

Elsevier required licence: © 2021

This manuscript version is made available under the
CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license

<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

The definitive publisher version is available online at

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jveb.2021.08.001>

1 Running head: COMPOUND STIMULUS CONTROL

2

3

4

5 The Effectiveness of Visual and Auditory Elements of a Compound Stimulus in 6 Controlling Behavior in the Domestic Dog (*Canis familiaris*)

7

8

Selina Gibsone^a; E. Anne McBride^a; Edward S. Redhead^a; Kristie E. Cameron^b; Lewis

10 A. Bizo^c,

11

12 Author's Institution:

13 A University of Southampton

14 B Unitec, Institute of Technology, Auckland

15 C University of Technology Sydney

16

17 Corresponding Author: Dr Edward S. Redhead

18 Email: E.Redhead@soton.ac.uk

19 Address: School of Psychology

20 University of Southampton

21 University Road

22 SO17 1BJ

23 UK

24

1 **Research Highlights**

2 Hand signals and voice signals are commonly used by owners and handlers to control the
3 behavior of both companion and working dogs. However, the common practice of
4 training animals with compound stimuli may introduce sources of error and later failure
5 to respond correctly to cues.

6 Dogs performed a target behavior in response to a two-element compound stimulus
7 composed of a hand (visual) signal and a voice (auditory) signal.

8 When tested with individual elements of the compound stimulus there was a significant
9 decrease in correct responses compared to the trained compound stimulus.

10 The majority of dogs responded at higher rates to auditory-only cues than to visual-only
11 cues.

12 Subsequent poor responding to the elements of a stimulus has implications for the
13 success of training assistance/service dogs when a compound stimulus has been used
14 initially.

15

Abstract

This study measured the responses of dogs to signals delivered via hand and voice signals. The study sought to determine whether dogs would display differential stimulus control when switching from a compound stimulus (auditory-visual) cue to presentation of only one of its elements. Twelve dogs performed a target behavior in response to a two-element compound stimulus composed of a hand (visual modality) signal and a voice (auditory modality) signal. The mean percent correct responses to the visual element ($M = 56.5$, $SD = 20.74$) and the auditory element ($M = 67.5$, $SD = 21.57$) were both significantly lower than the 85% correct for the compound stimulus, $p < 0.017$. There was also evidence of a preference for one of the elements of the compound stimulus. The mean percent correct for the more favoured element ($M = 77.25$, $SD = 12.53$) was significantly higher than for the less favoured element ($M = 46.75$, $SD = 17.2$), $p < 0.001$. The identity of the favoured element was not consistent across the animals with 75% preferring the auditory element and 25% the visual element. This study contributes to an understanding of factors related to the stimulus control of learned behaviors. The differential control of behavior by alternative cues has implications for the training of assistance or service and other working animals with multiple cues. The results would strongly suggest that training with a compound stimulus is not appropriate if only elements of the compound stimulus are to be subsequently used.

20

21 Keywords: Compound stimuli, stimulus control, discrimination, dog training, dog

22

23

1 The Effectiveness of Visual and Auditory Elements of a Compound Stimulus in
2 Controlling Behavior in the Domestic Dog (*Canis familiaris*)

3

4 Hand signals and voice signals are commonly used together to control the
5 behavior of both companion and working dogs (*Canis lupus familiaris*; Erlandson, 1994;

6 McConnell, 2002; Scrimgeour, 2002). For example, Hearing Dogs for Deaf People is an
7 UK-based organization that trains dogs to assist people with severe hearing impairment.

8 The dogs are trained to respond to both hand and voice signals. In training, these signals

9 are delivered simultaneously as elements of a compound stimulus, where each element

10 predicts a common outcome (Fetterman, 1996). When dogs are assigned to a potential

11 recipient, they are further trained to respond solely to the element of the cue that is most

12 appropriate to that recipient's physical abilities. Many recipients are profoundly deaf and

13 have difficulties using speech and thus find hand signals easier to use (Guest, 2003). In a

14 survey of fifty-one recipients who applied for a hearing dog between 1991 and 1993,

15 nearly 8% indicated little or no speech, 31.4% reported some speech and 60.8% indicated

16 normal speech. Conversely, some recipients reported voice cues were easier to use due to

17 mobility or balance problems (Guest, 2003). Training animals with compound stimuli

18 composed of two elements may introduce sources of error and later failure to respond

19 correctly, especially when presented with only one element of the compound stimulus.

20 This may be of particular importance when training working animals, such as those used

21 as assistance dogs for persons with disabilities.

22 Developing a good understanding of those factors that promote or detract from

23 training is of considerable applied importance. For example, the role of clickers used in

1 training dogs and horses (*Equus caballus*) has recently received some attention, with
2 there being no obvious benefit observed when clickers or spoken words were used than
3 when they were not (Williams et al., 2004; Chiandetti et al., 2016).

