

Experimental investigation of social learning in domestic animals and non-human primates.

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Abstract

Imitation is considered to be an efficient method of conveying information between animals. It is believed to be among the least common and most complex forms of social learning. After almost a century of studying social learning in animals, scientists have not been able to give a clear answer to the question “Do animals imitate?”. Some studies have shown certain species under certain conditions to imitate (e.g. Zentall, et al., 1996), these studies have not been replicated in a wide range of species. This thesis expands the social learning research to a wider range of species in which it has been studied and by using a two-action method to look for imitative behavior in more sophisticated animals. In this study a two-action apparatus with two different actions was used. The apparatus was not two different actions but one action or just one action. The apparatus was only one

behaviours a novel behaviour is added that has not been trained to see if the subject will spontaneously imitate the behaviour. Successfully copying a novel demonstration is taken as evidence of understanding the rule needed for imitative performance. This methodology is used because it not only can distinguish between imitation and the other forms of learning, it can also show the subjects' ability to generalize this type of learning. Experiments have shown very little imitative learning occurring in the various species. The low rate of imitation may not be surprising. For just over a century of studying social learning and in that time only a handful of species have provided evidence of an animal's ability to imitate the behaviour of others. That, though imitative learning may be a form of social learning, it is not a definition of particular behaviour, it is a definition of behaviour in general, especially in the context of social learning.

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STATEMENT OF THE CANDIDATE'S CONTRIBUTION TO CO-AUTHORED PAPERS

five studies included in this thesis, all of which have been written up as
tion. As detailed below, the substantial contribution to the co-
this thesis was made by the candidate. However, while the
the work presented in this thesis, where the first person is
an 'I') as in the original peer-reviewed articles to
research process. All chapters that have been
requested by the respective journal;
information may be redundant.

ing in Diana

Paper 2: Chapter 3

ey, N.R., Melfi, V. and Lea, S.E.G. **No evidence of imitative learning in a
chine, Goeldi's monkey (*Callimico goeldii*)**

manuscript, presented in Chapter 3, was sent to the *Journal of*

It came back rejected, because the methodologies did not match

rk. However the reviewers gave fantastic feedback and thus

gely. The candidate designed the methodology of data

the data. Prof. Stephen Lea contributed to the

supervisory support from Prof. Stephen

ive learning from

As outlined in the candidate's statement above, the substantial contribution to the authored papers presented in this thesis was made by the candidate. This includes the selection of the literature presented in each paper, study design, statistical analyses and interpretation of the data, together with the write-up for publication. The supervisors advised on the papers by advising on statistical analyses and interpretational issues, and on the writing style. Moreover, the theoretical framing of the empirical work and the management of the papers is a product of a concerted discussion between the candidate and supervisors.

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support and encouragement I can honestly say I
think it was crazy to sell everything we owned
my dream and further my career. He never
throughout the process I questioned it
on, a person to talk with and a
along the way. I am
to grow old with. Ti

1.1 Social learning from Psychological and Biological perspectives.

Social learning is said to have occurred when an observer's behaviour changes after observing a demonstrator. It is considered to be "intrinsically fascinating often because of the implications about an animal's cognitive abilities" (Caldwell and Whiten, 2004, p. 77).

Psychologists differ in the way they approach the study of social learning.

Some focus on the adaptive value of behaviour, suggesting that imitation may

be a form of conspecific-typical, genetically predisposed behaviour and

not a form of learning (335). Biologists typically study social learning of

food preference (Zentall, 2006). Psychologists

often use operant conditioning and thus manipulate the environment to

study behaviour. Unlike the psychologists, Biologists have

studied a wide range of mammalian taxa which have a

variety of social structures. Biologists and

psychologists both study the

same phenomena. Biologists study

the

description of imitation was published (Whiten and Ham, 1992; Zentall and Galef, 1988).

