. The EAZA was
established in 1992 with a mission to promote education, research and conservation in zoos. EAZA member institutions follow standards of high quality care and breeding and they promote EU citizens to learn about contributing to global biodiversity conservation goals. Approximately 140 million people visit EAZA member institutions each year, which is equivalent to 1 in 5 European citizens. (EAZA, 2011).

The mission of EAZA is to support co-operation within the European zoo and aquarium community. This is done by aiming to develop professional quality in keeping and presenting animals to the public for educational purposes. The aim is also to contribute to scientific research and conservation on a level of global biodiversity. This can be done by coordinating the community’s efforts in education, conservation, scientific research in co-operation with relevant organisations and through influencing relevant legislation within the EU. (EAZA, 2011).

EAZA Code of Ethics is a document that underlines the code of ethics for the members of EAZA. The code describes zoos as important factors in biodiversity conservation, conservation research and environmental education in local communities. For the members to be able to fulfil their environmental and social responsibilities, a code of ethics was created to maintain common ethical values within EAZA members. (EAZA, 2009).

The EAZA Code of Ethics includes guidelines for animal management and transaction, education, environmental sustainability, biodiversity conservation, research and social responsibility to staff, visitors and the community. The code of ethics obligates all EAZA members to take actions to achieve conservation of biodiversity and sustainable use of Earth’s resources: any action taken in relation to an individual animal must be dealt with the value of biodiversity conservation. All members must act under the World Zoo and Aquarium Conservation Strategy. EAZA members must base all actions in relation to the best interest of wildlife conservation, biodiversity and animal welfare as well as colleagues and the larger society. They must undertake conservation in a wider community that includes wildlife agencies, conservation
organisations, governments and research institutions with the common aim of maintaining global biodiversity and sustainability. (EAZA, 2009).

Actions taken by EAZA members must not threat conservation of species in short or longterm orientation and they must cooperate with governments and other parties to imporve animal welfare. Research must comply with legal frameworks and the Code of Ethics, visitor education programmes must be based on scientific facts and education as well must be factual and not misleading. EAZA members must act upon the highest standards of animal husbandry ethics and ensure the best possible animal care practices. Animals must not be put at risk of physical or mental injury in any circumstances. Visitors, volunteers and staff must not be discriminated and appropriate measures for health and safety must be ensured. EAZA members must ensure that all investments are ethical and comply with the mission of EAZA. Finally, the Code of Ethics concludes that all members must at all times act in accodrance with local, national and international laws and aim at the best possible standards of operation. (EAZA, 2009).

In addition to the Code of Ethics, EAZA gives a 103 point list of standards for accommodation and care of animals in zoos and aquaria. The EAZA Minimal Standards for the Accommodation and Care of Animals in Zoos and Aquaria is a comprehensive list of standards that range from specific animal care topics such as welfare, healt and hygiene to veterinary aspects. It also gives specific guidelines to keeping animals in a safe environment, keeping customers safe in zoos and aquaria and gives detail on post-mortem facilities, transportation and movement of live animals and emergency first-aid. When it comes to animal care, such topics are indicated in the standards: routine observation of the animals, allowing animals to have space, exercise and grouping possibilities with their own species, furnishing enclosures so that they fit the natural behavior and needs of the species and preventing the animals from experiencing stress and harm. (EAZA, 2008).These minimal standards add up to the ethical commitment that EAZA has towards animals in zoos and aquaria but also for the staff and the public.
4.4 EU Council Directive relating to keeping of wild animals in zoos

1999/22/EC of 29 March 1999 relating to keeping of wild animals in zoos: the objective of the council directive is to protect and conserve wild fauna and biodiversity by providing licensing and inspection measures. These are adopted by the Member States in the zoos in the community with the purpose of strengthening conservation of biodiversity as a role of zoos. In this particular directive, zoos are defined to be permanent establishments with wild animals that are exhibited to the public for 7 or more days a year. These do not include pet shops and circuses. (Council for the European Union, 1999).

The directive requires the Member states to implement several items in their zoos. Member States are required to participate in research that benefits conservation of species and to promote public education and awareness related to conservation of species, namely by providing information about the natural habitats of the species. Member States must also keep wild animals in conditions that aim to satisfy biological and conservational requirements. This is done by providing species specific enclosures, maintaining a high standard of animal husbandry and undergoing in preventive and curative veterinary care and nutrition. The directive requires Member States to make sure that the wild animals in captivity are not able to escape as this would pose an ecological threat to indigenous species and could result in intrusion of outside pests. Member states are also required to keep updated records of the zoo’s collection. (Council for the European Union, 1999).

Every zoo within the Member States will have a licence within four year after the entry of the directive into force. License is required for new zoos before they are opened to the public. Zoos are inspected to see if conditions are met and if the license can be granted. If a zoo fails to comply with the conditions, the zoo establishment will be closed from the public by a competent authority. The conditions of the license are monitored through regular inspection. If conditions are not met within 2 years after inspection, a competent authority will withdraw or modify the license or close the zoo partly or completely. The directive states that these requirements have to enter force by 9 April 2002 in Member States. (Council for the European Union, 1999). This directive
guides zoo management within the EU in all of its 28 Member States as of 1 July 2013 with the accession of Croatia (European Union, 2014a). This EU directive impacts the zoos of the 28 European Union Member States.
5 Summary of results

This thesis is a desk research with the objective of clarifying ethics and code of conduct in present day zoo management. There are three sub-questions that I wish to deliver:

- What is the nature of zoos?
- What are the ethics behind zoo business?
- What are the current codes of conduct in zoo management?

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 deals with the current nature of zoos, ethical values behind the business and the codes of conduct that relate to zoo management. In chapter 5, the results are stated. In chapter 6, discussion of the results are presented. Suggestions for future research, evaluating the validity and reliability of the thesis and the author’s professional learning are also discussed in chapter 6.

5.1 What is the nature of zoos?

The first chapter, “Nature of zoos” creates an understanding by describing the nature of zoos. This chapter deals with aspects relating to what the different roles of zoos are, how is animal welfare related to the nature of zoos and what is the criticism towards zoos about. This chapter also presents possible issues of the future of zoos as well as a picture presenting the largest zoos in the world. The first chapter aims to present how zoos are actually managed today. To answer my first subquestion, “what is the nature of zoos?” I will discuss issues that arise from my research in the following paragraphs.