4 The development of stimulus control over behavior has a long tradition in the
5 study of animal learning, which translates well to applied animal behavior (Moser et
6 al., 2019). A seminal contribution to our understanding of stimulus control by Reynolds
7 (1961) reported differential stimulus control of responses by two pigeons (*Columbidae*
8 spp.) to individual elements of a compound stimulus to which they had been trained to
9 respond. The compound stimulus was a white triangle on a red disk. When tested with the
10 individual elements, one pigeon responded almost exclusively to the white triangle and
11 the other to the red disk, despite the pigeons receiving the same training. A replication by
12 Blackmore et al. (2016) had two cows (*Bos taurus*) learn to discriminate a red cross from
13 a yellow triangle. In subsequent testing, they found that color but not shape controlled
14 behavior. These and other studies demonstrate that, though the trained stimulus includes
15 more than one element, only one of the elements controls the response (Reynolds, 1968;
16 Sutherland and Mackintosh, 1971; Pearce and Bouton, 2001).

17 One explanation for this phenomena is overshadowing (Reynolds, 1961).
18 Overshadowing occurs when one element of a compound stimulus acquires more control
19 of behavior than the other (Foree and Lolordo, 1973; Spetch, 1995; Fetterman, 1996).
20 The presence of the stronger or more salient element can overshadow the weaker or less
21 salient element, thereby controlling the behavior (Miles and Jenkins, 1973; Mackintosh,
22 1976). Overshadowing has been demonstrated in a wide variety of species and for a range
23 of behaviors. For example, in dogs, it has been shown to influence their timing of fixed

1 intervals (Macpherson and Roberts, 2017) and the learning of verbal cues for different
2 types of responses (Ramos and Mills, 2019). The salience of an element can be
3 manipulated by increasing its intensity or its probability of predicting reinforcement (Wagner et al, 1968; Miles and Jenkins, 1973).

5 Which element of a compound stimulus is more salient to an animal may be
6 influenced by species-specific characteristics (Timberlake, 1994). Indeed researchers
7 have shown that the type of stimulus that more readily becomes associated with an
8 outcome can vary across species (Garcia and Koelling, 1966; Wilcoxon et al., 1971), and,
9 particularly important to the current study, across different breeds of dog, (Lipman and
10 Grassi, 1942; Heffner, 1983; Miklósi, 2007; Autier-Derian et al., 2013; Miklósi, and
11 Kubinyi, 2016; Byosiere et al., 2018).

12 One study investigated the response of dogs to a compound stimulus composed of
13 a light and a tone (Haney and Crowder, 1977). They reported that the visual element
14 overshadowed the auditory element, and came to control the behavior of the dogs more
15 effectively. However, another study found that dogs responded more reliably to the
16 auditory than the visual element of a compound stimulus (Jenkins et al., 1978).

17 The behavior being trained can also influence which element of a compound
18 stimulus is more salient and comes to control the behavior. For example, Dobrzecka et al.
19 (1966) trained dogs to place their right paw on a feeder on hearing a metronome (auditory
20 cue) positioned in front of them (spatial cue) and to place their left paw on the feeder on
21 hearing a buzzer (auditory cue) positioned behind them (spatial cue). He found that the
22 spatial cue controlled dogs' performance more than the auditory cue. The dogs were
23 almost unable to correctly complete this task when only the auditory cues were available.

1 However, when the dogs were trained to simply lift their right paw on hearing a
2 metronome positioned behind or not raising the paw on hearing the buzzer behind, the
3 type of sound rather than the spatial position, controlled behavior.

4 The examples discussed indicate that dogs may be differentially prepared to
5 perform particular behaviors in response to certain stimuli. The inherited characteristics
6 of an animal may affect which elements of a compound stimulus are more salient,
7 depending on the reinforcer. In some settings, the nature of the stimulus being detected
8 may be quite complex such as is the case with odor detection. (Moser et al., 2020).

9 The current study aimed to determine whether dogs' performance of a specific
10 cued response would decline when switching from a compound stimulus (hand gesture
11 and voice signal) to a presentation of only one of its elements. This is the first time the
12 performance of such cues, prevalent in the training of assistance dogs, have been
13 investigated within a controlled experimental study. It was hypothesized that
14 performance would drop when switching from a compound stimulus to one of its
15 elements due to overshadowing (Reynolds, 1961). The secondary aim was to investigate
16 whether there was a consistent preferred modality of the compound stimulus across the
17 dogs to provide further information as to optimal training technique. We use the word
18 modality throughout the paper to indicate the particular mode in which the signal is given
19 (i.e., in a visual or auditory mode). Therefore, we tested whether the hand gesture (visual
20 modality) or voice signal (auditory modality) produced better responding when presented
21 alone.

22 In addition, the dogs in the study were from a variety of breeds. Therefore, it may
23 be expected that there would be a variation in responses to stimulus modality based on

1 their breed (Autier-Derian et al., 2013). Such data would provide insight into the optimal
2 stimulus modality to use when training assistance dogs.

3 **Method**

4 **Subjects**

5 A total of 16 dogs (seven males, nine females) of various breeds with a mean age
6 of 3.3 years ($SD = 2.14$) took part in this study. Four dogs did not complete the
7 experiment and their data is not included in the analysis. All dogs were pets owned by
8 dog training staff at Hearing Dogs for Deaf People. No dog was part of a multi-dog
9 household. Previous to start of experiment all dogs had been trained to sit and lay down
10 using the same simultaneous visual and verbal signals, but none had prior experience
11 with training for the experimental behavior of touching a cup. Table 1 provides the
12 demographic details of the dogs that completed the experiment.