Manes and his followers soon “incorporated a diverse collection of phenomena under the

term of “imitation” (Whiten and Ham, 1992, p. 239). Thorndike (1898) was the first to

define imitation formally: he defined it as “learning to do an act from seeing it done”

and since then imitation has been defined in various ways (see Whiten and Ham,

Zentall and Galef (1988) attempted to distinguish imitation

from other forms of learning. However, others disagreed with the fundamental

distinction (see Whiten and Ham, 1992). Zentall (2004) takes a

different approach by describing what imitation is not. Thus,

imitation is not learned when one has ruled out or controlled for

other forms of learning, stimulus/local

learning, or “copied response”

term that

(e.g., social

Mazur and Seher, 2008) 2) Tomasello's definition requires one to accept that animals possess a theory of mind, which this author doesn't fully accept (see section 1.3). For the remainder of this chapter and the thesis as a whole, we will focus on the social learning taxonomy.

According to Whiten and Ham (1992) social learning is defined as occurring when an individual B acquires information from A the basis of a subsequent similarity between their behaviours. There are a number of ways (three according to Whiten and Ham) in which an individual can learn from a demonstrator. The first is called local or stimulus enhancement. Whiten and Ham is the category that is "most often observed". Social enhancement occurs when an observer acquires information from a demonstrator which stimulus to direct its behaviour. This is similar to stimulus/local enhancement. Whiten and Ham also discuss observational conditioning. Whiten and Ham, in the context of social learning, initially

In a more recent article Fredman and Whiten (2008) add to this list the term canalization. Canalization is defined as occurring when an observer before watching a demonstrator produces a wide range of actions including that of a demonstrator, whereas after watching the demonstrator the behaviour chosen is mostly that of the demonstrator. This is a narrowing of the demonstrator's behaviour channels that of the observer, but not a narrowing of a behaviour that is already in the observer's repertoire.

One of the major goals within psychology has been to choose a novel behaviour that an observer that watches a demonstrator perform this behaviour will imitate. However, "many studies of imitation have had methodological problems" (Zentall, 1988, pg. 10).

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Some scientists in the field of animal psychology, research the area of animal consciousness (e.g. Woodruff and Premack, 1979; Povinelli, et al., 1993; Gallup, 1997). As (2001) states so eloquently “It seems positively foolhardy for an animal to rush in where even philosophers fear to tread” (pg. 15). However, some of the need to understand how much one animal understands the actions of another “theory of mind” or ToM for short, is at the heart of this research. ToM is “the ability to understand and explain behaviour by attributing mental states” (2004). In other words how much does one animal understand of another? Although I will not in this thesis be discussing the ToM concept, I think it is important to note that it has been used to address these types of questions. The observer’s understanding of the

the “social glue

thus

er

when the environment changes rapidly, individual learning is favoured and when the environment is changing at an intermediate rate, social learning is favoured (Boyd and Richerson, 1998). Thus studying which species learn by imitation could indicate the rate at which the environment is changing.

Whiten (1988) was the first to develop a methodology to study imitation in an experimental setting. He provided anecdotal evidence for its occurrence that was piling up at the time (e.g. Tall and Galef, 1988; Whiten and Ham, 1992). In his study, he used two groups of cats who had been given the opportunity to learn about a puzzle box. One group had never seen the puzzle box being opened, while the other group had seen it being opened. Whiten and Ham (1992) showed a significant advance in rigor and experimental design. Their original procedure can be considered a landmark because there were limitations to the previous studies. Whiten and Ham (1992) showed that between the two groups, the cats who had seen the puzzle box being opened were more likely to solve the puzzle, indicating the importance of social learning. In the puzzle, the cats were given a puzzle box with a lever that would open the box.

1.4.1 Two-Action Method

The two-action test procedure is an attempt to improve on the “Thorndike-like” tests. This methodology is the only one that can distinguish local enhancement (to attend to the location of the demonstrator), or stimulus enhancement (to attend to the stimulus which the demonstrator interacts with) from “true” innovation (Barnes, and Goldsmith, 1999). The first study to use the two action method was by Clayton and Gilliam (1965). In this study a group of budgerigars were given a task to learn a way to remove the lid. They found that the birds used two different ways: pushing the lid off with the beak, or pulling it off with the foot. A second group of budgerigars was given the same task to see how they would perform. The first group of birds who saw a demonstrator remove the lid with the beak had a higher success rate than the second group. The second group of birds who saw a demonstrator remove the lid with the foot had a higher success rate than the first group. This is an example of “two action” learning. The birds learned to remove the lid with the beak, or the foot, or both. The object, the lid, was the same, but the action was different. The birds learned to remove the lid with the beak, or the foot, or both.

of the body on the same object. An example of this would be the budgerigars pulling the lid with either their foot or beak. This methodology has been the most widely accepted among researchers. Fawcett, et al., (2002) states that this procedure significantly advanced the study of imitative behaviour.