This first chapter presents that there are around 10,000-12,000 zoos in the world and they include zoological gardens, biological parks, safari parks, public aquariums, bird parks, reptile parks and insectariums out of which there are only around 1000 public or private owned zoos, with around 600 million visitors annually, that are recognized for their good animal care and involvement in species conservation (WAZA, 2005 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 13). Visiting captive animal sites has become the most central venue for observing and interacting with wildlife (Turley, 2001 in Shani & Pizam, 2011, 33).
Large animals are often flagships of tourist attractions mainly due to habitat destruction and danger of extinction (Mercer, 2013, 138). Visitors tend to sympathize endangered large animals, the flagships for conservation campaigns and fundraisers (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). However, out of the 10,000 zoos worldwide, only 12% (1200) have registered for captive breeding and conservation. Only 2% of the world’s threatened species are included in conservation programmes by zoos and only 16 zoos in total have successfully reintroduced species into the wild. (Shackley, 1996 in Frost, 2011, 228). According to Baratay & Hardouin, Fugier, (2002, 227) out of 48 species conservation plans at zoos, only 19 include reintroducing species back into the wild.

The chapter also states, that zoo enclosures can’t offer the same level of stimuli and activity to the animals in captivity as they would have in the wild. The size, intelligence and activity level of some animals gives reason why animals are not suited for captivity. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). Tigers can roam from 16-32km/day in solitude and no zoo can replicate this (Moss, 1961 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). The Born Free Foundation studied over 100 zoos in US, UK and Europe and found that animals display signs of abnormal behavior due to lack of stimulation and boredom (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 52).

According to Wearing & Jobberns (2011, 54-55) an alternative to zoos could be wildlife release program such as the Species Survival Plan (SSP), the African Lion Environmental Research Trust (ALERT) or such associations.

5.2 What are the ethics behind zoo business?

Chapter 1 concentrates on describing the nature of zoos. What about ethics behind zoos? Chapter 2, “Ethics of zoo business” concentrates on the purely ethical side of wild animals in captivity. This chapter presents what is the ethical relationship between humans and animals, but also what are the ethics behind animal-based attractions and zoo management. Chapter 2 opens up the ethical aspects of the zoo business and sheds light, on why zoos may be facing increased criticism in the future.
Hall & Brown (1996 in Shani & Pizam 2008, 680) suggested that very little effort has been done towards regarding the ethical dimensions of using animals in hospitality and tourism. Even in non-consumption oriented tourism, animal rights and animal welfare is for most part ignored (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 684). According to Shani (2012, 139), there has been limited efforts of exploring the ethical aspects of using animals in entertainment and leisure activities.

In chapter 2, Beardsworth & Bryman (2001, 84) argue, that the impact of domesticated animals on human societies and economic process play an important role as food, companions, work power, experiments and entertainment. Today, animals are a part of people’s lives as companion animals. There is also growing concern for the welfare of animals in scientific and industrial uses but also in entertainment and transportation purposes (Shani & Pizam, 2011, 35).

Wearing & Jobberns (2011) note that he quest for profit from nature-based activities often leaves the industry with a lack of ethics towards nature and animals. The economic incentive is often more highly regarded as the intangible value of nature: this results in lack of development or inappropriate use of natural resources, thus making the resources unable to meet customer expectations. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 47). According to Lemelin (2006 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49) there is no evidence showing increased respect or empathy for wildlife nor for educational benefits ecotourism claims to deliver (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 49).

In chapter 2 we learn, that the idea that wild animals in zoos might suffer loss of natural behaviour due to captivity is not new: in 1964 Morris revealed, that captive animals in zoos suffer from their incarceration and show distress and boredom by displaying abnormal behavior (Morris, 1964 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145). The same was stated by Mitchell & Hosey in 2005 (in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145).

Ways to manage the welfare of animals and visitor experience include providing comprehensive information and education material to visitors. Also, creating a code of conduct for visitors and employees to ensure welfare of both visitors and animals is
necessary. Since 2003 all EU member states have had to fully implement the EU Zoos Directive that protects animal welfare. However, many zoos around the world lack any kind of legislation or directive protecting the welfare of captive animals. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 148).

5.3 What are the current codes of conduct in zoo management?

Chapter 2 reveals the ethical aspects behind zoo management. Chapter 3 presents, what is done already, to ensure welfare and safety of animals, staff and visitors alike. Chapter 3 presents what measures have been made so that zoo management would be guided by ethical principles such as codes of conduct.

The findings from the third chapter show, that to succeed in the business, zoos need to maintain healthy animals. Gathering species from the wild can be complicated and political. The loss of natural habitat, global degradation and over-exploitation of wildlife together with strict governmental policies have caused problems in acquiring and transporting animals from the wild into zoos. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Zoos often acquire their collections by animals that are trapped in the wild or those that are bred in captivity (Hanson, 2002 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15).

The findings from chapter 3 present, that since 1984 zoos in the UK have been regulated by the Zoo Licensing Act of 1981 which promotes minimal welfare standards. The World Zoo Organization called for zoos to clarify their conservation efforts and actions in 1993 through the establishment of global minimum standards. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 144).

Chapter 3 describes the current codes of conduct in the field of zoo management. Code of conduct is intended to be a central guide for users in support of day-to-day decision making; it is meant to clarify an organization’s mission, values and principles, linking them with standards of professional conduct (Ethics Resource Center, 2009).

Chapter 3 presents some of the most important codes of conduct, directives and
management tools in the zoo business. The first one is the World Zoo and Aquariums Conservation Strategy (WZACS).

The World Association of Zoos and Aquaria (WAZA) is a global network of zoo operators and authorities that promotes conservation, research and education, which has formulated the World Zoo and Aquariums Conservation Strategy (WZACS) (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 14-15). One of the visions of the WZACS 2005 is for members to follow ethical principles and to maintain high standards of animal welfare in order to sustain healthy animal populations for conservation purposes, whilst presenting a clear conservation message to the public (WAZA, 2005, 59). The strategy states that zoos are not only for entertainment, but for promoting conservation of wildlife, particularly endangered or threatened species, both in captivity and in the wild (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15).

One could say, that the European Association of Zoos and Aquaria (EAZA) is the European equivalent of the WAZA. EAZA is a professional zoo and aquaria association that has 345 member institutions in 41 countries (EAZA, 2011).

The EAZA Code of Ethics describes zoos as important factors in biodiversity conservation, conservation research and environmental education in local communities. For the members to be able to fulfil their environmental and social responsibilities, a code of ethics was created to maintain common ethical values within EAZA members. The EAZA Code of Ethics includes guidelines for animal management and transaction, education, environmental sustainability, biodiversity conservation, research and social responsibility to staff, visitors and the community. (EAZA, 2009).