13 <<Insert Table 1 about here>>

14 The dogs were randomly assigned to one of two groups, Group 1 and Group 2, to
15 control for cue presentation order during training and testing. Stimuli, both the compound
16 stimulus and the individual elements, were presented in pseudo-random order, such that
17 the same cues could not occur more than three times in a row (Please see supplementary
18 materials Appendix A and B).

19

20 This research was conducted with the approval of the Programme Ethical Review
21 Body at the University of Southampton.

22 **Apparatus**

1 All training and testing sessions were conducted in a quiet, undisturbed room in
2 the owner's home. The room chosen minimized outside distraction, for example, being
3 away from the road.

4 The food used to reinforce behavior was Arden Grange Classic Adult (Arden
5 Grange, Albourne, West Sussex, UK) dry complete dog food. One piece of this food
6 weighed 0.5 g and was approximately 1 cm in diameter, and 0.5 cm thick.

7 Food pellets were delivered through a small opening on one side of the wooden
8 box (20 cm x 20 cm x 20 cm) that enclosed a commercially available operant food
9 dispenser (MED-Associates Inc, ENV-203, Fairfax, VT, USA). When the Experimenter
10 depressed a plastic treadle with her foot, a single food pellet was released.

11 The cup, which the dog had to learn to touch with its nose, was a black cardboard cup
12 (Hieght 15 cm, Width 9 cm) upside down and stapled to a card (Length 12 cm x Width
13 12 cm) placed on the floor. Each dog used the same cup for all its training and test
14 sessions. A different cup was used for each dog. For all sessions, the duration of the trials
15 was recorded using a stopwatch, responses were recorded on a clipboard around the
16 experimenter's neck and only the experimenter (SG) and the dog were present in the
17 room. The experimenter was an experienced pet and Hearing Dog trainer.

18 The experimenter wore a baseball cap low over her face to reduce influence of
19 facial expressions and eye gaze over the behavior of the dog. The experimenter presented
20 cues to the dog from a fixed position relative to the apparatus and the dog, as shown in
21 Figure 1 and recorded the duration of the trials using a stopwatch and recorded the dogs
22 responses on a clipboard around her neck.

23 <<Insert Figure 1 about here>>

1 **Procedure**

2 Prior to the study all dogs had been previously trained by their owner to respond
3 to two compound stimuli; 'SIT' and 'DOWN'. The owners were all staff at hearing dogs
4 for deaf people and followed the same training methodology as the organisation.

5 *SIT* – 'sit' spoken word + hand signal 1.

6 *DOWN* – 'down' spoken word + hand signal 2.

7 See Figure 2 for detailed description of hand signals used for SIT and DOWN.

8 <<Insert Figure 2 about here>>

9 Before commencing the first session, the Experimenter verified the dog's
10 competency at performing responses to the SIT and Down compound stimuli by requiring
11 the dog to correctly respond to each compound stimulus on 10 occasions. The responses
12 were not reinforced.

13 **Training**

14 The experiment was conducted over a period of nine days for each dog. Each day
15 consisted of four short training sessions lasting no longer than 30 minutes with a 10
16 minute break between sessions. Dogs were deprived of food for at least 6 hours before
17 each session.

18 **Magazine Training:** The dog was allowed to enter and freely explore the room
19 by the experimenter. When the dog was within 30 cm of the food dispenser the
20 experimenter pressed the treadle to release one pellet of food. The next food pellet would
21 not be released until the pellet had been eaten and the dog had turned away from the food
22 dispenser. Magazine training ended when the dogs immediately approached food
23 dispenser on hearing food pellet released on 20 consecutive trials.

1 **Shaping cup touching behaviour:** The dogs were trained to touch the cup using
2 a method of shaping by successive approximations with the following four response
3 criteria: Look at cup; Approach cup; Sniff cup; Place paw on cup.
4 At the start of shaping, the dog was again allowed to freely explore the room. For the
5 first response criterion the experimenter waited for the dog to look at the cup. When the
6 dog had made a correct response, a single piece of food was delivered to the dog via the
7 food dispenser. When the dog had made 40 reinforced responses the criterion for
8 reinforcement was changed to Approach cup. At each criterion level reinforcement was
9 withheld for the previous response and only given when they had accomplished the
10 current response. Once the dog had performed the response of touching the cup 40 times
11 this stage of training was concluded.

12 **Training response to compound stimulus:** At the start of each trial the dog was
13 brought in front of the Experimenter and given the SIT signal. Before the compound
14 stimulus CUP was given, the dog was required to be looking at the experimenter to
15 ensure the dog could both see the hand signal and hear the voice signal. The compound
16 stimulus CUP would then be given to the dog (see Figure 2 for detailed description of
17 hand signal used for CUP). The experimenter spoke all vocal elements in a quiet, neutral
18 and calm voice.

19 The Experimenter waited for the dog to touch the cup. When it did so, the dog
20 received a single piece of food delivered by the food dispenser. If the dog did not perform
21 the behaviour within 10 s of the compound stimulus being presented the shaping
22 procedure was resumed with reinforcement given for touching the cup without presenting
23 the compound stimulus. After the dog performed the behaviour 40 times during the

1 shaping procedure, training with the compound stimulus was restarted. The stage was
2 completed when the dog had performed the correct response following the CUP
3 compound stimulus on 40 consecutive trials.

