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2 Scientific aptitude better explains poor responses to teaching of evolution  
3 than psychological conflicts

4

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14 It is considered a “myth” that non-acceptance of scientific consensus on emotive  
15 topics is owing to difficulties processing scientific information and is, instead,  
16 owing to belief-associated psychological conflicts, the strongest non-acceptors  
17 being highly educated. Do these results from adults explain variation in response  
18 to school-level teaching? We studied a cohort of UK secondary school students  
19 (ages 14-16) and assessed their acceptance and understanding of evolution. In  
20 addition, to address their aptitude for science we assessed their understanding of  
21 genetics and their teacher-derived assessment of science aptitude. As both  
22 models predict, students with low initial evolution acceptance scores showed  
23 lower increase in evolution understanding. Contra to conventional wisdom, this  
24 effect is better explained by lack of aptitude: before teaching, students with low  
25 acceptance had lower understanding of both evolution and of genetics; the low  
26 acceptance students sat disproportionately in the foundation (rather than higher)  
27 science classes; low acceptance students showed lower increments in genetics  
28 understanding; student gain in evolution understanding correlated positively with  
29 gain in genetics understanding. We find no evidence either for a role for  
30 psychological conflict in determining response to teaching or that strong rejectors  
31 are more commonly higher ability. From qualitative data we hypothesise that  
32 religious students can avoid psychological conflict by adopting a compatibilist  
33 attitude. We conclude that there exist students recalcitrant to the teaching of  
34 science (as currently taught) and that these students are more likely to not accept  
35 the scientific consensus. Optimizing methods to teach the recalcitrant students is  
36 an important avenue for research.

37

38

39

40

41 Why do some people reject the scientific consensus on certain subjects (e.g. vaccines,  
42 evolution and climate change)? Convention holds that strongly held beliefs about a  
43 subject, religiously or politically motivated, prohibit effective understanding<sup>1</sup> of that  
44 subject owing to psychological conflicts. This can be owing to cognitive dissonance<sup>2,3</sup>, a  
45 desire to hold the same beliefs as those with whom we have ties<sup>4</sup>, or avoidance of  
46 damage to perception of self worth<sup>5,6</sup>. When such denial or selective adsorption of the  
47 evidence<sup>7</sup> is commonplace, establishment of an unbiased understanding<sup>4</sup> is likely to be  
48 difficult. Such effects could explain the negative relationship between religion and  
49 scientific literacy<sup>1</sup>. That prior non-empirical world-views (i.e. beliefs) colour the  
50 processing of information that conflicts with that world-view is not, however, unique to  
51 one demographic: US Democrats believing that the surge in Iraq didn't work don't  
52 process well evidence to the contrary, while Republicans don't fairly process climate  
53 change evidence<sup>5</sup>.

54

55 An alternative possibility is that the rejection of scientific consensus reflects a general  
56 inability to process complex arguments and evidence, or a deficit in knowledge<sup>8-11</sup>.  
57 However, at least in adults, the most vehement science-deniers tend to be highly  
58 educated<sup>12-14</sup>. Indeed, the notion that those who don't accept the scientific understanding  
59 are those who struggle to understand the science, has been described as one of the  
60 "myths<sup>15</sup>" of public understanding of science. However, Pew research, for example,  
61 report that as regards the question of whether humans are the product of evolution, an  
62 increasing proportion of individuals agree with the scientific view as science education  
63 attainment levels increase<sup>16</sup>. This could, however, reflect avoidance of science education  
64 owing to psychological conflicts.

65

66 Understanding of the relative roles of poor understanding and psychological conflicts  
67 comes in large part from studies on adults (and predominantly in the US). Do these  
68 results transfer to the secondary school classroom (in the UK)? In classroom teaching of  
69 science there will be students who are less able to process scientific information as  
70 usually taught<sup>8</sup>. Is this associated with low acceptance as well? Conversely, might prior  
71 beliefs restrict learning outcomes and might this be especially acute for some  
72 academically more able students<sup>12-14</sup>? That one can teach the mechanics of evolution to  
73 students, whether they accept or reject the scientific consensus<sup>17</sup>, suggests that the prior

74 beliefs need not always be a hurdle. N.B. for the distinction between belief and  
75 acceptance<sup>18</sup> see Supplementary note 1.

76

77 Does then aptitude or psychological conflict best predict student responses to teaching  
78 of contentious subjects? We address this issue in the specific context of the teaching of  
79 evolution to a UK-based cohort (number of students=1227, number of classes = 70) of  
80 secondary school children (ages 14-16). The schools were derived from both the state  
81 and private system and comprised a large breadth of social, religious and economic  
82 demographics<sup>19</sup>. Teachers were blinded to the aim of this study. For further details see  
83 Methods and prior paper<sup>19</sup>.

84

85 Evolution as a subject is known to be difficult to teach for multiple reasons<sup>2,8,20-22</sup>. Two  
86 aspects are important in the current context. First, the concepts within evolution are hard  
87 and abstract<sup>8</sup>. Second, some people have a prior non-acceptance of the scientific view of  
88 evolution<sup>2,17</sup>. Non-acceptance includes both those actively rejecting the scientific  
89 consensus and those undecided.

