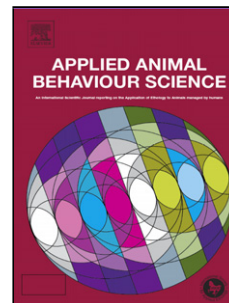


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- 1 • Highlights
- 2 • We examine dogs' ability to learn to perform oriented movements.
- 3 • We also examine dogs' command generalization ability in novel contexts and tasks.
- 4 • Dogs easily learn directional response based on different sound signals.
- 5 • Dogs are able to generalize this rule to novel environments and tasks.
- 6 • Dogs' performance decreases as a function of angular deviation.
- 7

7 Dogs are able to generalize directional acoustic signals to different contexts and tasks

8

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10

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35 Abstract

36

37 Previous studies suggested that dogs are able to use both egocentric and allocentric cues
38 spontaneously in specified spatial tasks. They can also learn rapidly ‘go-left/go-right’ tasks based on
39 stimulus location but relying on stimulus quality. At the same time, relatively little research has looked
40 at the possibility of whether dogs are able to solve a spatial problem based on previously trained
41 signals in novel situations. In the present study we have examined whether dogs are able to rely on
42 quality differences in sound stimuli for directional behaviour and to generalize this rule in different
43 field conditions. First, we trained 16 adult pet dogs in the lab to go left and right based upon
44 qualitatively different sound signals. After having reached the criterion, subjects participated in five
45 field test sessions that included several novel targets (balls/trees/humans) at different distances (7 to 18
46 m) and angular deviations (36° to 87°). We wanted to see whether these aspects of the novel context
47 affect the dogs’ performance. After having reached the criterion, subjects participated in five field test
48 sessions that included several novel targets at different distances and angular deviations. The test
49 sessions were followed by a control session in the laboratory in order to exclude the Clever Hans
50 effect. We found that dogs chose the target object that matched the sound signal significantly above
51 the chance level in each test condition and also in the Clever Hans control. Their performance was not
52 affected by different targets and distances, but decreased as a function of angular deviation. These
53 results suggest that dogs are able to learn the ‘go left/go right’ task based on qualitatively different
54 sounds and utilize this rule in novel situations. The angular deviation in choosing the correct target
55 direction proved to be an important factor in the dogs’ performance in a novel context.

56

57 Keywords: dog, generalization, spatial navigation, dog training

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63 1. Introduction

64

65 Dogs (*Canis familiaris*) are descendants of territorial predators, wolves (*Canis lupus*), and it is
66 expected that they are able to learn and use the location of objects in space (Gallistel, 1990). Two
67 different types of basic mechanisms are used for spatial navigation. The egocentric orientation relies
68 on one's own body position in space, while in the case of allocentric orientation the animal uses the
69 position of an external cue (beacon or landmark) as a reference (Pohl, 1973). Relying on either type of
70 information has advantages as well as disadvantages. Allocentric cues provide high flexibility for the
71 animal because they allow the utilisation of several different pathways to the same target. Egocentric
72 spatial information provides relatively inflexible information for navigation, however it is useful to
73 rely on if environmental conditions are permanent, no environmental cues are available or the goal is
74 near the animal (Fiset et al., 2006).

75 Several studies have shown that dogs are able to use both egocentric and allocentric navigation
76 spontaneously to solve different spatial tasks (e.g. Head et al., 1995; Milgram et al., 1999; Chan et al.,
77 2001) and that their spatial encoding process is flexible and can be adjusted to the particularities of the
78 situation. For example, Fiset et al. (2006) examined the geometric components used by domestic dogs
79 in an object permanence task and reported that dogs preferred a linear egocentric frame of reference
80 when they were searching for the location of a disappearing object regardless of the distance between
81 their own spatial coordinates and those of the hiding position. Thus, dogs' performance in finding the
82 hidden object did not differ when the object was moved from 100 cm to 142 cm from the starting
83 point, that is, they did not simultaneously use the vector components of direction and of distance to
84 locate the target object. At the same time, dogs seem to have difficulty using allocentric cues to locate
85 a hidden object in some situations (Fiset and Malenfant, 2013), but they may be able to use allocentric
86 spatial information when the linear egocentric information is not available. Fiset et al. (2006) also
87 found that the angular deviation between adjacent hiding locations and the position of the dog had an
88 effect on dogs' performance: the subjects performed more correctly if the angular deviation between
89 the two hiding places was 15° rather than only 5°. Dogs tried to minimise angular deviation from the
90 target in a detour task in which the shortest route to reach the desired goal was unavailable but the

91 target was visible. Thus, they preferred the less divergent path over the shortest route. However, if the
92 target was invisible they chose the shortest route regardless of the angular deviation (Chapuis, 1983).