The EAZA Minimal Standards for the Accommodation and Care of Animals in Zoos and Aquaria is a comprehensive list of standards that range from specific animal care topics such as welfare, health and hygiene to veterinary aspects. It also gives specific guidelines to keeping animals in a safe environment, keeping customers safe in zoos.
and aquaria and gives detail on post-mortem facilities, transportation and movement of live animals and emergency first-aid. (EAZA, 2008).

In addition to these, chapter 3 presents the EU Council Directive relating to keeping of wild animals in zoos. The EU Council Directive was created to protect and conserve wild fauna and biodiversity by providing licensing and inspection measures. These are adopted by the Member States in the zoos in the community with the purpose of strengthening conservation of biodiversity as a role of zoos.

The Five Freedoms was created in 1964 by the Animal Welfare Council in the UK in order for the agriculture industry to adopt and execute welfare standards. The Five Freedoms include freedom from injury and disease, freedom from hunger, thirst and malnutrition, freedom from thermal or physical stress, freedom to express most ‘normal’ behaviours, and freedom from fear. These freedoms were also included in the 1981 and 2000 UK zoo licensing legislations, which meant that not meeting these freedoms could result in denial or revocations of a zoo license. (Kleinman et al., 2010).

These codes of conduct and guidelines are central in the zoo business today in protecting animal welfare, but also welfare and safety of staff and zoo visitors. They also aim at emphasizing species conservation over the entertainment factor of zoos.
6 Discussion of results with socio-cultural indications

This chapter presents the discussion of results with socio-cultural indications of zoos in our society. The discussion is based on the theoretical background and results of the research. It aims to present what the core values behind the zoo culture is and how do people respond to it. In subchapter 6.1, the link between the thesis and concepts of experience and wellness is presented. Suggestions for future research is given in subchapter 6.2. The validity and reliability of this thesis is evaluated in subchapter 6.3. Subchapter 6.4. describes the professional learning process of the author.

This thesis may be useful for further research on the topic when looking for an alternative way of management for zoos. This thesis may be used as a theoretical basis for conducting a research on the effect of the current codes of conduct. It is an instrument for both managers, visitors and researchers of zoos to re-evaluate the current system and look for a more ethical alternative. Further suggestions for future research will be given in chapter 6.1.

In 1999, Swarbrooke (in Mason, 2011, 194) discussed the future of zoos and saw that they can’t be seen as a part of sustainable tourism because of the way they keep animals. Based on research, zoos compromise animal welfare, thus they can be seen as unethical tourism attractions. They can’t replicate the natural habitat of species and this causes harm and stress to wild animals. For example, tigers can roam from 16-32km/day in solitude and no zoo can replicate this (Moss, 1961 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). Gus, a polar bear from Central Park Zoo in New York became famous due to his depression: staff at the zoo had to administer him Prozac – Gus was the first animal in zoo history to receive antidepressants (Newkirk, 1999 in Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 51). The socio-cultural context of zoos is complex. Zoo management is the balancing of two strong players: entertainment (experience) and the welfare of animals (wellness).

Zoos compromise animal welfare because they can’t mimic the conditions of the wild. This is not surprising. For anyone who has been to a zoo and know something about
wild animals can evaluate for themselves, whether a zoo can mimic the conditions of the wild. However, people do not necessarily come to think of this, even if they are animal lovers. Why? In a socio-cultural context the reason may be ignorance. We may not want to acknowledge that our actions may be causing harm to someone or something. It jeopardizes the entertainment role of zoos, it takes away the fun.

Historically speaking, it has been widely accepted to keep wild animals in captivity, and this is also supported by research on the history of zoos. To some, human dominion over wild animals is a trend of the past, but it is still be present in our modern society today. As Orams (2002, 287) stated, there are three philosophies that approach the relationship between humans and animals. The first philosophy is predominant in most Western societies, where humans are viewed as superior to animals. In this Judeo-Christian view, animals are subordinate to humans and thus humans have the right to utilize animals for human benefit. The second philosophy is mostly adopted by animal activists and Eastern religions, in which they see humans and animals as equals and thus should be given rights and powers in human decision making. The third philosophy is adopted by indigenous cultures where animals are seen as superior and may be worshipped as gods. (Orams, 2002, 287). This thesis is conducted in a culture that most resembles the Judeo-Christian view - humans are superior to animals.

As society becomes modernized, cultural rituals, symbols and heroes change. The values of culture are more reluctant to change. The Judeo-Christian view in our society may be hard to surpass. However, zoos have hit their expiration day. They emerged at a time when there wasn’t any other way of interacting with wild animals. With all the knowledge and technology we have today, zoos represent an outdated image of human-animal relationships: dominion and manipulation of our environment.

Luckily, animal-based tourist attractions with captive settings have a growing concern for animal welfare as a response to public pressure (Shani & Pizam, 2008, 684). In a socio-cultural context this means, that people are becoming more aware, perhaps both consciously and unconsciously. Wild animals are not seen as creatures that need to be oppressed for us to admire their beauty anymore. Perhaps we are finally beginning to
embrace the diversity of flora and fauna in a way our modern society has not yet experienced. Western societies could learn something from the Eastern and indigenous cultures.

Politically speaking, animal rights have become an issue that cause emotions in people. The news have begun to show cases of animal rights violations in touristic attractions and in personal life. Some tourism companies respond by cancelling trips to attractions that neglect animal welfare. This may cause people to re-evaluate their ideas about human relations to both domesticated and wild animals, as well as their spending habits. Do ethically conscious consumers purchase experiences that cause harm to animals? They shouldn’t, but humans are complicated. We are full of controversies and ethics may be one of the hardest puzzles to solve.

Zoos continue to face criticism for a good reason. Frost (2011, 1) argues that zoos have conflicting aims in conservation, education and entertainment. In 1981 Huxley (in Mason, 2011, 193) stated, that zoos depend on paying customers, and this means there is a potential conflict between commercial and scientific roles of zoos. This means, that while zoos may wish to be seen as primarily places of species conservation, people visit zoos for a different reason: many studies have shown that people think of zoos as places for entertainment rather than see their value in conservation of species (Hancocks, 2001; Mullan & Marvin, 1987; Ryan & Saward, 2004; Shackley, 1996; Turley, 1999 in Frost, 2011, 11). According to research done in the 1990’s, more than 90% of zoos have poor management in the care of animals in captivity and a poor record of involvement in conservation of wildlife (Kelly, 1997; Van Linge, 1992 in Catabog-Sinha, 2011, 13).