As this procedure rules out the possibility of stimulus enhancement, it cannot distinguish between response-reinforcer learning and stimulus-reinforcer learning (Whiten, 1985). This is a major issue in the field (Premack and Woodruff, 1979; De Wall, 1992;

Whiten, 1985). The theory of mind (ToM) and that imitation is

based on this theory, animals that imitate should

be able to identify the demonstrator. If this is the case, being

able to identify the demonstrator should not be an important

feature of imitative behaviour. Reinforcement should not be essential

to this theory, "psychologists have

often used the work of Atkins and Zentall,

who have shown that control for the

identity of the demonstrator is not because

of the

they were found to push the joystick in the direction they observed (although they would have obtained the food by pushing the joystick in either direction). Hayes and Dawson (1990) reported that rats showed “non-vocal imitation of response learning through observation”. However, as suggested, however, that these results may have been due to olfactory cues (Gardner, & Dawson, 1999).

A final control experiment was conducted with marmosets by Gardner & Dawson (1999). In this experiment a subject was trained as a demonstrator to open a door for food. Seven observers were allowed to watch the demonstrator. In addition control studies were carried out with other primates to see how they would open the door. The control group explored less than the experimental group and were less likely to match the behaviour of the demonstrator. This was enough to show if a subject was using a series of observations (Gardner, 1998)

In this study an experimenter demonstrated to each subject a different pattern of actions on how to open the device. Two subjects saw the sequence in which both bolts were turned (farthest first), pin then handle. Each of the two subjects saw different ways to operate each of the latching devices. The remaining two subjects saw the sequence pin, bolts (farthest first). Each of the two subjects saw different ways to operate each of the latching devices.

Some of the subjects imitated the sequence of behaviours in the demonstration on the second trial. However some of the subjects did not imitate the demonstrator

The fruit apparatus in a similar fashion to study the influence from the procedure used with the demonstrator (instructions). All subjects in the study were given the same instructions. The children even copied the demonstrator's sequence (turning the pin).

The demonstrator used a verbal enforcer to encourage the subjects to imitate the demonstrator's sequence.

The researchers found that none of the observers was able to open the artificial
it, however the time spent manipulating the apparatus varied according to the type of
demonstrations they saw. For example the subjects that saw the full demonstration spent
manipulating the apparatus then the subjects that saw a partial demonstration. In
saw the full demonstration touched the particular parts of the apparatus
demonstrator manipulate, which the authors conclude was localized
with this sequential methodology has not gotten the criticisms
has, it still hasn't gotten the accolades that the "gold
ed.

demonstrator manipulate an apparatus

parts of the body and not two

is learning by

ent. The first

(1996). In this

phies

then

Akins and Zentall (1996) tested Japanese quail using the two-action method. In this experiment they trained two birds to be pecking and stepping demonstrators. The remaining birds were used as observers. As in the procedures of Zentall et al (1996) birds watched a pecking or a stepping demonstrator for 10 min. at a rate of one response every 10 s. When the demonstrator was removed the observer was given access to the manipulandum

There was no clear evidence of imitative behaviour in Japanese quail.

When presented with both behaviours, they were more likely to imitate pecking

This might have been because of ease of the behaviour

(to peck than step on it).

The methodology was conducted by

In this experiment they had two

observers with their mouths or with

their feet was used to assess

whether this group were

able to imitate

their hands and four out of the six subjects who watched a mouth demonstrator opened the register with their mouths.

as I Do

mentioned earlier the two action methodology is widely used to study imitation, the procedure that is gaining popularity is the “Do as I do” methodology. In

trained to match a few gestures of the demonstrator for

(demonstrator raises her/his hand and the subject raises his/her hand)

or “Do it”. After the subject reaches criterion on the

that has not been trained to see if the subject

successfully copying a novel demonstration is

for imitative performance. This

between imitation and the other

to generalize this type of

ns between a

model

(Burgess, Burgess, & Esveldt, 1970) and as a key concept in theoretical analyses of language development (Brigham & Sherman, 1968).