90

91 Both psychological conflict<sup>2,20</sup> and aptitude models predict that a student's improvement  
92 in understanding of evolution through instruction would be predicted by their degree of  
93 acceptance of evolution prior to teaching. The aptitude model proposes that some  
94 students struggle with science, possibly owing to poor logical reasoning skills<sup>23,24</sup>, and so  
95 are confused about evolution, a confusion that results in both poor understanding and  
96 poor acceptance<sup>25-27</sup>. This model thus also predicts that the ability to improve  
97 understanding of a less emotive but related subject will also be predicted by the  
98 acceptance of evolution prior to tuition. By contrast, the psychological conflict model  
99 predicts that a student's prior rejection of the scientific view of evolution should not  
100 predict their ability to understand the less emotive subject.

101

102 "Less emotive" in this context can mean one of two things: either that the subject  
103 matter is uncontentious or that any debate is uncorrelated with the possible belief-based  
104 foundations of the non-acceptance of evolution. Here we employ basic genetics  
105 understanding (DNA, mutation, Mendelism etc.) as that less emotive but related subject.  
106 Fundamental genetics is a good comparator, it being uncontentious, abstract but still a  
107 close intellectual relative of evolution. Further, aspects of genetics considered to be

108 contentious (notably genetic modification) are uncorrelated with political or religious  
109 belief systems<sup>28</sup>. The same is not true for evolution, climate change, stem cell biology or  
110 the big bang, where religious/political stance correlate<sup>28</sup>.

111

112 Here then we ask whether a student's degree of acceptance of evolution, prior to being  
113 taught evolution, predicts their pre- and post- teaching understanding of evolution alone  
114 or genetics as well. We also ask whether teacher-assessed general science ability predicts  
115 pre-teaching acceptance of evolution. If evidence from adults translates to school  
116 children, the conflict model also predicts that amongst the highest ability students there  
117 exists a discrete and larger subpopulation of low acceptors<sup>4,12-14</sup>. We thus ask whether  
118 acceptance levels prior to teaching accord with science ability as classified by teachers,  
119 and whether in higher ability classes we see evidence for an especially large  
120 subpopulation of low acceptors.

121

122 RESULTS

123

#### 124 **Students with low prior acceptance of evolution have lower prior understanding of** 125 **evolution and of genetics**

126 Consistent with both models, students with low prior acceptance of evolution have lower  
127 understanding of evolution prior to formal teaching ( $\rho = 0.22$ ,  $P=9 \times 10^{-15}$ ; Fig 1). The  
128 aptitude model in addition predicts that pre-teaching acceptance will also predict pre-  
129 teaching understanding of genetics. This is indeed the case ( $\rho=0.43$ ,  $P<2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ ).  
130 Similarly, a lower understanding of genetics is correlated with a lower understanding of  
131 evolution ( $\rho=0.20$ ,  $P=3 \times 10^{-12}$ ).

132

#### 133 **Students with low prior acceptance of evolution are more common in foundation** 134 **science classes**

135 The general aptitude model also predicts that the students with low acceptance of  
136 evolution prior to teaching will be those of lower "ability"<sup>4</sup>. Classes were stratified (by  
137 teachers) into those doing foundation level GCSE versus those of higher ability (this  
138 being across all sciences, not just biology). Higher ability students indeed have a higher  
139 acceptance of evolution prior to teaching (Mann Whitney U test,  $P=9 \times 10^{-11}$ ; Fig 2).  
140 Similarly, the higher ability students had higher genetics understanding (Mann Whitney U  
141 test,  $P=1.7 \times 10^{-15}$ ) and evolution understanding (Mann Whitney U test,  $P=0.03$ ), prior to

142 teaching. These results suggest that the students with lower acceptance of evolution may  
143 tend to be lower ability students with lesser understanding of science more generally, of  
144 which evolution understanding is but one component. This contrasts, for example, with  
145 evidence regarding climate change denial in adults<sup>4</sup>.

146

#### 147 **No evidence for a larger subpopulation of rejectors in the higher ability classes**

148 While the above indicates that higher ability students tend to accept evolution more than  
149 foundation students, if some academically more capable people are more likely to adopt  
150 strong anti-science positions (as is the conventional wisdom<sup>4,12-14</sup>), we expect to see  
151 evidence of more strongly divided opinions in the higher ability class. Divided opinions  
152 should be reflected in a tendency to bimodality in the distribution of acceptance scores  
153 and a higher frequency of low acceptors.

154

155 An efficient measure of deviation from unimodality is the dip<sup>29</sup> score (lower dip scores  
156 are more unimodal). As the score is sensitive to sample size, we subsample from the  
157 1055 higher ability students a random 172 students (the size of the foundation  
158 population). The median dip score of 10,000 random subsamples is 0.0407 (95% CI  
159 0.0348-0.0509), identical to the dip score of the foundation class. After teaching, the  
160 unimodality of acceptance scores is also not significantly different (post-teaching median  
161 dip of higher class subsamples = 0.0407, 95% CI 0.0343-0.0494, dip of foundation  
162 class= 0.0349). The higher and foundation classes thus have the same (negligible)  
163 deviation from unimodality.