4 **Maintenance of Responding by Partial Reinforcement:** The Down compound
5 stimulus was added at this stage of training to ensure the dogs had associated the
6 appropriate response with the CUP cue rather than merely repeating a frequently
7 reinforced behaviour.

8 For each trial, the dog was first required to sit in front of the Experimenter with
9 the SIT signal. The trials consisted of an equal number of DOWN and CUP compound
10 stimuli in the order prescribed for Group 1 and 2 (see supplementary materials
11 Appendices A). All correct responses resulted in food being delivered via the food
12 dispenser. If the dog made an incorrect response, it would receive a correction trial,
13 where the cue was repeated. The same signal was given on each correction trial until the
14 dog responded correctly. Once the dog maintained 90% accuracy over 20 consecutive
15 trials, the rate of reinforcement was decreased to 70%. Correct responses on 14 of the 20
16 trials were followed by a pellet delivery, the order of reinforced and non-reinforced trials
17 is shown in supplementary materials. Reinforcement stayed at this level until the dog
18 maintained 90% accuracy over 20 consecutive trials. If the accuracy dropped below 90%,
19 the rate of reinforcement was restored to the previous level until performance recovered
20 to 90% over 20 consecutive trials. Once this criteria was met, reinforcement rate was
21 reduced to 50% and the same procedure followed. Finally, the reinforcement rate was
22 reduced to 35% until the dog maintained 90% accuracy over 20 consecutive trials.

23

1 **Experimental Testing**

2 Before each trial, the dog was first required to sit in front of the Experimenter.

3 The control stimuli were the DOWN and CUP compound stimuli. The test stimuli were
4 the elements "*cup-Verbal*" and "*cup-Hand*".

5 The experiment was run in sets of 60 trials that comprised 40 control trials (20
6 each of DOWN and CUP compound stimuli) on which 50% of correct responses were
7 reinforced. Interspersed were the 20 test trials (10 each of element stimuli *cup-H* and *cup-*
8 *V*). A dog's response on the test trials was never reinforced. The order of test trials were
9 arranged such that elements of the same modality did not occur immediately after each
10 other. The order of trials and reinforcement can be seen in supplementary materials
11 Appendix B. Each dog completed ten experimental sets, thus there were 400 control and
12 200 test trials.

13 The experimenter recorded the time taken to complete each experimental set and
14 the correct response to each trial. A response to the test trials was considered incorrect if
15 a dog did not carry out the required response. If the error was in a control trial, the dog
16 experienced a correction trial where the stimulus was repeated. If the dog then responded
17 correctly, the testing continued. If the dog's performance on the combined control trials
18 fell below 85% over a 20 trial block, the testing was stopped. For example, within a block
19 of twenty trials, seven were test trials and thirteen were control trials, so the dogs had to
20 respond correctly to eleven of the thirteen control trials to continue. If the dog made more
21 than two errors to the control trials, the dog was then presented with twenty compound
22 stimulus training trials reinforced at 100% to bring performance back up. Testing would

1 then resume at the point it had been halted. The study was ended once all of the 10 sets
2 of trials had been successfully completed.

3

4 **Results**

5 **Training Shaping, Compound Stimulus and Partial reinforcement**

6 The mean time to successfully complete shaping for each of the dogs can be seen
7 in Table 2.

8 <<Insert Table 2 about here>>

9 An independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the dogs in Groups 1
10 and 2 was not significant, $t(10) = -1.1, p = 0.295$. The mean time to successfully
11 complete initial training with the CUP compound stimulus for each of the dogs can be
12 seen in Table 2. An independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the
13 dogs in Groups 1 and 2 was not significant, $t(10) = -1.4, p = 0.180$. A further
14 independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the dogs that subsequently
15 favoured the visual element of the compound stimulus to those that favoured the hand
16 element was not significant, $t(10) = 0.52, p = 0.612$. The mean time to successfully
17 complete training with the partially reinforced control compound stimuli for each of the
18 dogs can be seen in Table 2. An independent samples t-test showed that the difference
19 between the dogs in Groups 1 and 2 was not significant, $t(10) = -0.08, p = 0.993$. A
20 further independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the dogs that
21 subsequently favoured the visual element of the compound stimulus to those that
22 favoured the hand element was also not significant, $t(10) = -0.76, p = 0.463$.

23 **Test stage**

1 The mean time to successfully complete the test stage for each of the dogs can be
2 seen in Table 3. An independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the
3 dogs in Groups 1 ($M = 4012.00$ s, $SD = 329.66$) and 2 ($M = 3672.00$ s, $SD = 825.76$) was
4 not significant, $t(10) = 0.93$, $p = 0.372$.

5 The percentage correct response to control compound stimuli and test elements
6 stimuli for each dog during the ten sets of training trials can be seen in Table 3.

7 <<Insert Table 3 about here>>

8 The mean percentage correct responses for all dogs for the CUP compound stimulus and
9 the two test stimuli (*cup-H* and *cup-V*) across the 10 trial sets can be seen in Fig 3.