Do as I Do with Humans

This procedure was apparently first used in a scientific context with humans by

(1964) who used social reinforcement with a puppet to train three

(nodding, mouthing, and strange verbalizations) in children. A

bar pressing, which was never reinforced, increased in

imitative responses increased in strength. In the next

only reinforced imitative responses were placed on

and so was the bar pressing response

a non-modelling condition (where

presented with two other children,

her responses. When

duced, the bar-

children.

r

ive

imitative responses only in the presence of one stimulus and not in the presence of another stimulus (Furnell & Thomas, 1976), while others have explored conditions which might elicit un-reinforced imitative behaviour in children by having the experimenter absent from the room to reduce the complexity of the stimulus situation (Peterson, Merwin, and Moyer, 1971). In contrast to the experiments with animals, the experiments with children have given their subjects instructions, making their responses different from those used with animals.

Animals

Thorndike was the first to use the "Do as I do" procedure with non-human animals. He demonstrated imitative learning in one subject, a dog, who was trained to imitate on the command "Do as I do" by copying the researchers' behaviour. In his experimental procedure the dog was trained to perform a specific behaviour while the researcher performed while the dog was given a command. The dog was given a command to imitate the researcher's behaviour.

(1995) argue that Hayes and Hayes' research is flawed by the lack of adequate detail on their procedure and results.

As a result, Custance et al. (1995) replicated the Hayes and Hayes procedure. Their study involved two nursery-reared chimpanzees, which were given a novel instruction 3 or 4 times without direct instruction or shaping. They also used inter-observer reliability to check the accuracy of their behaviour observations.

In the experiment the researchers taught the chimpanzees to perform 15 different actions through food reinforcement and then tested whether subjects could make the transition from taught actions to novel behaviours. Each novel behaviour was demonstrated to the chimpanzees every week. No food was given for the novel behaviours.

The results suggest that chimpanzees can learn (or non-functional) actions.

The results suggest two possible explanations for the findings.

First, chimpanzees may be able to learn from humans;

Second, chimpanzees may have been able to learn from the experimenter.

The results suggest that chimpanzees are capable of learning from humans.

predisposition to the objects before the experiment began. In the demonstration phase the model (a familiar caretaker) demonstrated the target toward each object behaviour several

the participant. The deferred imitation trial in phase three involved the

of the same object that had been used during the demonstration phase.

alization phase involved presentation of similar, but not identical

the presentation of new materials not presented in phase three.

the participant was encouraged to manipulate the object

during these phases the model made no gestures and

of the participant displayed the target behaviour.

participants displayed deferred and generalized

behaviours required for

by the model it was unlikely that

study “provides the best

“pauzees”(p. 56).

(2002); Custance

is the

to untrained behaviours. The dog was taught nine actions over the course of 10 weeks using operant conditioning. Once he reached 80% correct on all behaviours the testing phase

behaviours in the testing phase 16 behaviours were chosen by action type (body-
ive, etc.) and complexity (number and length of action sequences). In

than three complex or simple actions were given in a sequence.

and that overall the dog matched the human demonstrator's

al et al. (2000) tested the sequence of the action

ment. For example, in the first experiment, they

on the floor. The demonstrator would pick

er would then pick up the second

method is that the researcher

ish. The dog could have

actually imitating

to that

by chance. The overall conclusion is that the subject shows ability to imitate and is able to transfer human demonstrations onto its corresponding motor schemes.

Discussion

methodologies that researchers have used to study imitation in human and non-human primates. For example, in human studies the two-action method is not used.

In fact humans have verbal behaviour and can be given instructions. It is therefore true of the participants in the experiments cited about, even

for the two-action paradigm, suggests that

and can conclude that some animals can

(Whiten, 2002 pg. 189-190).

command in hopes to elicit an

the procedures differently;

however not only

al studies of

reinforced

a

their own attention might also be reinforcement for the behaviour. It is highly possible that since the subjects were enculturated with humans, the researchers' reaction to the imitation of their presence could have been a reinforcer for the chimpanzees. Nevertheless, this possibility was never explored by the authors.

