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Author: Claudia Fugazza Ádám Miklósi

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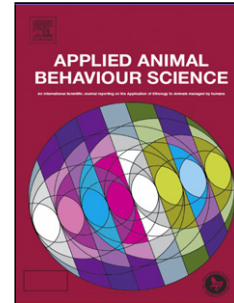
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1 **Social learning in dog training: the effectiveness of the Do as I do method compared to shaping /**
2 **clicker training**

3

4 Claudia Fugazza* & Ádám Miklósi#,*

5 Department of Ethology, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest

6 *Author for correspondence (claudia.happydog@gmail.com)

7 #MTA-ELTE Comparative Ethology Research Group

8

9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Dog training methods traditionally rely on individual learning (mainly operant conditioning). Yet dogs
11 are adept in acquiring information socially and are able to imitate humans. Dogs' predisposition to
12 learn socially has been recently introduced in dog training with the Do as I do method. With this
13 method dogs first learn to match their behaviour to a small set of actions displayed by a human
14 demonstrator on command 'Do it!' and later are able to generalize this rule to use it to learn novel
15 actions. In the present study we compare the effectiveness of the Do as I do method with that of
16 shaping / clicker training, a method that relies on individual learning, for teaching dogs two different
17 kinds of actions: a body movement and an object-related action. As measures of effectiveness we use
18 the number of dog-trainer pairs experienced with either method, that succeed in obtaining five
19 performances in a row of the predetermined action within 30 minutes and the latency to the fifth
20 performance. Additionally we assess the effect of these training methods on dogs' memory of the
21 trained action and its verbal cue in different contexts. Our results show that the Do as I do method is
22 more effective than shaping / clicker training to teach dogs object-related actions within a relatively
23 short time and suggest that this method might be also applied for training body-movements.

24 Importantly the use of social learning enhances dogs' memory and generalization of the learned action
25 and its verbal cue.

26

27 KEYWORDS

28 Dog; Dog training; Do as I do; Social learning; Generalization; Memory.

29

30 1. Introduction

31 Until very recently little use of social learning mechanisms has been made in formal dog training, as
32 training methods relied mainly on non-social forms of associative learning (Mills 2005). Among the
33 various training methods that follow operant conditioning rules (Skinner 1951), shaping / clicker
34 training is a technique in which the spontaneous behaviour of the animal is gradually shaped by means
35 of strategically timed reinforcements, using the sound of a clicker as a conditioned reinforcement and
36 food as a primary reinforcement (e.g., Veeder et al. 2009). Thus the animal learns gradually and
37 individually, by trial and errors, what actions are followed by a reward. In shaping procedures complex
38 actions are simplified by training simpler steps towards the final goal, according to a plan or program
39 of instrumental contingencies (Lindsay 2000). The main role of the trainer during the training
40 procedure is that of delivering the secondary reinforcement with proper timing, followed by the food
41 reward. With regard to laboratory animals, for which the interactions with the experimenters may be a
42 stressful situation, this training method has proven useful to reduce stress during manipulations and
43 other laboratory activities (e.g., Coleman et al. 2010; Lamberth et al. 2006; Basset et al. 2003). This
44 training method is also very popular among dog trainers (e.g. Pryor 1999, 2005).

45 Several studies have provided robust evidence that dogs are skilful in learning socially from both con-
46 and heterospecifics (Kubinyi et al. 2009 for review). Dogs trained by the Do as I do procedure (Topál
47 et al. 2006) were able to functionally imitate actions shown by a human experimenter (see also Huber