How does it help species conservation when visitors see wild animals being fed? Feeding times are one of the controversial aspects of zoos. The feeding rituals could not be further from the way animals feed in the wild. There was a bear in Korkeasaari Zoo (Finland) who learned to do yoga moves in order to be fed by the caretaker. The author witnessed a feeding time of the orangutans in Dublin Zoo in 2011. The orangutans were fed yoghurt in the same plastic packages that can be found in any su-
permarket. As close relatives to the human species, they knew by heart how to open the tinfoil lid. Conservation?

There are alternatives to zoos that emphasize the conservation role, rather than seek-profit. Examples are wildlife release programs such as the Species Survival Plan (SSP), the African Lion Environmental Research Trust (ALERT) (Wearing & Jobberns (2011, 54-55). The future of zoos should see a rise in conservational programs that release animals back into the wild in the future. This way, many ethical dilemmas would be tackled and animal welfare would no longer be compromised in the current way. The poaching problem in Africa is an entirely different issue to tackle, but it does shed light on the problems of rehabilitating species. Illegal hunting and killing, deforestation and unbearable environmental conditions make it increasingly difficult for some species to be released back into the wild. Deeper governmental and supranational involvement is required to make conservation and rehabilitation possible.

The fact that many zoos market themselves as places of species conservation was a surprise. Zoos have appeared to be places for humans to visit for the sake of entertainment, rather than conservation. However, there are many similar places to zoos that are not compromising animal welfare the way zoos are. Wildlife reserves and parks, that may house a variety of species but are kept in side a fenced/protected area, may have conditions that are entirely natural. The ethical evaluation of these places may also depend entirely on where the reserve is situated and what species it houses – whether the species are native to the land or whether they have been brought in from an entirely different geographical area. Fences may be necessary in order to keep the animals in and the poachers out. This is evident in the case of the poaching problem in Africa. The number of rhinos has dropped drastically in the past decades due to accelerated amount of illegal poaching due the rhino horn business.

It will not be easy to create conservation programs. Breeding within a limited gene pool can conclude in deformed individuals and this is a management issue species conservation programmes struggle with (Hall & Brown, 2006, 145). Clough & Kew (1993 in Hall & Brown, 2006, 145) identify an issue in conservation programme management
that is dealing with diseases that spread in captive breeding settings and may damage the population living in the wild after reintroducing individuals from captive settings into their natural habitats. The management issue of conserving species in captivity and releasing them into the wild seems rather problematical. Zoos will probably not disappear in the coming decades. Hopefully, conservation will be the primary role of zoos and implementing more rehabilitation programs will become central in zoo management. However, with the problems discovered already in the present day, there needs to be a constant strive for developing the concept of species conservation. Hopefully in the near future, no more wild animals will be captured and taken into captivity in zoos. Hopefully people will find more pleasure in seeing animals go back into the wild, than they do of them being taken into captivity for us to glance at.

The quest for profit from nature-based activities often leaves the industry with a lack of ethics towards nature and animals as well, as Wearing & Jobberns (2011) stated. The economic incentive is often more highly regarded as the intangible value of nature. This results in lack of development or inappropriate use of natural resources, thus making the resources unable to meet customer expectations. (Wearing & Jobberns, 2011, 47). This comes to support the discussion about the conflicting roles of zoos and their ability to meet conservational roles.

What about animal ethics then? The results of the research show, that it is a new field of study that can guide the future for the tourism industry (Fennell, 2012, 11). Collins et al. (2008 in Fennell, 2012, 11) describe it as a study that ‘considers the acceptability of the use of animals in different contexts’. It includes the principles of moral responsibility that humans have towards animals (Håstein et al., 2005 in Fennell, 2012, 11). It was surprising how little animal welfare and animal ethics are studied in the academic world. It seems that the most prominent source of “information” is from radical animal rights movements and associations. It is essential in the field of tourism especially, since many tourism products and services still utilize animals. There seems to be a dire need for academic approach into the subject. Suggestions for future research will be discussed in the next chapter.
Professionals in the field of wildlife have difficulties in making policy and management decisions when being unaware of what the public thinks is acceptable (Peyton & Langenau, 1985 in Shani & Pizam, 2011, 35). In a socio-cultural context this portrays, that tourists are becoming more aware and companies in the field may not get away with animal rights neglect so easily. Public pressure has been a key in transforming zoos in the past, but governmental involvement in legislation is necessary for the codes of conduct to have a serious impact. Without governmental organizations, animal welfare may be neglected long into the future.

To succeed in the business, zoos need to maintain healthy animals (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Zoos often acquire their collections by animals that are trapped in the wild or those that are bred in captivity (Hanson, 2002 in Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). Gathering species from the wild can be complicated and political. The loss of natural habitat, global degradation and over-exploitation of wildlife together with strict governmental policies have caused problems in acquiring and transporting animals from the wild into zoos. (Catibog-Sinha, 2011, 15). This means that zoos are already facing issues with maintaining their collection of animals. With stronger support and involvement of governmental organizations, zoos may be forced to transform.

At the moment however, many zoos around the world lack any kind of legislation or directive protecting the welfare of captive animals. Welfare NGOs are in a disadvantaged position because of this, as they have no governmental legislation to support their efforts. (Hall & Brown, 2006, 148). Luckily however, there are several NGOs that have taken a stand for animal welfare. In a socio-cultural context this means, that people have already organized themselves for a cause. The future will hopefully bring the involvement of governmental organizations. The reason for governmental organizations not to get involved may be economical. Either they feel that at the moment, they do not have the funds to get involved in the issue, because zoos are big and prominent parts of national and international tourism attractions. At some point, the tide may turn. It may be, that the economic impact, combined with public pressure, of declining visitor numbers shocks governmental organizations to take action.
There are comprehensive ethical guidelines that relate to all aspects of zoo management. However, research suggests that reality does not meet with the ethics and guiding principles that zoos claim to follow. This is one of the biggest problems zoo management faces today. As stated earlier, many zoos lack legislation and NGOs are in a disadvantaged position. Several zoo associations and regulations determine the welfare of wild animals in zoos. Ethics in zoo management are rather well presented in codes of conduct, guidelines, strategies, directives and agreements that are controlled by national governments and associations. Code of conduct is intended to be a central guide for users in support of day-to-day decision making; it is meant to clarify an organization’s mission, values and principles, linking them with standards of professional conduct (Ethics Resource Center, 2009).