164

165 The frequency of evolution rejectors is also no different between higher and foundation  
166 classes. The percentage of students with a preteaching acceptance score  $\leq 32$  (the cut-off  
167 for “low” acceptance<sup>30</sup>) are the very similar in the higher and foundation classes (1.04%  
168 in higher ability, 1.16% in the foundation classes: Fisher’s exact test,  $P=0.70$ , odds ratio  
169  $=0.90$ ). The same applies after teaching (1.2% in high ability, 1.16% in foundation class:  
170 Fisher’s exact test,  $P=1$ , odds ratio  $=1.06$ ). We conclude that we find no evidence for a  
171 greater polarization in acceptance, or for a greater frequency of strong evolution  
172 rejectors, when ability is high.

173

#### 174 **Students with low acceptance of evolution before teaching respond poorly to** 175 **evolution teaching**

176 A prediction of both models is that the students with initial lower acceptance of  
177 evolution are less receptive to evolution teaching. The fact that students with low  
178 acceptance also have lower ability and lower understanding prior to teaching introduces a  
179 statistical difficulty, in so much as, owing to a ceiling effect, a student's preteaching score  
180 in evolution understanding by necessity is negatively correlated with their absolute  
181 change in score:  $\rho = -0.53$ ,  $P < 2 \times 10^{-16}$ . We correct the change in understanding of  
182 evolution scores by considering the residuals of the loess regression of change in  
183 understanding of evolution versus preteaching understanding scores (Fig 3). These  
184 residuals scores do not correlate with preteaching understanding of evolution scores  
185 ( $\rho = -0.018$ ,  $P = 0.52$ ) and thus may be considered a normalised measure of response to  
186 evolution teaching. As expected of a discriminating measure, these residuals are higher  
187 for students in the higher ability class (Mann Whitney U test,  $P = 0.013$ ; median higher  
188 ability =  $-0.076$ ; median foundation ability =  $-0.17$ ).

189

190 Employing this normalised measure, we find that low initial acceptance predicts a poorer  
191 response to teaching ( $\rho = 0.17$ ,  $P = 4.6 \times 10^{-9}$ ; Fig 4). Previously we showed that  
192 students taught genetics before evolution respond better than those taught evolution  
193 then genetics<sup>19</sup>. Does a student's initial acceptance level predict responses in both  
194 cohorts? We find that it does and similarly is observed in the higher ability classes and  
195 the foundation classes (Table 1). In a multivariate analysis in which normalized increase  
196 in evolution understanding is predicted by pre-teaching evolution acceptance, teaching  
197 order and ability, we find that all but ability are significant predictors (preteaching  
198 acceptance, estimate =  $0.02$ ,  $P = 5 \times 10^{-7}$ ; order, estimate =  $0.33$ ,  $P = 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$ ; Ability,  
199 estimate =  $0.16$ ,  $P = 0.11$ , adjusted  $R^2 = 0.041$ ).

200

### 201 **The acceptance-gain correlation is robust to class effects**

202 In the above analyses, we are considering all students in all classes *en masse*. Do we find  
203 that controlling for possible class, cohort or teacher effects we still find that pretesting  
204 acceptance levels predict the normalised increment in evolution understanding? We find  
205 that the correlation seen *en masse* is seen also within classes (Supplementary Table 1),  
206 supporting the hypothesis that students with low prior acceptance also have lower  
207 normalized gain in understanding of evolution, even when just compared against their  
208 class mates. In addition, this result indicates that differences in the time interval between  
209 pre- and post- testing do not explain the acceptance-gain correlation.



210

211 **Poor response of low acceptance students is not specific to evolution**

212 **understanding**

213 Is the poor response to teaching of evolution of low acceptance students associated with  
214 a low responsiveness to teaching of science more generally or evolution in particular? To  
215 address this, we ask whether a student's preteaching acceptance of evolution predicts  
216 their response to the teaching of genetics. We consider the residuals of the loess  
217 regression of change in genetics score predicted by initial genetics score (which are not  
218 correlated with preteaching genetic scores:  $\rho = -0.005$ ,  $P = 0.87$ ) and consider these a  
219 normalized response to teaching of genetics. This response to the teaching of genetics is  
220 also predicted by the prior acceptance of evolution ( $\rho = 0.15$ ,  $P = 6.4 \times 10^{-8}$ ; Fig 5). The  
221 effect is seen when controlling for between-class effects (Supplementary Table S2). It is  
222 also seen for students doing genetics first ( $\rho = 0.16$ ,  $P = 4 \times 10^{-6}$ ) and those doing  
223 evolution first ( $\rho = 0.10$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ), for those in the higher ability group ( $\rho = 0.11$ ,  
224  $P = 0.0002$ ) and those in the foundation group ( $\rho = 0.29$ ,  $P = 0.0001$ ). In a multivariate  
225 analysis, ability (estimate 0.75,  $P = 0.012$ ), pre-teaching acceptance (estimate 0.079,  $P = 1 \times$   
226  $10^{-6}$ ) and order (estimate 1.07,  $P = 5.5 \times 10^{-7}$ ) are all significant predictors of the  
227 normalised improvement in genetics understanding. Addition of the normalised change  
228 in evolution understanding shows it too to be a predictor (estimate 0.47,  $P = 4.9 \times 10^{-90}$ ),  
229 with adjusted  $R^2 = 0.075$  (all predictors remain significant).