10 <<Insert Figure 3 about here>>

11 To confirm this impression a mixed-design ANOVA of group x stimulus x trial set was
12 performed with the percentage correct responses as the dependent variable. There was no
13 significant difference between the groups, $F < 1$ nor were there any significant
14 interactions involving the groups, (Group x Stimulus, $F < 1$; Group x Trial Set, $F(9, 90)$
15 = 1.33, $p = 0.273$; Group x Stimulus x Trial Set, $F < 1$). The effect of trial set was also
16 not significant, $F(9, 90) = 1.95$, $p = 0.054$, nor was the interaction between trial set and
17 stimulus, $F(9, 90) = 1.15$, $p = 0.307$. The difference between stimuli was significant, F
18 $(2, 20) = 9.17$, $p = 0.001$. To examine the difference between the stimuli further three
19 Post hoc paired t-tests were performed comparing the mean percentage responding to the
20 Cup Compound stimulus collapsed across trial sets to both the test element stimuli and
21 comparing the test stimuli to each other. Using the Bonferroni correction, percentage
22 correct responding to the Cup Compound Stimulus ($M = 89.79$, $SD = 3.52$) was found to
23 be significantly higher than to the *cup-H* stimulus ($M = 56.33$, $SD = 20.87$), $t(11) = -5.58$,

1 $p < 0.001$ and significantly higher than to the *cup-V* stimulus ($M = 65.99$, $SD = 20.94$), t
2 (11) = -3.89, $p = 0.03$. The difference between the test element stimuli was not
3 significant, t (11) = 0.93, $p = 0.366$. Therefore, the dogs' performance, when presented
4 with the CUP compound stimulus was significantly superior to their performance to both
5 the elements when presented alone.

6 Even though there was no consistent difference between the hand and voice
7 elements there were clear individual differences for all dogs. Table 4 shows the
8 percentage correct responses to *cup-H* and *cup-V* for each dog. Eight of the twelve dogs
9 responded more accurately to the voice signal, and four more accurately to the hand
10 signal. For some, these differences were substantial, such as for Fizz, Jinx, Scout, and
11 Pippa.

12 <<Insert Table 4 about here>>

13 Two individual dogs, Fizz and Scout, showed extreme preferences for one
14 modality. Fizz performed 97% correct responses for the voice signal presented alone and
15 25% correct responses to the hand signal. Scout performed 88% correct responses for the
16 hand signal alone, and 25% correct for the voice signal alone.

17 The mean performance suggests the dogs did not show superior performance to a
18 particular stimulus modality (hand or vocal). However, as each dog appeared to favor one
19 modality over the other it is important to compare the performance of the favored element
20 stimulus to the Cup compound stimulus to see if there is still a drop in performance to
21 this favoured stimulus. An independent samples t-test with time to complete the test stage
22 as the dependent variable showed that the difference between the dogs that favored the

1 voice signal ($M = 3961.25$ s, $SD = 386.87$) and those that favoured the hand signal ($M =$
2 3604.75 s, $SD = 985.12$) was not significant, $t(10) = 0.92$, $p = 0.377$.

3 The mean percentage correct responses for all dogs for the CUP compound
4 stimulus and the Dominant and Weak modality stimuli across the 10 trial sets can be seen
5 in Fig 4.

6 <>Insert Figure 4 about here>>

7 The Dominant modality elicits a higher percentage correct responses than the
8 weaker modality stimulus but, the Dominant stimulus is still lower than the CUP
9 Compound stimulus across all Trial sets including the first. A mixed-design ANOVA of
10 modality preference (voice and hand signal) x stimulus (Dominant, Weak and Compound
11 stimulus) x trial set was performed to investigate the difference between the more and
12 less favored modality and their relationship to the CUP compound control stimulus. The
13 percentage correct responses to the three stimuli was the dependent variable. There was
14 no significant effect of modal preference, $F < 1$ nor were there any significant
15 interactions involving the modal preference, (Modal Preference x Stimulus; Modal
16 Preference x Trial Set; Modal Preference x Stimulus x Trial Set, $F_s < 1$). The effect of
17 trial set was also not significant, $F(9, 90) = 1.94$, $p = 0.056$, nor was there a significant
18 interaction between trial set and stimulus, $F(18, 180) = 1.59$, $p < 0.300$. The difference
19 between stimuli was significant, $F(2, 20) = 39.20$, $p < 0.001$. To examine the difference
20 between the stimuli further 3 Post hoc paired t-tests were performed comparing the mean
21 percentage responding to the Cup Compound stimulus collapsed across session to the
22 Dominant and Weak element stimuli and comparing these test stimuli to each other.
23 Using the Bonferroni correction, percentage correct responding to the Cup Compound

1 Stimulus ($M = 89.79, SD = 3.52$) was found to be significantly higher than to the
2 Dominant stimulus ($M = 76.42, SD = 11.48$), $t(11) = -4.55, p = 0.001$ and significantly
3 higher than to the Weak stimulus ($M = 45.91, SD = 16.91$), $t(11) = -8.49, p < 0.001$. The
4 difference between the test element stimuli was also significant, $t(11) = 5.68, p < 0.001$.
5 Therefore, the dogs' performance, when presented with the CUP compound stimulus was
6 significantly superior to their performance to both the Dominant and Weak elements
7 when presented alone and responses to the favored test stimulus was greater than to the
8 less favoured element.