93 In a landmark discrimination task Milgram et al. (2002) trained dogs to choose the food-container
94 closest to a small landmark (yellow wooden peg) in a two way choice task. Next, dogs were exposed
95 to a similar task with a novel landmark (pink heart-shaped object), and finally, this novel landmark
96 was moved to novel positions. Dogs' performance remained stable throughout these novel conditions.
97 The authors concluded that dogs generalized both to the shape and relative position of the landmark,
98 thus they were using a general concept of the landmark to solve this two-way choice task.

99 Dogs are also able to learn go/no-go tasks based on differences in stimulus quality and go-left/go-
100 right tasks based on differences in stimulus location, whereas the opposite stimulus-action pairings are
101 more difficult to learn (Lawicka, 1964; Dobrzecka et al., 1966; Dobrzecka and Konorski, 1967;
102 Konorski, 1967; Dobrzecka and Konorski, 1968; Lawicka, 1969). These results raise the Quality-
103 Location Hypothesis suggesting that the quality of a stimulus best serves as a cue for the quality of a
104 response, whereas the location of a stimulus facilitates the orientation of the action. Although several
105 researchers assumed that this hypothesis is fundamental to understanding possible constraints of
106 learning (e.g. Miller and Bowe, 1982), others argued that the quality-location distinction effect in these
107 studies stems from the experimental design and is highly affected by the inclusion or exclusion of
108 naturalistic features (e.g. Harrison, 1984; Neill and Harrison, 1987). The finding that herding dogs can
109 be directed by voice commands (or whistles) of different tone and pitch of the human shepherd during
110 cooperative herding (McConnell and Baylis, 1985) also casts some doubt on the Quality-Location
111 Hypothesis.

112 The main goal of the present study, therefore, was to find out whether dogs trained to perform
113 oriented movement (go left/ right) in response to different acoustic signals are able to generalize this
114 experience to novel contexts. In this latter phase of the training we also investigated whether or not
115 salient objects placed in the target area improve dogs' learning efficiency in the go left/ right task. We
116 assumed that dogs trained to approach a conspicuous target (small object on the ground) upon hearing
117 the signal would show a better performance than those who had to approach a specific spatial location
118 (left/right corner) in the room. The less specific nature of the latter task (i.e. the absence of a specific

119 target object which could be approached) predicts a slower learning rate (c.f. Fiset et al., 2006). In the
120 second part of the study, dogs were exposed to novel situations where they had to rely on the same
121 acoustic signals to solve a series of new spatial tests. We applied several novel targets in these test
122 situations at different distances and angular deviations in relation to the dogs' starting position. We
123 measured the dogs' performance which was calculated on the basis of the number of correct choices
124 after receiving the sound signal. We assume that dogs' performance would not drop in the novel
125 context independent of their distance to the target, partly because they are able to generalize learnt
126 behaviour to novel contexts (Lindsay, 2000); for example, Braem and Mills (2010) reported that dogs
127 are able to generalize a novel acoustic signal (verbal cue)-action association learnt in Room A to
128 Room B.

129

130 2. Materials and methods

131

132 2.1. Subjects

133 Sixteen adult pet dogs (mean age \pm SE: 5.5 ± 2.5 years) were recruited for this study. The
134 participants were 5 male and 11 female dogs from different breeds (3 Border collies, 2 Mudis,
135 Hungarian Vizsla, Labrador, Golden Retriever, Groenendale, Beauceron, Nova Scotia Duck Tolling
136 Retriever, Croatian Sheepdog, Boxer, 3 mongrels). All dogs were clicker trained (by the means of the
137 shaping procedure) and trained for fetching and going ahead. Regarding the training of the "going
138 ahead" command, dogs were trained for two different tasks as a part of the obedience training: (1)
139 based on the combination of owners' verbal and hand signals, owners used clicker-training to
140 positively reinforce moving away from the owner in a straight line (0% deviation) in a given direction
141 without a visible target, (2) dogs were also trained with clicker to go ahead and lie down next to
142 special visible targets (yellow cones) based on the direction of the owners' hand signal. Dogs and their
143 owners were recruited through the website of Department of Ethology (<http://kutyaetologia.elte.hu/>).