230

231 Consistent with the recalcitrance of students who don't accept evolution being owing to  
232 them having a general difficulty in learning about science, students who make larger gains  
233 in understanding evolution make larger gains in understanding genetics ( $\rho = 0.2$ ,  $P = 5.3$   
234  $\times 10^{-13}$ ). This is also seen when we consider the correlation on a class-by-class basis  
235 (Supplementary Table 3).

236

237 **No evidence for a role for psychological conflict**

238 Above we have considered an extreme version of the psychological conflict model in  
239 which gain in genetics understanding is predicted to have no correlation with preteaching  
240 acceptance of evolution. A more nuanced model supposes that the relationship between  
241 preteaching evolution acceptance and normalized gain in evolution understanding has a  
242 steeper slope than that between preteaching evolution acceptance and normalized gain in

243 genetics understanding. Only at the limit, if conflict were never an issue, would the latter  
244 slope be zero. A viable normalized metric of Relative Conflict Strength (RCS) can be:

245

246  $RCS = [\text{slope of evolution response} - \text{slope of genetics response}] / \text{evolution response}$

247

248 where, for direct comparability, the slopes are derived from a regression of the data  
249 (normalized genetics improvement, normalized evolution improvement, preteaching  
250 acceptance) expressed in deviation from mean in standard deviation units i.e. Z scores.

251 Strikingly, a unit difference in standard deviation in preteaching acceptance scores

252 translates to an identical (to two significant figures) 0.16 s.d. increment in both

253 normalised genetics and normalised evolution understanding, thus giving RCS of zero.

254 Note that the slope is nonetheless quite shallow.

255

256 Analysis of the correlations supports a similar conclusion. The correlation between  
257 preteaching acceptance and evolution gain is  $\rho = 0.167$ , while for genetics this is 0.154.

258 The difference between these two is not significantly different ( $P=0.73$ , NPMCS). Partial  
259 correlation tests support the same conclusion (Supplementary results 1). Teaching order  
260 also has no effect (Supplementary results 2), arguing against possible cognitive conflicts  
261 being carried over when evolution is taught first.

262

263 These results all suggest that psychological conflict has little to no involvement in the  
264 poor response to evolution teaching in low accepting students and that the aptitude  
265 model is more viable.

266

### 267 **No evidence for teacher non-acceptance or poor understanding**

268 Student experience can also be conditioned on teacher non-acceptance<sup>21</sup> or reluctance to  
269 teach evolution<sup>31</sup>. While above we have controlled for by-class effects, it is helpful also

270 to recognize that in our UK based setting we found no evidence that teacher non-

271 acceptance was a serious issue. We find that 96% of 123 teachers are classified as

272 accepting of evolution, 3% are unsure and 1% would be classified as rejectors. We also

273 find little or no evidence for poor teacher understanding. Most teachers were specialist

274 biology teachers with 72% having a degree in a biology-related subject. Their

275 understanding of evolution and of genetics was fairly uniformly high. Over 65% of

276 teachers answered all questions on evolution correctly and over 70% in genetics. The

277 core concepts of evolution were well understood, with 79% of teachers recognising that  
278 evolution involves genetic changes in time. However, on more nuanced aspects there  
279 was some small degree of confusion. A notable minority (11%) considered that  
280 evolution involves the change from simple to complex organisms and there was  
281 confusion as to when life first appeared on earth.

282

## 283 **DISCUSSION**

284 Here we have considered two models regarding the possible causes of failure to accept  
285 scientific consensus. In the psychological conflict model, prior belief of the lack of  
286 correctness of the scientific explanation preconditions people to being unable to fairly  
287 process information pertinent to that emotive issue. In the alternative model, the prior  
288 non-acceptance is part of a nexus of low aptitude. In contrast to conventional  
289 wisdom<sup>4,12,13,15</sup>, we find evidence strongly supporting the aptitude model and no evidence  
290 to support the conflict model, even in its more nuanced form. Moreover, and again in  
291 contrast to the accepted view<sup>4,12-14</sup>, we find no evidence that strong rejectors are  
292 predominantly of higher educational attainment. Our results thus suggest that it is not a  
293 “myth”<sup>15</sup> that non-acceptance of scientific consensus is connected to knowledge and  
294 aptitude.

295

### 296 **Why don't we see evidence for psychological conflict?**

297 Why might we not be seeing evidence that psychological conflicts condition student  
298 learning? One possibility is that there is no conflict, the other is that conflicts are being  
299 avoided. An absence of conflict could come about if young pre-college students'  
300 attitudes/beliefs are yet to be fully resolved. This could explain why other studies,  
301 employing adults, find that cognitive conflicts, e.g. on climate change denial (e.g. <sup>5</sup>) and  
302 vaccine denial (e.g. <sup>32</sup>), are important. Adults will have had longer to embed their belief  
303 systems into a more coherent framework (e.g. a conspiracy theory view, see<sup>33</sup>, but see  
304 also correction<sup>34</sup> and critique<sup>35</sup>). If the problem is a clash between evidence and an  
305 embedded belief system, then we might expect the more plastic developing belief  
306 systems of young adults to be less of an impediment to learning. Whether this is true for  
307 highly proscribed religious-based assertions about evolution is, however, less clear.  
308 Nonetheless, it may well be true that psychological conflicts explain much vehement  
309 science denial in adults, while at the same time science aptitude plays a deeper role in the  
310 developing brain.