9 There were not enough animals in each breed group for a statistical analysis of
10 breed differences. The two terriers both showed a preference to hand signals. The two
11 collie types and the two Labradors showed a preference for voice signals. Four spaniels
12 showed a preference for voice signals and two a preference for hand signals (See Table
13 4).

14 **Association between training and responding to test stimuli**

15 To test if there was any relationship between the length of time it took to train an
16 animal to criterion during the various stages of training and the observed outcomes of the
17 test results a series of Pearson r correlations was performed. Time to train each dog
18 during each stage was correlated with the dog's performance on each trial set for each
19 test stimulus during the test stage. There was a significant negative correlation between
20 the time to initially train the dogs to the Cup compound stimulus and the outcome of *cup-*
21 *H* trials in the final three trial sets. For trial set 8, $r(12) = -0.593, p < 0.042$, for trial set 9,
22 $r(12) = -0.612, p < 0.034$, and for trial set 10, $r(12) = -0.586, p < 0.045$. The longer it
23 took to train the dogs to touch the cup following the CUP compound stimulus, the weaker

1 the responding to the Hand element stimulus in the final trial sets of testing. There were
2 no other significant correlations between time to train and responding to test stimuli.

Discussion

The present study investigated the effects of training dogs to hand and voice signals as a compound stimulus and testing with the individual elements. The rationale for the study was its application to a real-world situation, specifically the initial training of assistance dogs to a compound stimulus with subsequent use of the element most appropriate to that recipient's physical abilities. Compared to the initially trained compound stimulus, there was a significant reduction in correct responding to the visual and auditory elements presented individually. It is important to note that this lower level of correct responding is seen from the very first trial set. Unlike the Compound Stimulus where the animals received partial reinforcement and correction trials to maintain the level of responding, the responses to the Test stimuli were never reinforced. Any lower percentage of correct responding towards the end of the study could be attributed to this absence of food following a correct response. However, as seen in Fig 3, the level of responding is fairly constant across trial sets, and there was no significant effect of trial set or trial set x trial type interaction in the analysis of this data. The lower level of percentage correct responding can only be due to the perceived difference between the trained Cup Compound stimulus and the test stimuli. This decrease in correct responding to the elements of the compound stimulus aligns with evidence from other studies and, as described in the introduction, can be predicted by overshadowing of one element of the stimulus compound by the more salient element (Wolf, 1963; Miller and Ackley, 1970; Kehoe et al., 1994).

1 It could be possible that dogs were responding to other non-verbal cues that we
2 have not completely controlled for in the study. Measures were taken to limit the gaze
3 cues provided by the eyes of the experimenter as to the correct response by requiring the
4 experimenter to wear a baseball cap. However, it has to be acknowledged that this would
5 not completely rule out use of gaze cues by the dogs in addition to the compound
6 stimulus and individual elements of the compound stimulus. In a future experiment it
7 might be useful to use a cue which completely obscured such cues or an experimenter
8 that is blinded to the correct responses.

9 Numerically more dogs displayed preferential responding to the voice signals than
10 to the hand gestures suggesting that the auditory element of the compound stimulus was
11 more salient than the visual element. This finding contrasts with those of Haney and
12 Crowder (1977) who found that a visual stimulus (a light) exerted greater stimulus
13 control than an auditory stimulus (a tone) for dogs in a modified operant chamber. The
14 different findings in the current study may be due to the different presentation of stimuli
15 in isolation, compared to via a human. The current experiment was explicitly designed to
16 be more applicable to the real-world practice of dog training and thus be more
17 ecologically valid. It may be interesting to compare responses of dogs to human-
18 delivered hand signals and voice signals with arbitrary mechanically-delivered stimuli
19 such as lights and tones.

20 The dogs used in the present study were not hearing assistance dogs. However, it
21 may be that the observed preference for the auditory over visual element is more
22 pronounced in hearing assistance dogs. The role of a hearing dog is to respond to a
23 variety of household sounds, so dogs that are more responsive to auditory stimuli are

1 more likely to be selected. Therefore, these dogs may be more likely to respond to any
2 auditory stimuli, including voice, rather than visual stimuli. When the training uses
3 compound stimuli, this inherent favoring of auditory stimuli will make it more difficult to
4 train these dogs to respond reliably to just hand signals as necessary for particular
5 recipients. It would therefore be valuable to repeat the current study with working
6 assistance dogs to test this hypothesis.

7 An alternative explanation for the preference for one element of the compound
8 stimulus over another may be due to previous exposure to that element. This is termed
9 blocking (Reynolds, 1968) and is a common phenomenon in the animal learning
10 literature (Kamin, 1969). Blocking occurs when one element of a compound stimulus
11 has previously signalled an outcome. This will lead the animal to only attend to this
12 element of the compound stimulus during training with the compound stimulus and
13 prevent learning about the other (Ono and Iwabuchi, 1997). A future study where one
14 element of the compound stimulus is explicitly pre-trained would provide useful
15 information regarding the impact of blocking on subsequent training with a compound
16 stimulus and subsequent level of responding to the individual elements.