48 et al. 2009 and Fugazza and Miklósi 2014a). With this method, dogs first learn by operant conditioning
49 rules to match their behaviour to actions shown by a human demonstrator on command 'Do it!' (the
50 trainer shows demonstrations of familiar actions and rewards the dog for performing actions that
51 functionally match the demonstrated ones). Later dogs are able to generalize this 'imitation rule' to
52 novel actions and different demonstrators (see Topál et al. 2006 and Fugazza and Miklósi 2014a for
53 details on the training procedure). It is surprising that, despite the wide scientific literature providing
54 evidence of dogs' predisposition to learn socially from humans, only very few studies (Slabbert and
55 Rasa 1997; McKinley and Young 2003) focused on the use of social learning in the applied field of dog
56 training. A training method relying on learning socially from humans - the Do as I do method - was
57 recently introduced in the dog training practice (Fugazza 2011). In a previous study we assessed its
58 efficiency for training object-related tasks (Fugazza and Miklósi 2014b). We found that this method is
59 more efficient than shaping / clicker training for teaching dogs complex object-related tasks and goal-
60 directed sequences of actions. We defined efficiency as the time needed to obtain the first occurrence
61 of the behaviour and, as measures of efficiency, we used the number of dog-owner pairs succeeding to
62 accomplish the task within a time limit of 15 minutes and the latency to the first occurrence of the
63 predetermined behaviour.

64 Trainers and owners usually require dogs to perform the trained actions reliably – not only once, during
65 the training procedure. Furthermore they require that dogs perform the trained actions on cue, rather
66 than imitating a demonstrator, and also in different contexts (Mills 2005). We define a training method
67 effective if it allows reaching these objectives in a relatively short time.

68 Thus in the present study we compared the Do as I do method and shaping / clicker training with regard
69 to two objectives: 1) behavioural consistency during training - i.e. performing the required action
70 repeatedly and 2) memorization and generalization to different contexts of the trained action and its
71 verbal cue - i.e., performing the trained action after a delay, when verbally required by the owner, in

72 different contexts.

73 To assess the effect of the two methods with regard to behavioural consistency we measured the
74 number of dogs succeeding to perform five times in a row the action to be trained within a 30 minutes
75 time limit and the latency to the fifth performance. To assess the memorization and ability to generalize
76 the trained action we used the number of dogs that performed the trained actions on cue in the same
77 context where the training took place, and also in a different context.

78 We aimed also at providing information on the effectiveness of the training methods with regard to
79 different behavioural goals to be achieved, e.g., train object-related actions and body movements,
80 because previous studies did not include body movements. Consistent with our previous results, we
81 expected the Do as I do method to be quicker for training object-related actions (Fugazza and Miklósi
82 2014b), not only with regard to the first occurrence of the predetermined action but also with regard to
83 more performances of it in a row.

84 Regarding the body movements, it is suggested that their imitation is more difficult than the imitation
85 of object-related actions for all the species in which this has been tested (see Huber et al. 2009). Thus
86 we expected dogs to show difficulties in learning body movements with the Do as I do method.

87 With regard to dogs' memory and generalization of the trained action and its cue, it is known that dogs
88 are able to imitate observed human actions after delays ranging from 40 seconds to 10 minutes, even
89 without motor practice (deferred imitation - Fugazza and Miklósi 2014a). Thus we expected that the
90 demonstration performed by the owner might enhance dogs' memory of the trained action and their
91 ability to generalize it across contexts in training situations. In humans observing someone performing
92 an action can result in a memory benefit comparable to the benefit associated with producing the action
93 (Cohen 1981, 1983; Mulligan 2003). We hypothesised that the use of the Do as I Do method, in which
94 dogs observe and also produce the action, would boost dogs' memory and generalisation of the trained
95 actions, compared to a training method that relies only on individual learning (i.e., only producing the

96 action).

97

98 2. Methods

99

100 2.1 Subjects

101 A total of 38 dog-owner pairs were recruited for this study. All the pairs had experience with training.
102 Subjects were divided in two groups (DAID group N=20 and SHA group N=18) according to their
103 skills and experience with specific training methods: in the DAID group we recruited owners who had
104 previously passed a dog-training exam with their dogs for the Do as I do method (see Fugazza and
105 Miklósi 2014b for details about the exam). In the SHA group we recruited professional dog-trainers
106 who had studied shaping / clicker training during their education for becoming dog-trainers and used
107 this method in their practice. This way we ensured that all the pairs were skilled and experienced with
108 the specific training method they were required to use during the tests. The participants were informed
109 about the aim of the study. Dogs were adult, from 1 to 11 years (SHA group: mean age 5.9 years,
110 $SD\pm 3.5$; DAID group: mean age: 5.4 years ± 2.6) and belonged to various breeds. The two groups were
111 balanced for breed-group and age as much as possible. All the dog-owner pairs were living together
112 since at least 9 months, all dogs practiced some sports and training activities with their owners and had
113 extensive experience with training. All the subjects lived in urbanised areas in northern Italy or in the
114 Barcelona area (Spain).