144

145 2.2. Equipment and Signals

146 The Click & Treat (C&T) Collar was developed by Tamás Ferenczy (see Fig. 1). It consists of two
147 parts: the collar and the remote control unit. The collar is a cylindrical collar-mounted device in which
148 the double-barreled treat storage, the dispenser, the control electronics, the loudspeaker, the radio
149 modules, and the batteries are located. The storage can be baited with 16 pieces of dry dog food
150 (Kennel Kost premium dog food), by placing 8-8 pieces into each barrel. Four different signals can be
151 emitted directly from the collar by pressing different buttons on the remote control: (1) click sound
152 (0.3 s long; 1700 Hz); (2) click sound + food; (3) high pitched (HP) sound (0.3 s long, 2150 Hz
153 “beeping” repeated 3 times, 0.1 s pauses in between trials); (4) low pitched (LP) sound (0.3 s long,
154 1150 Hz “beeping” repeated three times 0.1 s pauses in between trials). The radio connection has a
155 working radius of maximally 400 m.

156

157 Insert Figure 1

158

159 2.3. Procedure

160 Familiarization, Basic training, Advanced training, and warm-up session before testing took place
161 in a 4.5 m x 3.5 m test room at the Department of Ethology, Eötvös Loránd University Budapest.
162 Testing was carried out on a plain green area on the University Campus.

163

164 2.3.1. Familiarization

165 The aim of the familiarization was to introduce the C&T Collar to the dogs, and to train them to go
166 to one of the potential targets in the room. After arriving at the department with their owner, the dog
167 took part in the following procedure (Steps 1 to 6):

168

169 1. The experimenter filled up the collar with dry food then gave it to the owner. The owner held the
170 collar in his/her hand, called the dog, then pushed the ‘click+ food’ button on the controller. The dog
171 was allowed to eat the reward (one piece of dry dog food) which dropped from the collar to the floor.
172 We repeated this procedure 10 times. Then, the experimenter asked the owner to push the ‘Click’
173 button but no food was given. If the dog looked down to the floor after the click sound, we moved to

174 the next step. If the dog did not look down, then the dog was given another set of 10 trials of ‘click and
175 food’ until the dog looked down after the click sound in the absence of food rewards.

176 2. The owner gave verbal commands (for example Sit!, Down!, Lay! etc.) to the dog. All commands
177 referred to actions known by the dog prior to this study. If the dog acted in line with the command,
178 then she pushed the ‘click + food’ button and the dog received a piece of reward. Each dog
179 participated in 14 trials.

180 3. The owner put the collar on the dog and Step 2 was repeated 14 times.

181 4. The owner and the dog sat down. The experimenter brought a small black cardboard rectangle
182 (18x24 cm) to the room and put it on the floor. She placed it in front of the dog at a distance of 1.5m.
183 She called the dog and acted as if she placed one piece of food under the rectangle and then stepped
184 back. The owner encouraged the dog to approach the rectangle verbally (Let’s go!). If the dog
185 approached the rectangle (within 10 cm), the experimenter pushed the ‘click + food’ button and the
186 dog was allowed to eat the treat. We repeated this two times.

187 5. We repeated Step 4, except that the rectangle was now at a distance of 3 m from the dog.

188 6. The experimenter brought a second rectangle (which was identical to the first one) to the room. She
189 placed the rectangles into the two corners of the room 3 m from the dog. She stepped next to one of
190 the rectangles and repeated the previous training four times (sequences: LRLR or RLRL; L=left,
191 R=right).

192

193 2.3.2. Training phase

194

195 2.3.2.1. Basic training

196 The aim of the Basic training was to develop associations between sounds and spatially oriented
197 motor responses (going left or right). This phase consisted of series of training trials.