The current codes of conduct, of which some were presented in chapter 4, are comprehensive, but they lack specifications. Many of them state the need for protecting animal welfare and minimizing harm, but the suggestions remain on a very vague, uncentralized level. As an example, the EU Council Directive states that Member States must also keep wild animals in conditions that aim to satisfy biological and conservational requirements. This is done by providing species specific enclosures, maintaining a high standard of animal husbandry and undergoing in preventive and curative veterinary care and nutrition. (Council for the European Union, 1999). Another example from the EAZA code of ethics states, that all EAZA members must to take actions to achieve conservation of biodiversity and sustainable use of Earth’s resources: any action taken in relation to an individual animal must be dealt with the value of biodiversity conservation (EAZA, 2009).

The presented codes of conduct have a clear message, but they lack specific information. In the present situation, they will remain, stacks of paper with ethical guidelines, that no one regulates or inspects further. According to the results of my research, these codes of conduct mean well. They may be significant when it comes to marketing the establishment to the public, than it does with actual zoo management operations performed for the sake of ensuring animal welfare or conservation of species.
In summary, animal welfare is often neglected in zoos, since enclosures can hardly mimic the natural habitat of species. Neglecting animal welfare has caused the public and NGOs to raise their voice and demand ethical treatment of animals, both domesticated and wild. Whilst ethical treatment may be transcribed in codes of conduct, they lack significance in reality. That is why the involvement of governmental organizations is necessary for zoos to transform for the better. There are existing programs that do not risk animal welfare in permanent ways as many zoos today do. These programs should concentrate on conservation of species and rehabilitation back into the wild. If anything, zoos need to evolve or become extinct.

### 6.1 Experience and wellness in zoo management

This thesis can be linked to the concepts of experience and wellness management. Figure 1. Experience and wellness in zoo management shows the relation of experience and wellness management shows the relation of experience and wellness in zoo management.

![Experience and wellness in zoo management](image.png)

**Experience**

(zoo visitor experience)

- Welfare of animals
- Welfare of visitors
- Welfare of staff

**Wellness**

Figure 1. Experience and wellness in zoo management

The experience is made out of the zoo visitor experience. It is the outcome of decisions made in zoo management: which animals to display, in what settings and how to manage their welfare are all questions that zoo managers have to make. The zoo visitor experience is a multi-sensory dimension, that is affected what the visitor
sees, hears and touches. It is shaped by ethical questions such as: how far can zoo managers stretch to meet visitor expectations without compromising animal welfare?

The wellness aspect presented in this thesis is more complex. This thesis concentrates on the ethical aspect of animal welfare and codes of conduct that aim to protect them. The wellness of animals is something that both visitors and staff can sense. Although the welfare of animals is a big part of the wellness aspects, but the wellness of humans is also linked. If visitors realize that the welfare of animals is neglected, the zoo visitor experience may be fractured. The wellness aspect of visitors may be lost, if animals are acting abnormally, aggressively towards staff, or if their state of health is clearly below normal. The wellness of the staff is also shaped by their training and knowledge on wild animals. Staff needs to be aware of how to behave with different animals in order to avoid unnecessary risks. Opposition towards zoos is a direct outcome of the lack of the wellness aspect of both animals and humans in zoos. This thesis gives a humanistic approach towards the questionable or unethical way animals in zoos are managed and suggests ways for zoos to develop.

Together, the welfare of animals, staff and visitors make up for the wellness aspect of humans. They are in tight relation with the welfare and wellness of animals. Altogether they create the experience and wellness aspects of zoo management.

6.2 Suggestions for future research

There is limited research on the topic of zoos, especially studies published on zoos and tourism (Mason, 2000 in Frost, 2011, 7). Several suggestions will be presented with a common cause: to make zoos attractions that concentrate on species conservation and rehabilitation.

Zoos in their current form do not fit the society and values of today. With all the information we have and all the possibilities of educating ourselves about wildlife, zoos of today seem like an ancient form of human dominion over wild animals. This thesis concentrated on what are the ethics and codes of conduct in zoo management. Further research should be made on how to construct a solid action programme that would
ensure an ethical approach to zoo management that can be measured as concrete actions.

Figure 2. The transition of zoo management towards conservation and rehabilitation presents how the results were analysed. The past/present (marked in blue) is a chronological presentation of what has happened and what the situation is today. The future (marked in green) is what will hopefully happen in the future, based on the research and discussing the results. To reach the aspects of the future, as described in the graph, suggestions for future research will now be discussed.

The present form of zoo management has caused the public to react and demand ethical treatment for animals in captivity. Zoos have been forced to develop themselves, join associations that give guidelines – codes of conduct. This is all done to ensure visitor numbers do not drop and that zoos will not become targets of boycott. Many zoos belong to associations that have created codes of conduct that deal with ethical issues and give guidance to zoo managers. According to this research, these actions remain on an ideological level in zoos and aquariums: all talk but no action. As shown in the graph above, the future should include the involvement of governmental organizations. This would mean passing stricter legislation on zoo management, having regular evaluations and inspections. Legislation should emphasis conservation of species and reha-
bilitation programmes. The zoo inspection system could follow what the restaurant business in Finland follows: staff need to have certain education and training for them to be allowed to work in the kitchen. Governmental organizations inspect restaurants regularly to find out the standard of hygiene. Based on the inspections, restaurants that do not meet the given standards are given warnings, fined, closed down. A similar system would be beneficial in zoos. This would result in zoos transforming into establishments of species conservation and rehabilitation programs.

Zoos should have a clear role. Zoo managers should ask themselves: what do we claim to deliver and do we succeed in doing so? The role should be primarily conservation of species and rehabilitation. This is because research has shown that for zoos to be accepted in the modern society, they need to concentrate primarily on conservation and education before entertainment (Frost, 2011, 228).

Research should be done on what zoos claim to deliver in terms of species conservation and what the actual results are. Research has shown, that zoos have done poorly with species conservation: according to Hancocks (2001 in Frost, 2011, 228) only five species have been saved from extinction by zoos. According to Baratay & Hardouin, Fugier, 2002, 227) out of 48 species conservation plans at zoos, only 19 include reintroducing species back into the wild. Out of the 10,000 zoos worldwide, only 12% (1200) have registered for captive breeding and conservation (Shackley, 1996 in Frost, 2011, 228). Only 2% of the world’s threatened species are included in conservation programmes by zoos and only 16 zoos in total have successfully reintroduced species into the wild (Shackley, 1996 in Frost, 2011, 228). This shows, that while zoos may claim to have significant input in conservation of species, they do not deliver what they promise. Therefore to shed light on the controversy between what zoos claim to do and what they actually deliver, is extremely important. This way zoos can develop towards becoming key players in species conservation with programmes that rehabilitate zoo animals back into the wild.