115

116 2.2 Experiment 1

117 The tests were carried out in different dog schools in Italy and Spain (Italian dog schools: Happy Dog
118 School, Freedog, Good Boy, Allevamento dei Grigi Audaci; Spanish dog school: Ludocan), indoor or
119 outdoor in fenced areas, according to the spaces available in the facilities. All dogs were familiar to the

120 places where they were tested.

121 Each dog-owner pair was tested during two separate training sessions in which the owner was
122 instructed to teach his / her dog two novel actions: a body movement and an object-related action, one
123 per test / training session, and to make the dog perform this action five times in a row. We chose the
124 actions to use in the tests according to lists of already trained actions previously reported by the dog
125 owners. This enabled us to find actions that were novel (i.e., never trained before) for all the dogs in
126 our sample.

127 As *object-related action* we chose ‘open a sliding door’: the door of a white cabinet (95x81x30 cm)
128 was positioned 5 cm already opened so that the dog could insert its muzzle or paw to push it open. An
129 experimenter positioned the cabinet’s door back in the starting position after the dog’s performance
130 (and also after the owner’s demonstration in the Do as I do tests).

131 As *body movement*, we chose the action ‘jump in the air’: the dog was required to raise at least the front
132 paws from a standing position. This was the only possible body movement that we found to be novel
133 for the dogs in our sample.

134 The order of administration of the two tasks (i.e., teach body movement first or teach object-related
135 action first) was randomised. An inter-test interval of at least 20 minutes elapsed between the two
136 subsequent training sessions. The timeline for a training session was 30 minutes: if the owner did not
137 reach the predetermined goal (i.e., five performances in a row of the predetermined action) within this
138 time limit, the test ended and the result was considered as a failure. Owners were informed that they
139 could decide to stop the test earlier if they thought their dog was tired or stressed. Owners were
140 instructed to stay at 1.40 m from the cabinet when they trained the object related action and at least
141 3.50 m from the cabinet when they trained the body movement.

142 *DAID group*: Owners were instructed to use only the Do as I do method. They were required to ask
143 their dogs to stay and pay attention, then they demonstrated the action to be trained and gave the ‘Do

144 it!' command. If the dog did not perform the correct action after the first demonstration, the owners
145 demonstrated it again and gave the 'Do it!' command again. They were required to demonstrate the
146 predetermined action and to give the 'Do it!' command as many times as necessary to obtain five
147 performances in a row of the predetermined action, as counted by the experimenter. They were allowed
148 to use praise, petting and food as rewards.

149 *SHA group*: Owners were instructed to use only shaping / clicker training. During the experiment they
150 either sat on a chair or stood (according to what position they used when normally training their dogs),
151 They were required to shape the spontaneous behaviour of the dog by the means of strategically timed
152 reinforcements using a clicker as a marker, followed by food reward. Owners were instructed not to
153 lure the dog's behaviour and not to give cues with their body or voice. After the clicker sound, they
154 could deliver the treat from their hands or toss it on the floor.

155 The use of food was allowed in both groups in order to keep the dogs motivated throughout quite long
156 (30 minutes) training sessions. In both groups the sessions lasted until the experimenter counted five
157 performances in a row of the predetermined action by the dog or until the 30 minutes timeline was over.
158 The training sessions were video recorded for later analysis. From the videos we determined (1) the
159 number of dogs who performed the predetermined action five times in a row within 30 minutes in the
160 two groups; (2) the time from the beginning of the training session to the fifth performance in a row of
161 the predetermined action (latency) for each individual dog. In the case of SHA group, the beginning of
162 the session was marked by the first 'click'. In the case of DAID group, the training session started
163 when the owner made the dog stay and pay attention to the first demonstration.