198 Two target objects (cardboard rectangles) were placed at two corners of the lab. The owner and the
199 dog (with the mounted collar) were sitting in front of the rectangles (see Fig. 2). Upon hearing one of
200 the two sounds (HP or LP) emitted from the collar, the owner encouraged the dog to approach one of
201 the rectangles (using only neutral verbal utterances like “Let’s go!”). Owners did not display any

202 gestures e.g. pointing. If the dog approached the object located in the designated corner (i.e. which
203 matched with the emitted sound) in 10 seconds within 20 cm ('approaching zone'), the dog received
204 the reward from the collar.

205 In the first series, we played one sound 10 times (left or right) and then the other sound also 10 times.
206 This was followed by a second series in which sound signals were alternated in LRLRRLRLLR (trials
207 1-10) and RLRLRLRLRL (trials 11-20) order.

208 These blocks of ten trials were then repeated until they reached learning criterion. Criterion for
209 learning the basic training task was set as 10 consecutive correct trials.

210 If the dog approached the 'incorrect' object (within 20 cm), the owner called the dog back and the trial
211 was repeated with the same sound signal. If the dog failed to show the correct response two times in a
212 row, then the owner was allowed to point at the correct rectangle during the subsequent trial. We
213 considered the trial also as incorrect and the dog did not get the reward if it passed along the midline in
214 between the objects without approaching either of them.

215 For half of the subjects (N=8) the HP sound was the 'go left' signal and the LP sound was the 'go
216 right' signal. For the other half (N=8) of the subjects we reversed the reference (left/right) of the
217 signals.

218 Dogs participated in 10-30 Basic training trials per session (mean \pm SE: 16 \pm 4) and each training session
219 was terminated when the owner indicated that the dog was getting tired and inattentive. Owners and
220 their dogs visited the department once or twice weekly.

221

222 Insert Figure 2

223

224 2.3.2.2. Advanced training

225 The aim of the advanced training was to investigate whether changes in the training situation
226 influence dogs' performance and generalization capability. Subjects were divided into two groups:
227 Rotation training: For half of the dogs (N=8) we rotated the position of the rectangles and the
228 orientation of the dog and the owner by 90°. Then subjects participated in 10-trial training sessions as
229 described above until reaching the criterion (10 consecutive correct trials).

230 No target training: For the other half of dogs (N=8) we repeated the Basic training without target
231 objects until they reached the criterion (10 consecutive correct trials). Dogs received the reward if they
232 approached the former location of the rectangle within 20 cm.

233 Owners and their dogs visited the department once or twice weekly, and they participated 10-20
234 Advanced training trials per visit (mean±SE: 14±2).

235

236 2.3.3. Testing phase

237 Test trials were staged outdoors on the campus of the Eötvös Loránd University in a 40 m x 40 m
238 grassy area with some peripheral woods. We could not use a fenced area, thus some students and dog
239 walkers were usually walking nearby during the test and were asked verbally to avoid the test area
240 during the testing. Each session started with a short 6-trial warm-up training performed in the
241 experimental room (in these trials we used the same procedure as in the Advanced training). Each
242 testing session consisted of 5 different types of trials ('condition'). Three different targets and 5
243 different distances with different angular deviations from the position of the dog were utilized: *Close*
244 *ball*, *Distant ball*, *Close tree*, *Distant tree* and *Human* (see Fig. 3). We decided to use the unbaited
245 C&T collar during the testing in order to exclude accidental falls of the reward during fast running and
246 the possible loss of the reward in high grass or snow in winter. Reward was provided by the owner
247 after the dogs' return.

248 In each condition the owner and the dog were standing in front of two targets (trees, balls or two
249 female humans). Dogs were wearing the empty C&T collar. After the sound was emitted from the
250 collar, the dog was allowed to set off. The owner was not allowed to say anything to the dog except
251 "GO!" or "Go ahead!" without any additional verbal or gestural signals. If the dog approached the
252 correct target within 1 m, then it received verbal praise from the owner during first two trials. In the
253 remaining 8 trials they received food or a ball as a reward from the owner except in the *Human*
254 condition in which the female humans provided the reward in order to maintain dogs' motivation.
255 Approach toward the incorrect target was considered a failed trial: the owner was instructed to call the
256 dog back and then the trial was repeated with the same sound.