To begin the journey towards zoos becoming more concentrated on conservation and rehabilitation rather than entertainment, it is beneficial for research to be done by zoo
tourism professionals. This is because zoos are tourism attractions, for both national and international visitors. The roles of zoos need to be clearly researched by zoo tourism experts, so that later, when passing legislation, ethical issues would have been discussed and evaluated on a professional level. A number of comprehensive studies on zoos have been conducted by Hancocks (2001), Mullan & Marvin (1987) but the authors are not tourism experts: Hancocks was a zoo designer, Mullan and Marvin were sociologists thus the commentary on tourism related to zoos is limited (in Frost (2011, 7). According to Frost (2011, 7-8) there is a need for research from a tourism perspective that would allow debate about the conflicting role of zoos. Research done by professionals in zoo tourism would enable the discussion of ethical issues to become central. Research would ideally conclude suggestions on how to develop zoo management into parts of sustainable tourism for future generations: becoming places of conservation and rehabilitation. It seems that the most prominent source of “information” about animal welfare in captivity is from radical animal rights movements and associations (eg. PETA).

For zoos to become establishments of conservation and rehabilitation, research should be done more on visitor experiences in zoos – this would give valid and up-to-date information about how visitors really behave in zoos and what they see as the primary role of zoos. As Shani & Pizam (2001, 35) stated, for zoos to succeed in conservation and preservation of wildlife, the study of people’s attitudes towards animals is necessary. The aim would be to create zoos that do not have conflicting roles but rather can successfully deliver their message to the visitors: conservation and rehabilitation. As the tourism sector is constantly under rigid competition and striving to keep visitor numbers up, the visitor experience is an important aspect to research. This would help in construction, designing and management altogether, since zoos could be modified to meet their aims of species conservation and raising awareness, for example, by creating a message that visitors would grasp when visiting zoos.

Research shows that zoos are primarily for people (Mullan & Marvin, 1987 & Rothfels, 2002 in Frost, 2011, 11). Many studies have shown that people think of zoos as places for entertainment rather than see their value in conservation of species (Hancocks,
2001; Mullan & Marvin, 1987; Ryan & Saward, 2004; Shackley, 1996; Turley, 1999 in Frost, 2011, 11). This is evidence that supports the idea, that visitor experiences should be researched in order to understand the current situation of how the message or role of zoos is conveyed to the visitor. Researching the visitor experience would give vital information about how to convey the message of conservation and rehabilitation to the public. Ideally, the public would see zoos in a new light: as establishments of conservation and rehabilitation, thus accepting them as part of the society. The entertainment factor of zoos would become more meaningful, as zoo management would become transparent, and the public could follow the progress of species conservation and rehabilitation programs.

Also, further research should be done on how current policies, codes of conduct and legislation affect zoo management. There are several international zoo associations that have created common guidelines for zoos to operate under. However, there is a lack of research on how these codes of conduct are put into practice and to what extent they influence day-to-day decision-making. It seems, that while these policies and regulations seem really significant and comprehensive on paper, these written words are not backed up with actions taken. Many of the policies and regulations provide a common ground for zoos to operate according to, but sometimes there is no legislation zoo management. And if there is, it remains on an ideological level and the effect of it remains vague.

The topic of how current codes of conduct influence zoo management in practise would be ideal for future Haaga-Helia students to research. The research could focus on a certain geographical area, for example the zoos of Finland. Research into the chosen zoos would give information about which codes of conduct are involved in the zoo management of these zoos. This thesis can be utilized as a theoretical basis for further research into the codes of conduct. Further research on the topic of how codes of conduct affect zoo management would challenge zoos to operate on a principle of transparency.
An example from the EU Council Directive relating to keeping of wild animals in zoos: Member States must also keep wild animals in conditions that aim to satisfy biological and conservational requirements: this is done by providing species specific enclosures, maintaining a high standard of animal husbandry and undergoing in preventive and curative veterinary care and nutrition (Council for the European Union, 1999). This statement directs zoo management, but does not give specific information. What are ‘conditions that satisfy biological and conservational requirements’? Is there a party that regulates these requirements and inspects zoos if they have fulfilled the requirements? There are around 1 million living wild animals in zoos around the world (Caticbog-Sinha, 2011, 15). That means that there are hundreds of different species, all with different natural habitats and behavior. Research should be done to evaluate the impact of these policies, codes of conduct and legislation. Further, this information should be used to then find out, what changes to make in legislation and management in order for zoos to be able to fulfill these requirements.

6.3 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are described to be the fundamental cornerstones of scientific research. Validity includes the entire experimental concept of the research. It dictates whether the results met the requirements of scientific research. Validity describes the integrity of your research design. Reliability means that the research must be repeatable - other researchers must be able to perform the same research and generate the same results. This method ensures that the findings are reinforced and that the scientific community will accept the hypothesis. (Shuttleworth, 2014).

One significant factor in evaluating the validity and reliability of my research is the fact that I did not manage to obtain a commissioning party. I requested co-operation from a dozen of different companies, associations and organizations, both domestic and international. I often sent requests repetitively, since many did not reply at all. Out of the few who replied, the reply was a firmly negative. Some explained their decision with the topic of my research. For some, it was the fact that it wasn’t exactly related to their field. This I found disappointing, since I mainly contacted parties from the tourism sector and from the animal welfare and protection sector. For some, my topic
was too radical, and they did not want their company to be associated with such a topic. I did not contact radical animal rights movements such as PETA or Animalia. I discussed the matter with my supervisor and she gave me a chance to make the decision myself. I decided that these groups were too radical and that I did not want my thesis to be associated with them. It was a pity I did not manage to receive a commissioning party, but evaluating it now, I think it made my thesis better. By being in sole charge of my work allowed me to make all decisions by myself. As an independent learner I found that working alone with my thesis gave the best outcome.

The validity and reliability of this thesis can be evaluated through a number of other factors as well. One of the factors is the research method. This thesis uses the desk research method, which means collecting and drawing together secondary sources of information. The desk research, also known as secondary research, is the most common method of research nowadays. (Market Research Glossary, DJS Research Ltd., Research Portals Ltd., 2014). This thesis uses the desk research method because of its efficiency of collecting and analyzing data which is based on previous research on the topic. This desk research uses qualitative methods in analyzing gathered information. This method enables information to be gathered from a widespread of sources: books, journals, e-sources, surveys, articles etc. The advantages of the desk research methods are efficiency and time-saving. This method is also low cost, since no commissioning for a new research is required. This method allowed access to several sources in an efficient way. The disadvantages of the desk research method would be finding the relevant/exact information desired can seem difficult in this method. (Market Research Glossary, DJS Research Ltd., Research Portals Ltd., 2014). Patience and perseverance is required to meet objective. A quantitative research would not have enabled the thesis to meet its research questions and objectives as stated previously. The validity and reliability of this thesis depends highly on the research method. The biggest challenge with this method in regards to this thesis, was finding accurate information on the topic and finding sources that are up-to-date. (Market Research Glossary, DJS Research Ltd., Research Portals Ltd., 2014).
I would not have been able to reach my research objective if I had used another research method. I could have conducted a survey in the zoos in Finland, but I believe it would not have given reliable or valid results. There are only a few zoos in Finland and according to my experience and research, the zoos in Finland are of good standard. Using the desk research method allowed me to make my research on an international level. Therefore, I am content with the research method I used.