164

165 2.3 Experiment 2

166 After successfully obtaining five performances in a row of the action trained in the second session, the
167 successful owners were required to choose a new word (i.e., a word never used before in a training

168 context) as a verbal cue for the trained behaviour and to put this action under verbal cue, so that the dog
169 would perform the desired action upon utterance of the verbal cue. Owners had 10 minutes to
170 accomplish this task, using either Do as I do or shaping / clicker training, according to the group they
171 belonged to.

172 In the SHA group owners first pronounced the verbal cue while the dog was performing the
173 predetermined action and later they pronounced it after rewarding the dog with 'click' and food, but
174 before he started to perform the action again.

175 In the DAID group owners first demonstrated the action and then pronounced the verbal cue,
176 eventually followed by the 'Do it!' command (in case the dog did not move after the verbal cue). Later
177 the owners did not demonstrate the action any more and only uttered the verbal cue. The dogs were
178 rewarded with praise and food if they performed the predetermined action.

179 In both groups owners were suggested to vary their position and the position of the dog in the training
180 area, when pronouncing the verbal cue, in order to achieve a better generalization of the trained action
181 on verbal cue. After 10 minutes of training owners were instructed to stop and take their dogs home for
182 a 24 hours retention interval. During this delay owners and dogs were allowed to engage in their
183 habitual activities, but no training was allowed.

184 The dogs were tested on their memory of the trained action on verbal cue after a retention interval of 24
185 hours, first in a different context from that where the training took place (e.g. dogs trained inside were
186 tested outside or in a different room, according to the areas available in the facilities where the testing
187 took place. We balanced the dogs that were tested inside in a different room as much as possible – N=6
188 in the DAID group and N=6 in the SHA group). Subsequently, they were tested in the same area where
189 they had been trained the previous day. For the test, the owners were asked to position themselves next
190 to the cabinet, at a distance of 2 m from it, to lead and position their dog in front of them using cues
191 known by the dog (e.g. calling its name and using gestures to position the dog in front of them). Next,

192 the owners were required to utter the trained verbal cue while standing still, orienting themselves
193 straight forward and keeping their eyes closed, in order to prevent involuntary cues. The dog was free
194 to perform any action. This test was performed first once in the different context and then once in the
195 same context where the training took place.

196

197 2.4 Data collection and analysis

198 The difference between the two groups in the number of pairs that succeeded or failed to obtain 5
199 performances in a row of the predetermined action within 30 minutes was statistically analysed by
200 using Fisher's exact test.

201 Normality of data on latencies of those pairs that completed the task before the timeline was checked
202 with the Anderson-Darling Normality test and latency values were compared between DAID and SHA
203 group by unpaired t-tests, as they followed the normal distribution (Anderson-Darling Normality test
204 results: Object-related action: DAID group $P=0.55$; SHA group $P=0.54$; Body movement: DAID group
205 $P=2.13$; SHA group $P=0.29$).

206 We also counted the number of dogs that performed the required action upon hearing the verbal cue in
207 the two groups, in the different context and in the same context where the training session took place.

208 The number of dogs that performed the required action on verbal cue after 24 hours was compared
209 between the two groups using Fisher's exact test. As only few subjects, especially in the SHA group,
210 succeeded in obtaining the body movement and putting it on verbal cue (see Table 1), due to reduced
211 sample size, we pooled the results of object-related action and body movement together for the
212 statistical analysis.

213

214 3 Results

215 3.1 Experiment 1

216 When teaching the object-related action, more pairs in the DAID group succeeded to accomplish the
217 task within 30 minutes than pairs in the SHA group (see Table 1) (Fisher's exact test $P=0.038$).

218 Regarding the body movement, only a few pairs succeeded in the SHA group (Table 1) but we did not
219 find a significant difference between the number of successful pairs in the two groups (Fisher's exact
220 test $P=0.1014$).