311

312 In this context, an important caveat to our study is that it was performed on UK school  
313 students. The general level of acceptance of evolution is here high. The MATE tool<sup>36</sup>  
314 recommends to classify a person as accepting of evolution if they have a score of 46 or  
315 more. Under this classification, 78% accept prior to teaching, increasing to 85% after  
316 teaching, with only ~1% falling in the “reject” classification, the others being undecideds.  
317 This compares with the general adult population in the US where only 65% of  
318 respondents agree with the statement that humans evolved over time and 31% believe  
319 that humans have existed in their present form since the beginning of time<sup>16</sup>. Assuming  
320 a pressure to believe what an in-group believe<sup>4</sup>, the pressure to accept the scientific  
321 consensus on evolution in the UK school context, even for religious students, is most  
322 likely stronger than in the US school system (or comparable low acceptance countries  
323 e.g. Turkey).

324

325 Might there be some value in the notion that students can avoid psychological conflict?  
326 To provide hypotheses to explain why conflict was not evident we assembled qualitative  
327 data via focus groups (N=76 students). These suggests that conflict may be being  
328 avoided by religious students in particular adopting a compatibilist intellectual stance,  
329 wherein acceptance of both religion and evolution is considered viable (Supplementary  
330 results 3, Supplementary figure 1). This possibility is worth further research, not least  
331 because it suggests simple interventions to help religious students learn about evolution.

332 A further possibility is that our measure of conflict-free academic progression is  
333 misleading. We have presumed that genetics is a suitable non-emotive control subject.  
334 Importantly, genetic modification issues are not more emotive to individuals non-  
335 accepting of evolution for belief based reasons<sup>28</sup>. More particularly, the material taught  
336 and examined under genetics is largely non-emotive. Moreover, any notion that  
337 opposition to GM crops explains why those not accepting of evolution show similar  
338 increments in genetics and evolution understanding, fails to explain why low acceptance  
339 students performed less well than accepting students prior to teaching in both evolution  
340 and genetics knowledge tests and why they were classified by their teachers into  
341 foundation ability sciences classes, where this reflected their performance in all core  
342 sciences.

343 **Limits to generalizability**

344 That our study was UK based, as we suggest, limits the generalizability of our study.  
345 Further, the use of genetics as a comparator limits our ability to generalize the results too  
346 far. Nonetheless, that low general science ability (classified by teachers) predicts poor  
347 response to teaching (Mann Whitney U test, normalized genetics response by ability,  
348  $P=0.0015$ ; normalised evolution response by ability  $P=0.013$ ), suggests that the  
349 foundation ability students are not responding well to science teaching as currently  
350 practiced. It remains to be seen whether preteaching acceptance of evolution predicts a  
351 response to teaching of science subjects that are not biological and to subjects that are  
352 not scientific at all.

### 353 **Implications**

354 What implications does our study have? We have found poor response to teaching of  
355 non-accepting students is better explained by aptitude than by psychological conflicts. Is  
356 there much that can be done for those of lower aptitude? We previously showed that  
357 teaching genetics before evolution is an efficient mechanism to improve evolution  
358 understanding at no cost to genetics understanding, and that the genetics-first approach  
359 was the only ordering that enables an increase in evolution understanding in foundation  
360 classes. Optimization of teaching strategy for different aptitudes (as done in mathematics  
361 education) is worthy of research. Identification of learning styles ((auditory, visual  
362 kinaesthetic *etc.*) of those of low aptitude may well also help. Current evidence suggests  
363 that visual (graph based) presentation of information<sup>5</sup>, rather than textual presentation  
364 may help many, especially visual learners.

365 The results here also suggest that focusing on acceptance *per se* is not helpful, as this may  
366 be more a consequence of the nexus of low scientific aptitude, rather than the cause of  
367 poor learning outcome. This thus reinforces the notion that teachers should teach the  
368 science and not focus on belief systems<sup>17</sup>. This comes with two caveats. First, it might be  
369 that for religious students, conflict may be avoided by encouraging a compatibilist  
370 position, but this remains to be tested. Second, a robust understanding of the difference  
371 between evidence-based and belief-centred assertions of understanding may be crucial  
372 for helping students understand the difference between science and non-science. In this  
373 context emphasis in the classroom on evidence-based acceptance of evolution, rather  
374 than “belief” in evolution may be a subtle but important route<sup>18</sup>.

375

376 **METHODS**

377 Methods for this paper are identical to those we recently reported for our study of  
378 teaching order<sup>19</sup>. Here therefore we provide an overview of these methods and advise  
379 the reader to consult the prior paper and its supplements for fuller detail.

380

381 **Ethical considerations and data protection**

382 Ethical guidelines as prescribed by The British Educational Research Education<sup>37</sup> have  
383 been followed. Particular consideration has been taken when working with school  
384 students, and approaches that place any undue burden on participants have been  
385 avoided. Research through questionnaires and focus groups has taken place within  
386 students' schools and have involved students' usual science teachers so as to minimise  
387 undue intrusion. For consent forms see <sup>19</sup>.