As mentioned in the chapter above, one of the biggest challenges in this research was finding up-to-date sources. This plays an important role in scaling the level of validity and reliability. To find accurate and current information, I read through a wide spread of literature on the topic of zoo management and found a common trait. Most authors had referred to the same publications repeatedly even if they dated back decades. In the beginning this made me question, whether research in the 1960’s could be valid in the present day. However, as the process went along, I discovered that it was a reoccurring trend. I then decided to use some of the sources that dated back decades. This is because after carefully looking into the sources I realized, that the issues addressed and the content in these aged sources were timeless, or at least they seemed not to change rapidly. I also made a conscious decision to do as the authors of the topic had done, and decided to use some sources that were not from this millennium, but that had relevant content.

These issues were ethical issues that dealt with history of human-animal interactions, the ethical issues that arose from keeping wild animals in captivity and the attitudes towards zoos in general. I realized, that although my thesis is a clarification of the present situation, zoo management had not changed drastically on a global level – there are still zoos that resemble conditions of what the Western societies may deem as conditions of the past: unnatural, cage-like settings and small pastures. From this point of view, I did a clarification of the history of zoo management up until today. Shani & Pizam (2008, 648) noted, that in non-consumption oriented tourism, animal rights and animal welfare is for most part ignored. According to Shani (2012, 139), there has been limited efforts of exploring the ethical aspects of using animals in entertainment and leisure activities and that there is an evident lack in the tourism literature, despite the
considerable incorporation of animals in animal-based attractions in the tourism industry (Shani, 2012, 139). This lead me to the conscious decision of using these older sources as well, as the current authors writing about zoos and the ethics behind the business had done.

In addition to doing what the current authors and researchers had done by referring to rather old sources, I also found that the topic of my thesis required quite some background and history for the research topic to be justified. As it is still a new topic that has not been researched to a great extent, the use of the older sources and research was necessary to indicate, that there is, in fact, a need for the issue to be researched more in the future. The history behind the zoo culture is necessary for the logical flow of the thesis and the proceeding from the nature of zoos to the ethics behind it. To give an example of the use of older sources, in 1996 Shackley (in Frost, 2011, 227) argued, that there was a growing demand for wildlife tourism from high earning Westerners. This comes to show that there was a growing demand for human-animal interactions almost 20 years ago and this may be a reason, why zoos still exist in a form that has not changed radically over the past century.

Another aspect of evaluating the validity and reliability of this research is the field of the authors. A number of comprehensive studies on zoos have been conducted by Hancocks (2001), Mullan & Marvin (1987) but the authors are not tourism experts: Hancock was a zoo designer and Mullan & Marvin were sociologists, thus the commentary on tourism related to zoos is limited. There are only a few studies published on strictly tourism and zoos. (Mason, 2000 in Frost, 2011, 7). The authors of the topic may be professionals in tourism, ethics, biology, sociology, anthropology and genetics. Professionals in tourism and in biology are very much a part from each other in academic knowledge, but they may still research the same zoos, but from different viewpoints. According to Frost (2011, 7-8) there is a need for research from a tourism perspective that would allow debate about the conflicting role of zoos.

This also creates a problem of how to research management issues of zoos. When speaking of management issues of tourism and recreation that involves animals, there
are two management issues: the attitudes and responsibility towards the role of animals in captivity and the ethics of ecological relationship between humans, animals and the environment (Hall & Brown, 2006, 140). This again, gives two very different aspects of researching zoo management.

As stated earlier, there is a lack of research on how these codes of conduct are put into practice and to what extent they influence day-to-day decision-making. Many of the policies and regulations provide a common ground for zoos to operate according to, but in some cases there is legislation on zoo management. The topic of how current codes of conduct influence zoo management in practise would be ideal for future Haaga-Helia students to research. This thesis can be utilized as a theoretical basis for further research into the codes of conduct. Further research on the topic of how codes of conduct affect zoo management would challenge zoos to operate on a principle of transparency.

6.4 Own professional learning

In this chapter, I will describe my own professional learning process from an academic perspective. I have learned a lot about animal welfare in my personal adventures. Below is a story of how my interest towards wild animals and their welfare began.

In the summer of 2011 I worked as a volunteer groom in a privately owned, accredited by the state, wildlife reserve in the Kalahari Desert, Namibia. Kuzikus is an over 30 year old family run business with an area of 10,500 ha, where they have combined tourism, education and research directly with conservation projects with the aim to conserve the ecological integrity in the Kalahari ecosystem (Kuzikus Wildlife Reserve, 2014). Kuzikus’ main target is protecting the black rhino. When I was working at Kuzikus as a groom, we found a dead rhino who had been shot by poachers in the past few days, with her new-born cub by its side. In places like Kuzikus, the focus really is on conservation and not entertainment. Having said that, I have to acknowledge that most places can’t operate non-profit, as was the case for Kuzikus. The owners told me that they could not have functioned all aspects of conservation and education if they did not have paying customers. This, I believe, is one of the problems of zoos. The
quest for profit may be necessary for the premises to be up and running in the first place. The conservational role may be significant ideologically, but reality may mean neglecting animal welfare in order to fulfil the entertainment role.

From an academic point of view, my learning during the thesis process has been immense. I learned the principles of academic research and I learned to implement the desk research method. I used the desk research method to collect information for my literary review, without this method I would not have succeeded in my research. This is because the research on the topic is still scarce and some important findings date back from decades ago. I doubt that I would have managed to conduct a research that was more valid than the one I chose. I have read and studied the relevant topics and authors around the topic of zoo management. These key contributors in the topic are scarce, so it makes it essential for me to have studied the topic in a broad sense. In addition to learning to conduct an academic research I have to admit that there were some restrictions that made my thesis work difficult. I had to acknowledge, that since the literary on the topic of zoo management is not plentiful, I sometimes had to rely on research that was conducted tens of years ago. I chose to do so, because the authors of the topic had referenced these older sources as well. As a student I thought it wise to follow what the professional academics of the field had done.