221 The analysis of the latencies to the fifth performance was conservatively calculated considering only
222 the successful pairs. The latency to the fifth performance was significantly shorter in the DAID group,
223 compared to the SHA group for both the object-related action (open a sliding door; $P=0.0009$;
224 $t=3.7060$; $df=28$) and for the body movement (jump in the air; $P=0.0038$; $t=3.3197$; $df=18$) (Fig. 1).

225

226 3.2 Experiment 2

227 The pairs that were successful in obtaining five performances in a row of the second action trained in
228 Experiment 1 (For the object-related action $N = 9$ in the DAID group and $N = 8$ in the SHA group; For
229 the body movement $N = 7$ in the DAID group and $N = 3$ in the SHA group) were tested in Experiment
230 2. In the DAID group the owners of two dogs out of seven did not succeed in putting the 'Jump'
231 behaviour on verbal cue within the 10 minutes time limit. All the other owners in both groups
232 succeeded in making the dog perform the action on verbal cue.

233 The analysis of dogs' performance showed that more dogs in the DAID group than dogs in the SHA
234 group recalled the actions upon hearing the verbal cue after 24 hours in a different context (Fisher's
235 exact test $P=0.001$). When dogs were tested in the same context where the training took place we did
236 not find a difference between the two groups in the number of successful dogs (Fisher's exact test
237 $P=0.0717$) (see Fig. 2 and Table 1).

238

239 4. Discussion

240 This study shows that the Do as I do method, which relies on social learning, is more effective than
241 shaping / clicker training, which relies on individual learning, for training dogs on the complex object-
242 related action 'open a sliding door' within a relatively short time. Our results additionally suggest that
243 the Do as I do method may be used to train also different actions, such as a body movement (i.e., jump
244 in the air), at least in some cases. Importantly, this study clearly demonstrates that the use of social
245 learning with the Do as I do method enhances dogs' memory of the trained actions and their verbal cues,
246 when dogs are required to perform in a context that is different from that where the training took place,
247 thus it enhances generalization.

248 More owners in the DAID group than owners in the SHA group were able to obtain five performances
249 in a row of the predetermined object-related action within our 30 minutes timeline and the latency to
250 the fifth performance in the DAID group was shorter compared to that of the SHA group. With regard
251 to the body movement, 6 owners out of 20 in the DAID group and 11 out of 18 in the SHA group were
252 not able to obtain the predetermined action from their dog within the time limit, suggesting that this
253 action may be quite difficult to train with either method, although the lack of a significant difference
254 may be due to the small sample size. Nevertheless, considering the successful pairs only, the latency to
255 the fifth performance in a row of the body movement was shorter in the DAID group, compared to the
256 SHA group. With regard to the effect of the training method on dogs' ability to perform the trained
257 actions after a delay on verbal cue, we found that, regardless of the type of action, more pairs in the
258 DAID group than pairs in the SHA group were successful when tested in a different context.

259 The better performance by dogs in the DAID group, compared to dogs in the SHA group, with regard
260 to the object-related action 'open a sliding door', considering both the number of successful pairs and
261 the latency to the fifth performance, is consistent with the results of our previous study (Fugazza and
262 Miklósi 2014b) that showed shorter latencies to the first occurrence of the predetermined complex
263 object-related action for dogs trained with the Do as I do method compared to dogs trained with

264 shaping / clicker training. The present results thus integrate those findings by indicating that, after the
265 first occurrence of the behaviour, owners and trainers using the Do as I do method can also make it
266 consistent (i.e., obtaining more repetitions of it) in a shorter time, compared to trainers using shaping /
267 clicker training. Furthermore our results suggest that this shorter latency applies to the body movement
268 'jump' as well.

269 Better performance with these complex actions in the group trained with social learning is also
270 consistent with the findings by McElreath et al. (2005), which predict increased reliance on social
271 learning with increased task difficulty (McElreath et al. 2005). Dogs may have learned socially, from
272 the owner's demonstration, what was the goal to be achieved through goal emulation (Tomasello 1990;
273 Wood 1989) or may have also learned socially the action to achieve it through imitation (Miller et al.
274 2009; Whiten 1998).