388

389 **Student questionnaire**

390 Quantitative data were collected through a student questionnaire to determine  
391 acceptance of evolution and understanding of genetics and evolution. This was devised  
392 for GCSE-level students (14–16-year-olds) who study evolution and genetics as part of  
393 their science GCSE science course. An advantage of analysis of this age group is that  
394 order effects may well be most easily detected if there has been little or no priming.  
395 While primary school children in the UK are presently expected to be taught basic  
396 genetics and evolution on the national curriculum, this is a recent introduction and the  
397 cohort we analysed did not have this exposure. Indeed, this academic stage was chosen  
398 as it is currently the first, and perhaps only, period at which students have to learn about  
399 evolution. This cohort is not self-selecting in the way that a higher academic stage might  
400 be. For example, students aged from 16–18 and studying for a Biology A-Level  
401 qualification will already have achieved a reasonable standard of academic achievement in  
402 science to enrol in this, and presumably have an interest for biology, or would not have  
403 chosen to study the subject further. Therefore, in choosing to study GCSE-level  
404 students, this research has involved a wide variety of students, in terms of academic  
405 ability and interest in evolution and science.

406

407 For evolution acceptance, evolution understanding and genetics understanding the tests  
408 were performed pretest – prior to learning both genetics and evolution and post-test –

409 immediately after learning of both topics. We consider here only data where a given  
410 student answered all pre and all post tests.

411

412 The questionnaire consists of 25 questions: 13 focus on acceptance of evolution (Section  
413 A), 6 on genetics knowledge (Section B), and 6 on evolution knowledge (Section C).  
414 None of the questions involve extended writing and are all variations of the multiple-  
415 choice question. These types of questions were chosen for their practicalities: to aid  
416 student completion time, to avoid instances of not being able to understand  
417 transcriptions, to allow for quantitative analysis of data, and that this method is  
418 commonly used in similar studies (e.g., <sup>21</sup>).

419

420 At all stages of the questionnaire development, including a pilot study, evolution and  
421 education experts were consulted from the University of Bath along with practising  
422 teachers. The questionnaire was designed with time constraints in mind: teachers  
423 consulted during its development were insistent that the questionnaire must be short  
424 enough so that its completion would not considerably reduce their lesson time. Ten to 15  
425 minutes was considered an appropriate length. The final questionnaires are presented in  
426 our prior paper<sup>19</sup>.

427

428 **Evolution acceptance.** Section A assesses students' opinions towards evolution and  
429 consists of 13 Likert Scale items. These were based largely on the Measure of Acceptance  
430 of the Theory of Evolution (MATE), which was developed to assess biology teachers'  
431 acceptance of evolution<sup>38</sup> and later, undergraduate students' acceptance of evolution <sup>36</sup>.  
432 The original MATE instrument consists of 20 items spread disproportionately across 6  
433 subsections of evolutionary concepts or aspects. It was decided that this was too long for  
434 school students. Appropriate questions were chosen based on their relevance to these  
435 different aspects of evolution and their accessibility to school-aged students. Given that  
436 the MATE has been developed and tested predominately on teachers and undergraduate  
437 students (e.g., <sup>21,39</sup>), some modifications to the language used were needed. Where  
438 necessary, statements were reworded to make them more understandable. Two items  
439 were also based on Lovely and Konderick's study<sup>40</sup> into undergraduate opinions of  
440 evolution. This section was found to be reliable through internal consistency checks  
441 (alpha 0.82, G6 0.83).

442

443 **Acceptance categorisation.** Scores for individual items are measured on a scale of 1 to  
444 5, corresponding to “very high acceptance,” “high acceptance,” “undecided,” “low  
445 acceptance,” or “very low acceptance” of evolution. Students receive a total score of  
446 between 13 and 65 (a higher score represents a higher acceptance of evolution). We treat  
447 each score as a quantitative variable, rather than a discrete one.

448  
449

450 **Genetics knowledge.** Section B consists of 6 questions which focus on knowledge of  
451 genetics. This includes variations on questions from recent GCSE exams, questionnaires  
452 used in the Genetics Literacy Assessment Instrument (GLAI) for undergraduates <sup>41</sup>, and  
453 questions from <sup>42</sup> in their study of school students’ understanding of genetics. Two of  
454 these questions involve choosing or ordering key words from lists provided, and one  
455 question involves ticking boxes. These types of questions were chosen to gain greater  
456 insight into students’ ideas on living organisms and genetics and to add variety to the  
457 questionnaire for students. This section was found to be reliable through internal  
458 consistency checks (alpha 0.77, G6 0.82).

459

460 **Evolution knowledge.** Section C focuses on evolution knowledge and consists of 6  
461 questions. This section includes a variety of different aspects of evolution, including  
462 natural selection and geological time. Most of these were variations of questions used by  
463 Rutledge and Warden<sup>21</sup> in their research into acceptance and understanding of evolution  
464 among high school biology teachers. Additionally, a number of questions were devised  
465 with the assistance of evolution experts. Each question was scored equally with a section  
466 total out of 6. This section was found to be less reliable through internal consistency  
467 checks (alpha 0.25, G6 0.22) but this probably reflects the low number of questions and  
468 the fact that each question was testing a different issue (hence high cross correlation is  
469 not desirable).