257 Order of the test conditions was counterbalanced among dogs. Exact places, angles, targets and
258 their relative positions were constant. Dogs were provided with 10 trials in each condition using a
259 LRLRRLRLLR or RLRLRLRLRL orders.

260 Dogs took part in only one test condition per day, thus the test session contained 5 occasions with
261 intervals of no more than one week.

262

263 Insert Figure 3

264

265 2.3.4. 'Clever Hans' control trials

266 The aim of these trials was to control for owners' and experimenter's influence on dogs'
267 performance. After finishing the testing sessions, dogs participated in 10 additional Advanced training
268 trials in the laboratory setting, but in this case owners were wearing opaque sunglasses and they were
269 listening to loud music during the test. This prevented them from hearing the played sound and from
270 seeing in which direction the dog was moving. The experimenter, who controlled the C&T collar, was
271 facing the wall when she pushed the sound button on the controller, thus she did not see the dog either.
272 The experimenter turned back to the scene only after the sound was emitted and informed the owner
273 what had happened (if the dog went to the proper side the owner had to praise the dog, if the dog went
274 to the wrong side the owner had to call the dog back). We predicted that, if no Clever Hans effect was
275 involved in the Basic and Advanced training, then the changed appearance and behaviour of the owner
276 and experimenter would not affect the dogs' performance.

277

278 2.4. Variables and Data analysis

279 The experimenter coded the performance of the dog *in situ* during the basic and advanced training,
280 test conditions and also during Clever Hans control (she marked each trial as correct or incorrect). Test
281 conditions were videotaped and analysed later with Solomon coder 12.06.06 (András Péter
282 <http://solomoncoder.com>). Trials of training sessions were also supervised by coding recorded videos.

283

284 Measured variables:

285 Target: The dog approached one of the targets within 20 cm during training trials (rectangle), or within
286 1 m during test trials (tree/ball/human).

287 First movement: The direction of dog's first three steps from the start point (left/right/straight from the
288 middle line) in test trials.

289 We scored correct trials with 1, and incorrect trials with 0. We considered a trial as correct if (1) the
290 dog went to the specific target (rectangle/tree/ball/human) on the side indicated by the specific sound
291 (left/right) (Target variable), (2) the dog made the first three steps toward the target
292 (rectangle/tree/ball/human) indicated by the specific sound signal (left/right) First movement variable).
293 If the dog moved towards the middle area we considered it as an incorrect trial.

294 Sometimes it happened that dogs stopped before reaching one of the targets and did not go further
295 in 10 sec. In this case, the owner was instructed by the experimenter to call the dog back, and we
296 played the same sound again. In this case, the First movement score was based on the direction of the
297 first start and Target score was determined by the performance on the subsequent trial. It also
298 happened that the dog changed its direction during the approach (for example, the dog started to go
299 toward the target on the left but after several meters changed its direction and went to the target on the
300 right). For the statistical analysis, the test conditions were split into two groups based on their angular
301 deviations. Test conditions in which the angular deviation was sharper or wider than the training angle
302 (53°) were grouped together, thus *Close tree* and *Distant ball* conditions formed the '*Angle < 53°*'
303 group, and *Close ball*, *Distant tree* and *Human* conditions formed the '*Angle > 53°*' group.

304 For statistical analysis we used IBM SPSS Statistics 21.

305

306 3. Results

307 Dogs reached the criterion in 72 ± 36 (mean \pm SD) correct trials on average in the Basic training,
308 and in 34 ± 12 (mean \pm SD) additional trials in the Advanced training. We excluded one dog because it
309 failed to reach the training criterion in 180 trials in the Basic training. Another dog's owner quit the
310 study after completing the first test condition; therefore the data of this dog are included only in the
311 analysis of the Basic training, Advanced training and *Distant tree* test condition.