I learned time management. I had set myself a loose schedule with the thesis. I began tossing ideas around in my head in January 2014 when the thesis seminar course commenced. By the summer of 2014 I had finally finalized outlining my topic and the actual research work began. Most of my summer was spent researching the topic. In September of 2014 I left for my exchange semester and decided to give myself a pause with the thesis work. It proved to be an excellent choice. Coming back to the thesis in January 2015 I saw my thesis in a new, fresh light. From there on, I dug deep into the results of my research and conducted my discussion. This part turned out to be most challenging. By April 2015 my thesis was in such a shape that I was not ashamed of it anymore. To explain the latter statement: for a long time I felt as if I wasn’t making any progress and that I was not coming up with any original ideas for my discussion. Along with the awakening of spring, my thesis also started to blossom. My schedule was
flexible, which made it possible for me to do things in my own pace. I would spend hours walking and running in the woods and thinking about the socio-cultural conclusions I had of my research. Working from home proved to be an excellent way for me to make progress. The safe environment made it possible for me to stay calm and focused.

I learned to better evaluate my use of time and resources needed for a research like this and it is a vital skill needed in all aspects of life: setting smaller deadlines in a process like this. This is beneficial also because when working on a research, making the process into smaller steps helps keep the end goal in mind without being devastated by the work load that is yet to come. I also learned to improve my logical and creative thinking along with writing the discussion for my thesis. I realized that what ‘life long learning’ meant, as my brain was able to make connections within things I had learned in the past and formulate new connections within a socio-cultural context. I learned to be patient and to give myself credit. I learned through this process, that when it comes to research around animal welfare, human-animal interaction and founding ideas of ethics, not much has changed in the past 50 years. At first I felt great stress realizing that the literature on my topic was scarce and old. However, I did not get stuck with this fact and did my best in looking for newer sources of information.

Sometimes you have to manage on your own. I learned the importance of believing in your thesis and being stubborn enough to continue even when you hit a dead end. I had no commissioner for my thesis although I tried to find one several times during the research process. I was turned down by many respective associations who thought my work was valuable, but did not for some reason partake as commissioners. I believe this may be because the topic is not widely discussed, it may not be a topic that all the parties I approached are even willing to be involved. I believe I did a better job working individually although it was a challenge. Looking back, I would do it again. Even if only for the sake of my unyielding love for animals.

Until one has loved an animal, a part of one’s soul remains unawakened.

(France)
7 References


Wien Tourismus. 2015. Schönbrunn Zoo.
Attachments

Attachment 1. Largest zoos in the world

1. Berlin Zoological Garden, Berlin, Germany - 84 acres, 1,500 species, 19,000 animals
2. The Columbus Zoo and Aquarium, Ohio, USA - 369 acres, 791 species, 3,000 animals, non-profit zoo
3. The Toronto Zoo, Toronto, Canada - 710 acres, 491 species, 3,000 animals
4. The Beijing Zoo, Beijing, China - 219 acres, 900 species
5. The Henry Doorly Zoo and Aquarium, Nebraska, USA - 130 acres, 362 species
6. The Moscow Zoo, Moscow, Russia - 53 acres, 927 species, 6,000 animals
7. The National Zoological Gardens of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa - 219 acres, 789 species, 9,000 animals
8. The Bronx Zoo, New York, USA - 265 acres, 550 species, 6,000 animals
10. The San Diego Zoo, California, USA - 100 acres, 650 species, 3,700 animals

(Said, 2013)
## Ethical guidelines for operating of animal-based attractions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Guiding principle</th>
<th>Ethical concerns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Entertainment</strong></td>
<td>Implementing responsible ways for visitor entertain- ment</td>
<td>Preference for naturalistic presentation of animals, avoiding keeping animals in cages. Ensuring good visibility of animals presenting. Using webcams, video and movies to supply better view of animals to visitors while minimizing interference with natural behaviours. Keeping animals occupied during visitor times, eg. feeding. Committing to maintain dignity and privacy of animals presented intact.</td>
<td>Should animals be kept in captivity to entertain visitors? To what degree can tourism sites stretch the animal welfare principle in order to entertain visitors? Can the visitors’ call for good visibility of animals be in line with the needs of animals for privacy?</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>Providing educational and learning opportunities for the visitors, and establishing conservation programs</td>
<td>Providing information on the animals presented, including biological and behavioural characteristics. Integrating explanations on the importance of animal welfare into the visitor activities. Launching conservation programmes and providing information on them to the visitors.</td>
<td>Are the educational aspects of animal attractions effective in generating environmental awareness among visitors? Do educational and conservation programs, even when sincere, justify the keeping of animals in captivity?</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Animal welfare</strong></td>
<td>Keeping the welfare and the well-being of the animals presented at the sites</td>
<td>Cooperating with animal and environmental organizations. Enabling the presented animals to express normal behaviour, and providing them with sufficient space and with animal companions. Providing private places for the animals. Preventing pain and suffering during the training of animals. Establishing a code of behaviour for visitors and employees.</td>
<td>What kind of mechanisms can be established to ensure the welfare of animals in tourist attractions? To what extent can attractions be trusted to care for animals' welfare if it clashes with tourists’ requirements?</td>
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(Shani & Pizam, 2008, 687-688).
Attachment 3. Categories of human-animal interaction in the field of tourism

1. **Wild creatures for discovery:** Animals in natural/semi-natural environments with little contact. Feelings of danger, wilderness or threat are experienced that tourists are in search of and visitor management must take into account.

2. **Tame creatures for interaction:** The audience is primarily children, and the animals are deemed safe for handling or viewing, and these animals may be familiar to children because of exposure through the media.

3. **Objects for exhibition:** This category includes zoos, where animals are arranged in restricted surroundings, and includes the presentation of animals on geographical or ecological bases.

4. **Targets for shooting and fishing:** Hunting requires a more highly prescribed legal and environmental governance regime, whereas fishing is said to be a more solitary pursuit. Members in these groups have a strong sense of social class identity.

5. **A source of education, training or science:** This includes visitor education initiatives but with tremendous variance. While zoos claim to incorporate a scientific and educational dimension, the extent to which they satisfy these requirements is open to debate.

6. **Mythical or symbolic representation:** Includes images in museums, handicrafts or other tourism goods (e.g., the Loch Ness monster).

7. **Ancillary roles:** Animals may play a minor role at various attractions, and may include visual displays or forms of transportation created in the likeness of an animal.

(Cohen, 2009, 5).