17 It has to be acknowledged that individual training histories of the dogs, including
18 pre-training to the SIT and DOWN signals could have resulted in the individual
19 differences seen in the performance to the two elements of the compound stimuli. For
20 example, Fizz showed the largest preference for the voice signal over the hand signal and
21 this may reflect differences in previous training. Fizz took part in agility training where
22 the dog responds to the handler from a distance meaning the dog cannot always see the
23 handler. This may have lead Fizz to become more attentive to voice signals than hand

1 signals. It would have been informative if the elements of the SIT and Down had also
2 been separately tested to assess the consistency of the modality preference for each dog.

3 While individual histories may have influenced to which modalities they attended,
4 preferences might also reflect an inherited tendency. Research has shown that breeds may
5 differ in their problem-solving ability, emotional reactivity, and motivational
6 characteristics (Scott and Fuller, 1965). The small sample in the present study precludes
7 any definitive conclusion, but it would be valuable to investigate the possibility of breed-
8 specific preferences for responding to different modalities of stimuli.

9 Regardless of whether preferences develop through earlier training or inherent
10 tendencies of the breed, the present study demonstrates that training a compound stimulus
11 may not be the most effective means of training if only one element of the compound
12 stimulus is to be subsequently used. It would be helpful if further research could
13 investigate the ease with which the element stimuli could be subsequently trained. If
14 previous training history is key and blocking (Kamin, 1968) is responsible for the drop in
15 responding it may be that further training might not help. It would be useful to investigate
16 how long the effect of blocking might last or whether it is even possible to train the
17 element for that particular response.

18 In conclusion, the paper demonstrated that when the elements of a trained
19 compound stimulus were presented individually, there was a decrease in the percentage
20 of correct responses. This is in line with both overshadowing (Reynolds, 1961) and
21 blocking (Kamin, 1969), phenomena commonly seen in animal learning literature. There
22 was also evidence of a preference for one of the elements of the compound stimulus in
23 most dogs, although the favoured modality was not consistent across the animals. The

1 results suggest a need to consider the optimal modality of signal in terms of the client
2 when designing the training. If it is not possible to know particulars of a prospective
3 client at the point of training, the results of the current suggest that further training of the
4 elements of the compound stimulus might be required once the dog is *in situ*. Overall the
5 information gained from the results of this experiment has important implications for the
6 methods used to train dogs if it is subsequently necessary to rely on a single element of
7 the trained compound stimulus. The results further illustrate the importance of applying
8 findings from research in the experimental analysis of behavior to produce the most
9 effective means of animal training.

10

11

12

13

References

- 2 Autier-Derian, D., Deputte, B., Chalvet-Monfray, K., Coulon, M., Mounier, L. 2013.
3 Visual discrimination of species in dogs. Anim. Cogn. 16, 637-651.
4 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-013-0600-8>
5 Blackmore, T.L., Temple, W., Foster, T.M. 2016. Selective attention in dairy cattle.
6 Behav. Process. 129, 37-40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beproc.2016.06.001>
7 Byosiere, S.E., Chouinard, P.A., Howell, T. J., Bennett P.C. 2018. What do dogs see? A
8 review of vision in dogs and implications for cognition research. Psychon. Bull. &
9 Rev. 25, 1798-1813. doi:10.3758/s13423-017-1404-7
10 Chiandetti, C., Avella, S., Fongaro, E., Cerri, F. 2016. Can clicker training facilitate
11 conditioning in dogs? Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci. 184, 109-116.
12 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.applanim.2016.08.006>
13 Dobrzacka, C., Szwejkowska, G., Konorski, J. 1966. Qualitative versus directional cues
14 in two forms of differentiation. Science, 153, 87-89.
15 doi:10.1126/science.153.3731.87
16 Erlandson, K. 1994. Gundog training. Swan Hill Press, Shrewsbury.
17 Fetterman, J.G. 1996. Dimensions of stimulus complexity. J. Exp. Psychol. Anim. Learn
18 Cogn. 22, 3-18. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0097-7403.22.1.3>
19 Foree, D. D., Lolordo, V. M. 1973. Attention in the pigeon: The differential effects of
20 food-getting versus shock-avoidance procedures. J. Comp. Psychol. 85, 551-558.
21 doi:10.1037/h0035300
22 Garcia, J., Koelling, R.A. 1966. Relation of cue to consequences in avoidance learning.
23 Psychon. Sci. 4, 123-124. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03342209>

- 1 Guest, C.M. 2003. The social and psychological effects of the supply of hearing dogs for
2 deaf people who are deaf and hard of hearing. Unpublished master's thesis.
3 University of Warwick, UK.
- 4 Haney, R.R., Crowder, W.F. (1977). Discrimination and attention in dogs. *Psychol. Rep.*
5 41, 943-949. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1977.41.3.943>
- 6 Heffner, H.E. 1983. Hearing in large and small dogs: Absolute thresholds and size of the
7 tympanic membrane. *Behav. Neurosci.* 97, 310-318. doi:10.1037/0735-
8 7044.97.2.310
- 9 Jenkins, H.M., Barrera, F.J., Ireland, C., Woodside, B. 1978. Signal-centered action
10 patterns of dogs in appetitive classical conditioning. *Learn. Motiv.* 9, 272-296.
11 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0023-9690\(78\)90010-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0023-9690(78)90010-3)
- 12 Kamin, L.J. 1969. Predictability, surprise, attention and conditioning. In: Campbell, B.A.,
13 Church, R.M. (Eds.), *Punishment and aversive behavior*. Appleton-Century-Crofts,
14 New York, pp. 279-296.
- 15 Kehoe, E.J., Horne, A.J., Horne, P. S., Macrae, M. 1994. Summation and configuration
16 between and within sensory modalities in classical conditioning of the rabbit.
17 *Learn. Behav.* 22, 19-26. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03199952>
- 18 Lipman, E.A., Grassi, J.R. 1942. Comparative auditory sensitivity of man and dog. *Am.*
19 *J. Psychol.* 55, 84-89. doi:10.2307/1417027
- 20 Mackintosh, N. J. 1976. Overshadowing and stimulus intensity. *Learn. Behav.* 4, 186-
21 192. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03214033>
- 22 McConnell, P.B. 2002. *The other end of the leash*. Ballantine Books, New York.