312 Due to the criterion, dogs' accuracy was 100% in the last 10 trials of the Basic training, thus we
313 decided to use the last 15 trials in the Basic training and the first 15 trials in the Advanced training in
314 order to compare dogs' performance between the two training types. We found that dogs' performance
315 decreased significantly (Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test, $N=15$, $Z=-3.306$, $p=0.001$), which
316 indicates that dogs in neither group generalized automatically from the Basic training to the Advanced
317 training in which the objects were either rotated or removed. The performance did not differ between
318 the Rotation and the No target group (Mann-Whitney test, $N=15$, $U=36$, $p=0.397$). However, dogs in
319 both groups showed a rapid recovery, because they needed 16 ± 3 and 15 ± 1 trials respectively to reach
320 the criterion which did not differ between the two groups (Mann-Whitney test, $U=28$, $p=0.95$).
321 In the test conditions, only two dogs failed to reach targets in 60 seconds in the *Distant tree* condition,
322 and one of them failed also in the *Close tree* condition.

323 According to test conditions, first we compared mean scores for the Target and First movement
324 variables. We found that these two variables did not differ (matched samples McNemar test, $N=15$,
325 $df=1$, $p=1.00$), thus we decided to use Target variable for further analysis. Subjects performed better
326 than chance in each test condition (one-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank test, *Close ball* $N=14$, $T(+)=$
327 105 , $p<0.001$; *Distant ball* $N=14$, $T(+)= 105$, $p<0.001$; *Close tree* $N=13$, $T(+)= 91$, $p<0.001$; *Distant*
328 *tree* $N=13$, $T(+)= 91$, $p<0.001$; *Human* $N=14$, $T(+)=105$, $p<0.001$). This shows that the dogs went to
329 the correct target (ball/tree/human) more frequently than to the target on the incorrect side (see Fig. 4).
330 Dogs performed also above chance level in the Clever Hans control condition (one-sample Wilcoxon
331 signed-rank test, $N=14$, $T(+)= 105$, $p<0.001$). The order of test conditions did not have any effect on
332 dogs' performance (Friedman test, $N=15$, $df=4$, $p=0.92$).

333

334 Insert Figure 4

335

336 We also compared 0/1 data between test conditions and Clever Hans control and also the effect of
337 trials within each test condition and Clever Hans control with GLMM for Binomial Distribution.
338 Results showed no significant variability among test conditions ($F_{5,761}=1.11$, $p=0.35$), and repeated
339 trials had also no effect ($F_{9,761}=1.3$, $p=0.230$). Dogs' accuracy in Test conditions was independent from

340 the Advanced training type ($F_{1,809}=0.004$, $p=0.947$) and interaction between Advanced training type
341 and Test condition was also not significant ($F_{1,809}=0.68$, $p=0.630$).

342 We also compared dogs' performance between two test condition groups, the *Angle* $< 53^\circ$ and the
343 *Angle* $> 53^\circ$ group, with GLMM for Binomial distribution. Results showed that dogs' performance
344 was lower if the angular deviation in the test condition was sharper than the training angle ($F_{1,661}=5.33$,
345 $p=0.021$) (Fig. 5).

346

347 Insert Figure 5

348

349 4. Discussion

350

351 The objective of the present study was to investigate whether dogs are capable of learning to go
352 left/right after training using two qualitatively different sound signals and whether they can generalize
353 this experience to novel contexts. Contrary to previous findings suggesting that dogs failed to rely on
354 tone frequency cues in a go left/go right task (e.g. Lawicka, 1969), our results showed that dogs had no
355 difficulty in learning directional responses based on qualitatively different sound signals after a
356 relatively short training.

357 Methodological differences may explain this discrepancy: (1) Dogs in our study were clicker
358 trained family dogs from different breeds with well described training history, while Lawicka tested 8
359 laboratory mongrels with unknown training background. Dogs in the present study were previously
360 trained with clicker to follow the direction of the owners' verbal and hand signals toward distant
361 locations as a part of the obedience training, thus these dogs already had experience in directional
362 response tasks. While owners were prevented from using these well known signals during the training
363 and test phases, we assume that it had no effect on dogs' performance in the present role. (2) In our
364 study, signals were emitted and dogs were rewarded directly from the C&T collar, while in Lawicka's
365 experiment sound sources were loudspeakers situated at 2 m from the starting platform and the target
366 objects contained the reward. This latter difference might have drawn dogs' attention more toward the
367 target object than the sound signals from the C & T collar and caused the prolonged learning time. Our

368 results support the presumption that the Quality-Location effect is not a general constraint of learning,
369 but more likely it emerges under particular experimental designs and conditions (Harrison, 1984; Neill
370 and Harrison, 1987).