275 The interpretation of the results obtained when the body movement was trained is less straightforward
276 than that on the object-related action. First of all it should be noted that most pairs in the SHA group
277 and also some subjects in the DAID group failed to accomplish the task within the time limit, despite
278 this timespan was twice as long as that allowed in our previous study (see Fugazza and Miklósi 2014b).
279 This suggests that either this particular action (i.e., jump in the air), or body movements in general, are
280 difficult to train with both training methods. With regard to this particular action, a possible
281 explanation may rely in a previous history of inhibition by the owners for similar actions (e.g., jump on
282 people to greet them). Although this action is different from the one we included in our tests - our
283 'jump in the air' did not imply physical contact with the owner - we cannot exclude that this possible
284 previous experience may have affected dogs likeness to jump when the owner is in front of them.
285 Further studies including different kinds of body movements could reveal the role of previous
286 inhibition experience of similar actions on dogs' learning success. When we considered the latency to
287 the fifth performance of the body movement for the successful pairs, we found significantly shorter

288 latencies in the DAID group compared to the SHA group. Our results indicate that, those dogs that
289 succeed in replicating this body movement do so in a very short time. It is possible that their success
290 relies in a non-imitative process: if they were already likely to jump because this behaviour was already
291 part of their spontaneous behaviour repertoire (although never trained), seeing the owner jump may
292 have acted as a primer to release a similar motor response defined as a response facilitation (Byrne
293 1994). Thus such priming could be very effective for the actions that are in the spontaneous behaviour
294 repertoire of the subjects. Consistent with this interpretation, two owners out of seven in the DAID
295 group did not succeed in putting the 'jump action' on verbal cue, despite having quickly succeeded in
296 obtaining five performances of this action, indicating that these two dogs were only likely to jump in
297 response to the owner's jump, but would not perform this action in absence of the demonstration. The
298 performance of these two dogs supports this facilitative hypothesis. Alternatively, it is also possible
299 that the imitation of body movements is more likely to occur if dogs are somehow predisposed to learn
300 them. Bjorklund et al. (2002) reported that chimpanzees were more likely to imitate actions of which
301 they already displayed approximations at a baseline condition without demonstration. It is thus possible
302 that dogs that already had a tendency to spontaneously perform some parts of the jump action could
303 quickly be trained to jump through imitation, because this previous experience made the demonstration
304 particularly salient and effective (see also Whiten 1998).

305 Importantly, the results of the present study indicate that the human demonstration of the action to be
306 trained enhances dogs' memory of this action and of its verbal cue when they are tested after a delay in
307 a context that differs from that where the training took place. Thus the use of the Do as I do method
308 enhances the generalization process. When dogs were tested in the same context where the training
309 took place, most dogs were able to perform the trained action on verbal cue and we did not find a
310 significant difference between the amount of successful dogs in the two groups. However the
311 difference was strikingly evident when the dogs were tested in a different context, with most dogs in

312 the DAID group, but only one dog in the SHA group, performing the required action. This indicates
313 that the beneficial effect of the human demonstration is evident when the task is more difficult, such as
314 in the case of remembering an action in absence of contextual cues that may facilitate recall. From a
315 cognitive perspective, this result strongly supports that dogs form mental representations of others'
316 actions and store these representations in their memory (Fugazza and Miklósi 2014a), similarly to 12-
317 month-old human infants (Klein and Meltzoff 1999). Thus it is very likely that observing the owner
318 performing the demonstration of the trained action and the mental representation formed through this
319 observation, facilitate dogs' recall in challenging situations, such as when they are required to perform
320 in a different context - which is also a typical requirement of dog training, where dogs are trained in the
321 dog school or at home and are then required to perform the trained actions in other daily situations. The
322 better ability to recall the trained action in the DAID group is also consistent with the benefit in
323 human's memory after the observation of a demonstrator and one's own practice of the actions (Cohen
324 1983; Cohen et al. 1987; Mulligan 2003). In our case the effect may be even more evident because
325 dogs could both observe the demonstration (thus forming a mental representation of it) and produce the
326 action during training (thus motor practicing it) (Hayne 2003).