In imitation research Baer et al. (1964) concluded that imitation acquires social properties since it is often followed by reinforcement. Since this property of the generalized imitation paradigm have been recognized.

repertoires of response types. Some of the subjects did not imitate responses because these behaviours were outside their repertoire. Second, subjects might not have been

(Baer et al., 1964; Peterson, 1968; Brigham et al.,

1964) confounds such as: other

presence (Peterson et al.,

1964) reinforcement of other

not occur)

Because of the results of these studies some authors have attempted to broaden
Young et al.'s (1964) definition of generalized imitation. Peterson (1971) suggests "it would
be better if the word generalized were restricted to those examples where it can be
shown that a single variable applied to one of two classes of behaviours is the
cause of the response. The term un-reinforced may serve in other situations" (p. 125). Young et
al. (1964) suggest the definition of generalized imitation should be restricted to
examples of response type.

The International Union of Zoos and Aquariums (WAZA) "zoos and
aquariums are part of the research community" (WAZA, 2005,
2006). The terms cognition and zoo bought up
in the field of cognition and laboratory which
are used in cognition studies are
used in zoo settings. Zoo settings offer a
naturalistic environment for studies in
zoos.

suffer from limited sample size, but in zoos this can be ameliorated by collecting data from multiple zoos, termed multi-zoo studies (Mellen, 1991). The questions which can be addressed in zoo research are increased further given the long-term data which may be collected in the form of records or studbooks for multiple populations and even across multiple species. Studbooks are also a great source of information about captive animals including breeding transfers, census data, mortality of infants and founder allele frequencies. This information is available across many generations and can be used for a variety of investigations (Melfi, 2006; Pullen, 2005). Studies can be looked at either within a species across multiple generations or following the impact of environmental changes over time, with reasonably consistent data sets. This has been brought into focus (see Melfi, 2005). Data collection is often done when data are collected in the field, sent to laboratories, and analyzed in a laboratory setting. This is often done for their wild counterparts. This is often done for their wild counterparts.

Finally, zoos offer a unique training venue for future field or laboratory researchers. Students can learn and observe specific behaviours displayed in a wide range of species with a minimum time and financial costs, compared to those incurred in field studies or laboratory research laboratories housing unusual species. Students can also learn data collection methods and implement them in research projects that they have created. It is important to note that research in zoos frequently has an immediate application both to the management of the zoo and to the conservation of their conspecifics in the wild.

There are several advantages to collecting data in a zoo that may not be apparent at first; for the most part these are the same as those of field research. The main advantage to overcome is zoo management. Zoos are designed to provide animals' environment. This is often a challenge for researchers (Hosey, 2000). The researcher's priority is the animal's welfare and control. These are often conflicting goals. For example, if a researcher wants to observe an animal's behaviour for 24 hours/day, the zookeeper may not allow this because the animal needs to be fed and controlled. This is often a challenge to overcome.

including traditional topics such as conservation and animal welfare, but also supporting other areas like cognitive research, parasitology, and nutrition (for examples see Melfi, Barton and Caldwell, 2006).

It was decided that one of the topics that would benefit from the naturalistic setting and the animals maintained in zoos is research on social learning.

Species that naturally live in social groups were chosen for this thesis. Since the goal was to study social learning, species that would be more likely to learn from conspecifics were chosen. This thesis was naturally split further into two parts: one on primates and one on cetaceans. Primates were chosen because as far back as the 1970s, primates were considered the key to finding human-like cognitive abilities. Cetaceans were studied because of their extensive contact with humans and their long history of experience with human interaction. This led to the focus on generating

1997). In captivity, Goeldi's monkeys are most successful living in breeding pairs with their offspring (Pruett-Jones, 1998). In these groups infants learn what to eat from the parents and juveniles learn from watching group members' proper parental and sexual roles (Pruett-Jones and Pooke, 1981). Young juvenile males that were separated from the group after learning these behaviours sired offspring but did not help in the raising of the offspring (Pruett-Jones, 1981). Furthermore, females taken from the group were also found to be successful in raising offspring. Observations suggest that Goeldi's monkeys might learn through social learning. It is known they have not been used in an experimental setting. Research on other species in their subfamily have

also been found to possess other behaviours. (Pruett-Jones, 1980) defined tool use "as the use of an object to alter more efficiently the environment to the user itself when the user is unable to do so for the proper purpose." (Pruett-Jones, 1980) tool use