371 In order to examine context dependency of learning, we changed the training situation after the
372 Basic training by either removing the target objects (No target training) or rotating the position of the
373 targets and the dog (Rotation training). We found that dogs' performance decreased equally in both
374 conditions. Braem and Mills (2010) reported also that dogs show a decline in performing a newly
375 learned command in a novel environment. In contrast to our prediction, dogs that participated in the
376 No target training showed as rapid recovery as dogs in the Rotating training. We presume that during
377 the Basic training, dogs learnt to "go left/right" instead of "approaching the target on the left/right",
378 thus the absence of the target objects in the Advanced training (in the No target training condition) did
379 not affect their performance. The lack of such difference could also be explained by the fact that the
380 reward was not hidden into/behind the target object (c.f. Lawicka, 1969; Fiset et al., 2006) but it came
381 directly from the C&T collar worn by the dog.

382 In the testing phase, dogs were exposed to a novel area (outdoor field), novel targets
383 (balls/trees/humans), and extended distances (9.5 to 19.5 m) and angular deviations (36° to 87°) in
384 order to reveal whether they are able to generalize the "go left/right" task (see Fig. 3). Dogs'
385 performance was significantly above chance level in all test conditions, thus they approached the
386 correct target matching with the sound command significantly more often than expected. Target types
387 and their relative distance from the dog had no influence on dogs' performance, similarly to previous
388 findings in search for disappearing objects in dogs (Fiset et al., 2006). However dogs' performance in
389 this task decreased as a function of angular deviation between two adjacent hiding locations and the
390 relative position of the dog (Fiset et al., 2006). If the target is visible, then the angular deviation is the
391 most relevant factor for dogs in a detour task, and they show a preference for using the less divergent
392 route (Chapuis, 1983). A similar result was also reported for chimpanzees. The spatial separation of
393 two adjacent hiding locations together with the varying angular deviation influenced animals'
394 accuracy in a spatial delayed response object choice task (Harrison and Nissen, 1941). Our results also
395 showed that dogs' performance was lower if, in the test condition, the angular deviation between the

396 adjacent targets and the dogs' position was sharper than the angle experienced in the training angle.
397 This is the first evidence that angular deviation influences dogs' ability to generalize learned
398 directional commands from the training context to a novel context.

399 Dogs' similar accuracy in all test conditions after different Advanced training suggests that dogs
400 learnt the general rule of 'go left/right', and that they were able to utilize this rule in unfamiliar
401 environments. Dogs showed similar generalization ability in a landmark discrimination task by
402 efficiently using novel landmarks in novel positions for locating target objects. This was also
403 interpreted as learning the general concept of the landmark (Milgram et al., 2002). The control testing
404 aimed to exclude human influence (i.e. Clever Hans effect) also supported our findings that the dogs'
405 performance was based on their attention to the signals.

406 In summary, these results clearly show that dogs can internalise a simple behaviour rule for taking
407 directional action upon hearing qualitatively different signals. This capacity of dogs has long been
408 used in traditional settings (e.g. shepherds have long known how to train herding dogs by whistle
409 sound), but our elaborated method offers the possibility to train dogs explicitly if needed for specific
410 employments (e.g. search and rescue, Ferworn et al., 2006).

411

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479 Figure caption

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481 Fig. 1. The Click & Treat Collar

482

483 Fig. 2. Experimental layout for the Basic training phase. The black cross indicates the dogs' starting
484 position, the O indicates the owner's and the E the experimenter's position. The black rectangles
485 indicate the location of two identical target objects, the interrupted lines indicate the 20 cm
486 'approaching zone'. D1, D2 and D3 indicate the locations of the three doors (0.6 m width) in the lab.

487

488 Fig. 3. Experimental design of testing conditions. The black cross indicates the dogs' starting position,
489 the O indicates the owner's and the E the experimenter's position. The black circles indicate the
490 location of two target objects (balls/trees/humans) in the different testing conditions.