327 Shaping procedures have proven effective for training a wide range of species (Langbein et al. 2007;
328 Gillis et al. 2012) and shaping / clicker training is also widely employed in dog training (Pryor 2005).
329 There is no doubt that this method is effective for training dogs, as dogs can learn individually, through
330 associations, as well as all the other species in which this ability has been tested (Williams 1994).
331 Nevertheless dogs' predisposition to attend to humans and learn socially from them (e.g., Pongrácz
332 2003), in addition to the puppies' early socialization with humans (Frank 1980), may make dogs
333 particularly inclined to be trained using methods that rely on social learning, such as the Do as I do
334 method. Thus social learning methods in dog training may be more in line with the natural
335 predispositions of dogs.

336 The subjects of our study were pet dogs that had received a specific training and passed an exam either
337 on shaping / clicker training or on the Do as I do method. In principle, all well socialized pet dogs can
338 be trained, thus these results are relevant to all well socialized pet dogs, provided they are properly
339 trained with either method. We acknowledge that many factors, such as previous experience, rearing
340 history etc. may influence the training success. For example different experiences with humans (e.g.
341 laboratory dogs) provide a substantially different ontogenetic background that may affect the success of
342 specific training methods relying on social interactions between humans and dogs (Lazarowski and
343 Dorman 2015). Moreover specific types of training may have an effect on related factors such as
344 responsiveness to social contexts (e.g. Merola et al. 2013), thus we advice cautiousness in
345 automatically extending the results of the present study to dogs with different experiences. However we
346 believe that this study represents a step forward towards a wider knowledge of the benefits of the use of
347 social learning in the applied field of dog training.

348

349 5. Conclusion

350 This study shows that the Do as I do method, which relies on social learning is more effective than
351 shaping / clicker training, which relies on individual learning, to train dogs to perform consistently
352 object-related actions in a relatively short time. Our results also suggest that similar outcomes may be
353 also obtained regarding a body movement (jump), although this action was difficult for many dogs
354 trained with either method. Interestingly, the use of social learning with the Do as I do method
355 enhances dogs' memory of the trained actions and of their verbal cues, when dogs are required to
356 perform in different contexts, thus it enhances generalization. This suggests that the mental
357 representation of the trained action that emerges as a result of the two methods is rather different.

358

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365

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451

452 **Table 1** Experiment 1: Number of pairs in the Do as I do group (DAID) and Shaping group (SHA) that
 453 succeeded in obtaining 5 performances in a row of the predetermined actions within 30 minutes;
 454 Experiment 2: Number of dogs in the two groups that performed the requested actions on cue in a
 455 different context and in the same context where the training took place.

EXPERIMENT 1: N. of pairs that succeeded within 30 min.				
	Object-related action		Body movement	
	DAID (N=20)	SHA (N=18)	DAID (N=20)	SHA (N=18)
	19	12	14	7
EXPERIMENT 2: N. of dogs that performed the requested action on cue				
	Object-related action		Body movement	
	DAID (N=9)	SHA (N=8)	DAID (N=5)	SHA (N=3)
Different context	6	1	5	0
Same context	9	6	5	2

456

457

458 Figure captions:

459 **Figure 1** Mean latency \pm SD to the fifth performance in a row of the predetermined action in the Do as I
 460 do group (DAID) and in the shaping / clicker training group (SHA). ** Indicate statistical significant
 461 difference (t test: Body movement: $P=0.0038$; Object-related action: $P=0.0009$).

462 **Figure 2** Number of dogs in the two groups that performed and did not perform the required action on
 463 verbal cue in a different context and in the same context where the training took place. ** indicate
 464 statistical significant difference (Fisher's exact test: $P = 0.001$).

465 **Highlights**

- 466 • We compared the effect of two training methods on behavioural consistency
- 467 • Dogs had to perform trained actions on verbal cue in different contexts
- 468 • Do as I do (DAID) was more effective than shaping (SHA) within our time limit
- 469 • Training time to behavioural consistency was shorter for dogs trained with DAID
- 470 • More dogs trained with DAID performed the actions on cue in a different context
- 471

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