- 1 Macpherson, K., Roberts, W.A. 2017. On the clock: Interval timing and overshadowing
2 in domestic dogs. *J. Comp. Psychol.* 131, 348-361.
3 doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/com0000083>
- 4 Miklósi, A. 2007. Dog: Behavior, evolution and cognition. Oxford University Press, New
5 York.
- 6 Miklósi, Á., Kubinyi, E. 2016. Current trends in canine problem-solving and cognition.
7 *Curr. Dir. Psychol. Sci.* 25, 300–306. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721416666061>
- 8 Miles, C.G., Jenkins, H.M. 1973. Overshadowing in operant conditioning as a function of
9 discriminability. *Learn. Motiv.* 4, 11-27. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0023-
10 9690\(73\)90036-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0023-9690(73)90036-2)
- 11 Miller, L., Ackley, R. 1970. Summation of responding maintained by fixed-interval
12 schedules. *J. Exp. Anal. Behav.* 13, 199-203. [https://doi.org/10.1901/jeab.1970.13-
13 199](https://doi.org/10.1901/jeab.1970.13-199)
- 14 Moser, A. Y., Bizo, L., Brown, W. Y. 2019. Olfactory generalization in detector dogs. In:
15 Dorman, D.C. (Ed.), *Cognition and Olfaction of Dogs*. *Animals*, 9, 702,
16 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ani9090702>
- 17 Moser, A. Y., Brown, W. Y., Bizo, L. A., Andrew, N., Taylor, M. 2020. Dogs detect live
18 insects after training with odour-proxy training aids: Scent extract and dead
19 specimens. *Chem. Senses.* 45 (3), 179-186. <https://doi.org/10.1093/chemse/bjaa001>
- 20 Ono, K., Iwabuchi, K. 1997. Effects of histories of differential reinforcement of response
21 rate on variable-interval responding. *J. Exp. Anal. Behav.* 67, 311-322.
22 <https://doi.org/10.1901/jeab.1997.67-311>

- 1 Pearce, J. M., Bouton, M.E. 2001. Theories of associative learning in animals. Annu.
2 Rev. Psychol. 52, 111-139. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.111>
- 3 Ramos, D., Mills, D.S. 2019. Limitations in the learning of verbal content by dogs during
4 the training of OBJECT and ACTION commands. J. Vet. Behav. 31, 92-99.
5 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jveb.2019.03.011>
- 6 Reynolds, G.S. 1961. Attention in the pigeon. J. Exp. Anal. Behav. 4, 203-208.
7 <https://doi.org/10.1901/jeab.1961.4-203>
- 8 Reynolds, G.S. 1968. A primer of operant conditioning. Scott, Foresman and Company,
9 Glenview, Illinois.
- 10 Scott, J.P., Fuller, J.L. 1965. Genetics and the social behavior and the dog. The
11 University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- 12 Scrimgeour, D. 2002. Talking sheepdogs. UK: Farming Books and Videos, Preston.
- 13 Spetch, M.L. 1995. Overshadowing of landmark learning: Touch-screen studies with
14 pigeons and humans. J. Exp. Psychol. Anim. Learn Cogn. 21, 166-181.
15 doi:10.1037/0097-7403.21.2.166
- 16 Sutherland, N.S., Mackintosh, N.J. 1971. Mechanisms of animal discrimination learning.
17 Academic Press, New York.
- 18 Timberlake, W. 1994. Behavior systems, associationism, and Pavlovian conditioning.
19 Psychon. Bull. Rev. 1, 405-420. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03210945>
- 20 Wagner, A.R., Logan, F.A., Haberlandt, K., Price, T. 1968. Stimulus selection in animal
21 discrimination. J. Exp. Psychol. 76, 171-180. doi:10.1037/h0025414

- 1 Wilcoxon, H. C., Dragoin, W. B., Kral, P. A. 1971. Illness-induced aversions in rat and
2 quail: Relative salience of visual and gustatory cues. *Science*, 171, 826-828.
3 doi:10.1126/science.171.3973.826
- 4 Williams, J. L., Friend, T. H., Nevill, C. H., Archer, G. 2004. The efficacy of a secondary
5 reinforcer (clicker) during acquisition and extinction of an operant task in horses.
6 *Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci.* 88, 331-341.
7 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.applanim.2004.03.008>
- 8 Wolf, M.M. 1963. Some effects of combined S^Ds. *J. Exp. Anal. Behav.* 6, 343-347.
9 <https://doi.org/10.1901/jeab.1963.6-343>
- 10