470

471 **Testing regime.** Students were given the same questionnaire before and after teaching  
472 (for which there is precedent, see e.g. <sup>30</sup>). While this has the notable disadvantage that the  
473 students may be primed, thus obviating any analysis of absolute gains in understanding,  
474 by controlling the questions we remove a potential noise variable. Were one to introduce  
475 new questions, even logically similar ones, we cannot be certain that the change in score  
476 reflects a change in understanding, as we then need to add assumptions about the



477 understandability and comparability of different questions. If there were variability  
478 between pupils in the understandability of any new questions, we would have introduced  
479 an unnecessary noise variable. While our approach might affect interpretation of absolute  
480 change in scores, we are, however, interested in increase in response compared to other  
481 increases in response or as they correlate with another factor. We are not first and  
482 foremost interested in the absolute change *per se*. Put differently, even if all scores go up  
483 – possibly because the students better understand the same questions – the issue is why  
484 some students' scores go up more than others.

485

486 The median gap between pre and post assessment was 63 days. We are confident that  
487 teachers did not “teach to the test” as the anonymity of students and schools in the study  
488 was explained to teachers prior to their agreeing to partake. Moreover, the teachers were  
489 instructed to teach their normal GCSE syllabus. We also control for within class-effects  
490 which would remove any better-teacher effects, should such confound exist.

491

#### 492 **Focus groups**

493 Focus groups were designed to better understand the responses found in the student  
494 questionnaires, i.e., why students were or were not accepting of evolution; how these  
495 views related to knowledge of evolution; how these related to knowledge of genetics; and  
496 what other factors are important. Seventy-six students were involved in 16 focus groups.  
497 These students were from 10 different schools. The largest focus groups contained 7  
498 students and the smallest, 2. All students were from groups identified as “higher-ability,”  
499 with most students being from among the top sets in each school. The majority of  
500 students were in Years 9, 10, and 11 and studying towards their GCSE examinations. Six  
501 students were in Year 12 and studying for A-Level exams. Most focus groups comprised  
502 students of the same age and from the same class, however there were 3 groups that  
503 contained a mixture of ages and classes.

504

#### 505 **Teacher parameters**

506 To estimate teacher acceptance we conducted teacher surveys via an online MATE  
507 resource that we developed. The survey is “highly reliable”: evolution acceptance has a  
508 Cronbach's alpha of 0.94 and G6 of 0.96 (maximum value is 1).

509

#### 510 **Background information**

511 A mixture of state, faith, and independent schools have been involved in this project. All  
512 schools are from the South of England and Mid and South Wales. All schools within the  
513 accessible area were invited but not all accepted. All are English language schools.  
514 Schools included students from socially and economically diverse communities, including  
515 rural, suburban, and inner city. A number of schools are single-sex. Although data were  
516 not collected specifically on student demographics, a wide range of ethnic backgrounds  
517 and faiths were represented. Background data on schools have been collected from  
518 inspection (OFSTED/ESTYN) reports, school websites, and from meetings with  
519 teachers. For further detail see <sup>19</sup>. We do not release information on demographics on a  
520 school-by-school basis as this might impinge on anonymity of schools, teachers and  
521 pupils, anonymity that was guaranteed.

522

523 **Statistics.** All statistics were conducted in R with data processing via Tcl scripts. Loess  
524 was performed using R using the loess function. We note that the loess method has the  
525 advantage over binning methods of not enforcing arbitrary bin sizes that can in turn  
526 distort proportionality between bins. Where rho is specified it may be assumed that the  
527 method was Spearman's rank correlation.

528

529 To test exclude between-class effects we consider each class in isolation and consider for  
530 each class the correlation of interest (e.g. between the normalised improvement in  
531 evolution understanding and the preteaching acceptance scores). We then take the  
532 values of this correlation (via Spearman's rank correlation) for all classes and test this set  
533 of intraclass rho values against a median correlation of zero using Wilcox signed rank  
534 test. As the strength of this test is dependent on both the number of classes being  
535 considered and the number of students in any given class, we consider the test for a  
536 variety of minimum class sizes (from a minimum of 5 students in a class to a minimum  
537 of 15).

538

539 Hartigan and Hartigan's dip test<sup>29</sup> was implemented in the R package diptest. The dip test  
540 metric is sensitive to sample size such that two otherwise identical distributions can  
541 report different dip scores depending on the sample size. To test for a difference  
542 between higher and foundation classes, we thus control sample size by randomly  
543 subsampling 172 from the 1055 higher ability students (without replacement) and  
544 calculated the dip score for this subsample, being identical in size to the foundation class.

545 Repeating this 10000 times we derive the distribution of dip scores of the population of  
546 higher ability students that is directly comparable to the dip score for the foundation  
547 class. We calculate 95% confidence intervals using the quantile function in R. We then  
548 compare the dip score of the foundation class against those confidence intervals and  
549 present the median of the dip scores of the subsamples.

550

551 To calculate the significance of the difference in the frequency of low acceptors (score  
552  $\leq 32$ ) a nonparametric randomization was employed. We randomly reassigned the data to  
553 two partitions (1055 and 172 in size) without replacement, these being the sizes of the  
554 higher and foundation samples respectively. For each randomised pair of partitions, we  
555 calculate the frequency of low acceptors in both and consider the modulus of the  
556 difference between these two as the reporting statistic. We ask of 10,000 simulations  
557 how many have an absolute difference between frequencies that is greater than or as  
558 great as that seen in the real data. If this number is  $n$ , with  $m$  simulations,  $P = n+1 / m+1$ .