491

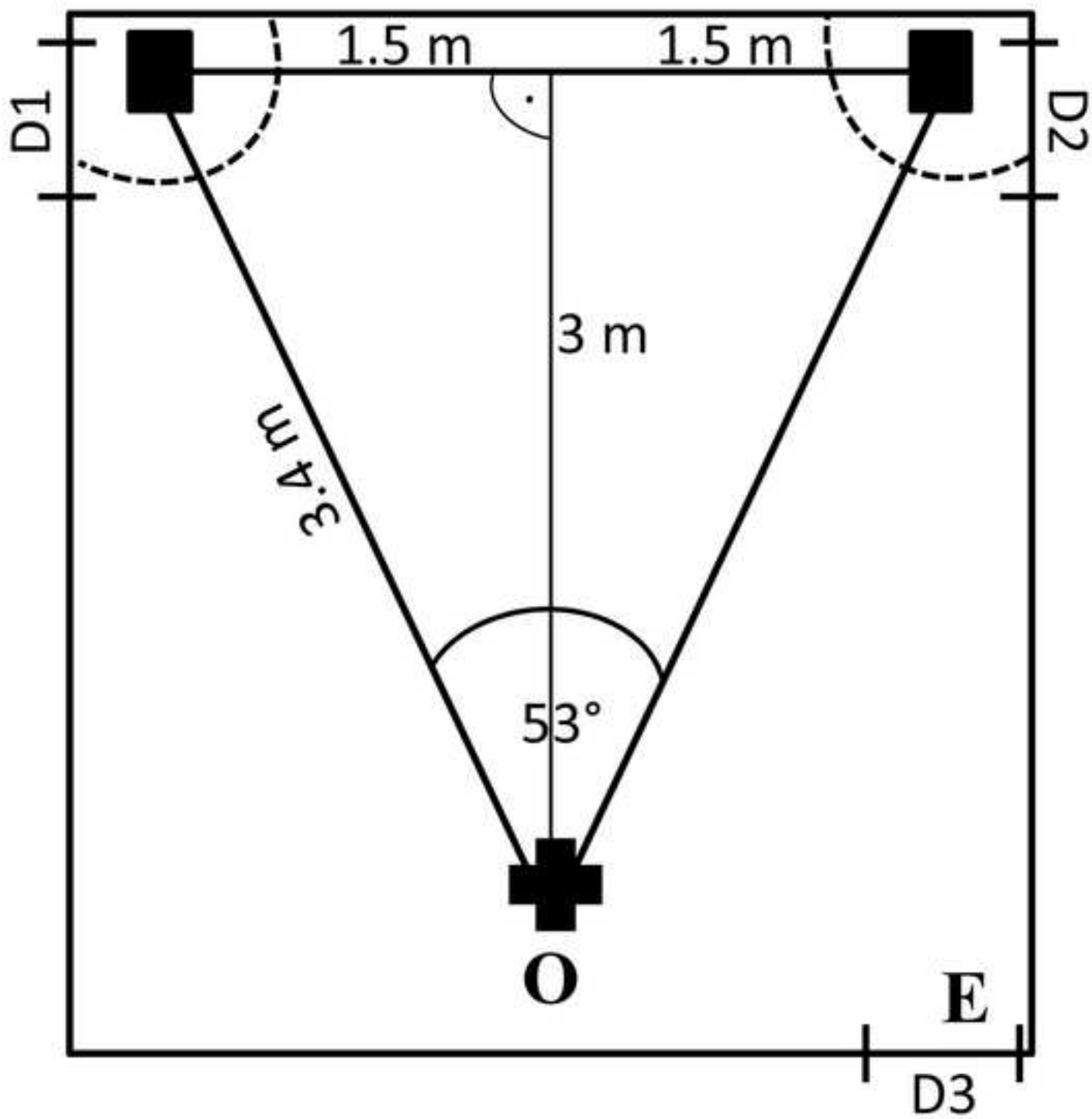
492 Fig. 4. Percent (%) of correct trials in each Test conditions (Close ball, Distant ball, Close tree, Distant
493 tree, Human) and in the Clever Hans control. * $p < 0.001$

494

495 Fig. 5. Means of the correct trials in the two experimental groups which differ with regard to the visual
496 angle (Angle $< 53^\circ$: Distant ball, Close tree; Angle $> 53^\circ$: Close ball, Distant tree, Human). * $p < 0.05$

497





Figure