559 To determine whether a correlation between  $x$  and  $y$  is significantly stronger or weaker  
560 than the correlation between  $z$  and  $y$ , we performed a nonparametric Monte Carlo  
561 simulation. We calculated the 2 Spearman correlations and asked about the difference in  
562 the Spearman rank coefficient. We then randomised the vector  $y$ , and considered for  
563 each randomised version the correlation between  $x$  and randomised  $y$  and  $z$  and  
564 randomized  $y$ . We again considered the modular difference in Spearman rho value for the  
565 correlation of these 2 individually against variable  $y$  (the mean difference in the simulants  
566 is zero). Repeating the simulation 10,000 times, we asked how often the modular  
567 difference was as great or greater than that observed in the real data. As we employed  
568 modular data, the test is 2-tailed. The type 1 error rate is then given by  $P = (n + 1) / (m +$   
569  $1)$ , where  $n$  is the number of randomizations in which the difference is as extreme or  
570 more extreme than that observed in the real data and  $m$  the number of simulations.  
571 Randomization was done in all cases uses the sample function in R. Other tests are  
572 explained in text.

573

574 Significance is taken at alpha  $< 0.05$ .

575

576 Item nonresponse levels were low. We considered alternative means to handle  
577 nonresponse, but as the numbers are so low, they make no difference to results (see prior  
578 analysis<sup>19</sup> for further details including raw data files).

579

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581

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583

584 **Author contributions**

585 LDH, MH and RM devised the program of work. MH and LDH supervised the project.

586 RM collected the data. LDH analysed the data. RM, MH and LDH wrote or edited the

587 paper.

588 **Data availability**

589 All data are freely available from the supplementary information of our prior paper:

590 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2002255>

591 **Competing Financial Interests**

592 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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716 **Figure legends**

717

718 **Fig. 1 The relationship between the acceptance of evolution and the**

719 **understanding of evolution prior to teaching.** Here we present that scores for the

720 preteaching acceptance of each pupil and the preteaching evolution understanding

721 scores. Spearman's  $\rho = 0.22$ ,  $P = 9 \times 10^{-15}$ . The regression line is the best fit line of  $y$

722 predicted by  $x$ . However, as assumptions of linear regression are not fully met it is

723 provided for illustrative purposes alone to indicate the trend.  $N = 1227$ .

724

725 **Fig. 2 The stratification of evolution acceptance scores prior to teaching and**

726 **teacher-derived classification of student ability (foundation or higher ability).**

727 Here we present that scores for the preteaching acceptance of each pupil stratified by

728 teacher-derived classification of student ability visualised as violin plot. Higher ability

729  $N = 1055$ , foundation,  $N = 172$ . Median higher = 51, 95% CI 37.35 - 61.65; median

730 foundation = 47, 95% CI 35 - 60. Mann Whitney U test,  $P = 9 \times 10^{-11}$ .

731

732 **Fig 3. Relationship between change in understanding of evolution score and**

733 **preteaching evolution understanding score.** Here we plot for each student the

734 change in understanding of evolution score (post teaching score - preteaching score)

735 against the preteaching understanding score. The blue line is the loess regression line

736 around which residuals are generated. Loess was run under default settings. Equivalent

737 number of parameters = 4.88, residual standard error = 1.289.  $N = 1227$ .

738



739 **Fig 4. Normalised gain in evolution understanding owing to teaching is positively**  
740 **correlated with preteaching acceptance in evolution score.** Here we plot the  
741 residuals of the loess regression (shown in Fig 3) as normalized gain in evolution  
742 understanding, as a function of preteaching acceptance of evolution. Spearman's  
743  $\rho=0.17$ ,  $P=4.6 \times 10^{-9}$ . The regression line is the best fit line of  $y$  predicted by  $x$ .  
744 However, as assumptions of linear regression are not fully met it is provided for  
745 illustrative purposes alone to indicate the trend.  $N=1227$ .

746

747 **Fig 5. Normalised gain in genetics understanding owing to teaching is positively**  
748 **correlated with preteaching acceptance in evolution score.** Here we plot the  
749 residuals of the loess regression of change in genetics understanding predicted by  
750 preteaching genetics understanding (normalized gain in genetics understanding), as a  
751 function of preteaching acceptance of evolution. Spearman's  $\rho=0.15$ ,  $P=6.4 \times 10^{-8}$ .  
752 The regression line is the best fit line of  $y$  predicted by  $x$ . However, as assumptions of  
753 linear regression are not fully met it is provided for illustrative purposes alone to indicate  
754 the trend.  $N=1227$ .

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763 **Table 1. The correlation between preteaching acceptance scores and normalised**  
 764 **increase in evolution understanding in stratified analysis.** For each stratification we  
 765 consider the Spearman rank correlation between preteaching acceptance score and the  
 766 residuals from the loess of change in evolution understanding predicted by preteaching  
 767 evolution understanding. Change is defined as post score – pre-teaching score. Rho is the  
 768 Spearman rank correlation coefficient, P the significance and N the sample size.  
 769

Stratification	Level	Rho	P	N
Teaching order	Genetics first	0.18	$3.5 \times 10^{-7}$	776
	Evolution first	0.10	0.032	451
Ability	High	0.13	$1.2 \times 10^{-5}$	1055
	foundation	0.23	0.0029	172

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