authors theorized that the reason why they preferred this was because it minimized the effort for movement needed, expending less energy. After this condition, the authors then tested for generalization to novel canes. They placed canes that varied in size, colour, weight, and material to see which ones the subjects would pick out. They found the subjects chose canes on the basis of their purpose (to pull in the food). Hauser concluded that subjects must have a concept of at least some of the function involved in using

the study with naive infants using the same methodology. The results suggest that the preference between functionality could be innate. However, the preference for functional objects in captivity has not been seen in tamarins or other primates. Researchers suggest that an alternative explanation is that the preference is learned by trial and error during early life. (Spaulding and Spaulding, 2005; Spaulding and Spaulding, 2005). This study replicated Hauser's findings (that subjects chose canes on the basis of their purpose in the cane). The results suggest that the preference for functional objects is not innate.

less mobile and less manipulative. They found species that are more explorative (lion tamarins, *Leontopithecus*) were less neophobic compared to species that are less mobile (marmoset, *Callithrix* and tamarins, *Saguinus*).

Miller and Hauser (2003) showed tamarins different shaped and coloured objects to see whether if tamarins need to have physical experience with the tool to learn. They found that physical experience is important. In this procedure they showed tamarins an L-shaped tool and a straight tool (not functional) to see if they would use the L-shaped tool. They found the tamarins attended to the more functional tool when they didn't have access to the tool.

Tamarins live in large groups of 15-30 normally consisting of several males (both related and unrelated) and several females. They have been found to follow their mothers and have been found to follow their mothers (Byrne and Byrne, 2004). They have been found to have knowledge social learning in their groups and have been found to learn from their mothers and have been found to learn from their mothers.

learn

macaques (Baker and Estep, 1985; O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997). However, to our knowledge there has not been a study of social learning or cognitive abilities of Sulawesi forest macaques.

There have, however, been studies of social learning with other species of macaques. Others studied Tonkean macaques (*Macaca tonkeana*) in two studies for social learning (Ducoing and Thierry, 2005). In the first study juveniles were presented with a novel fruit and then given access to these fruits. Thereafter, they learned feeding technique socially from their mothers in a natural setting. The second study was designed to see if these subjects would learn socially if they were presented with a novel fruit in a semi-free environment. The authors reported "specifics' behaviour" (pg.116). They found that juveniles learned from members of their group, including their mothers, by observing them.

In a second study, the authors presented the subjects with a semi-free environment. The subjects were allowed to climb and then they were presented with a novel fruit. The authors reported this behaviour. The authors also reported that this behaviour could cause the subjects to learn from members of their group.

different human facial gestures for 20 s preceded by a neutral face for 20 s they found that macaques would imitate two (mouth open and tongue protrusion) of the five facial

To our knowledge this is the only study that has shown imitation in macaques.

In addition to tool use, macaques have been found to possess other cognitive

abilities. One of these is numerical abilities. According to Judge, Evans and Vyas

one of the most convincing series of experiments with nonhuman primates is a

study of macaques by Brannon and Terrace (2000). In their

study they used numerical stimuli (pictures and dots of various sizes) in

experiments with quantities of 1-9. They showed that rhesus monkeys

not only learned to discriminate but also generalized this behaviour to numbers 1-

9. They also tested the monkeys on the physical attributes of stimuli to determine

if they were using "counting sequences" (Brannon

and Terrace, 2000) of numerical symbols

by presenting a set of two

stimuli and a set could

be distinguished with

different amount of apples placed in one of two boxes, after which they could approach and
from one of them. In order to calculate which box contained the most apples, subjects
keep the information in their working memory because they could not see the pieces
placed in the box after the first trial (Sulkowski et al., 2001). The authors
picked out the larger amounts when given values up to four.
choose the larger amounts when given values larger than five.
Sulkowski et al., (2001) studied subtraction in a semi-free ranging
showed the subject two platforms with varying
view of the subject and took a plum from one
or fewer plums then and took data on
subject choosing only the side in
platforms where one side had less
then let the subject
keys can subtract
(experiment).

There is much debate about what distinguishes domestication from the kind of taming or training which can take place when wild animals have a close relationship with humans (Zeder, 2006). The main topic in this debate is the difference between four types: tame domesticated animals, individuals of domestic species that have a feral lifestyle (e.g. feral dogs), or wild-type-not domesticated- yet tame animals (tolerated by humans or are tolerant of human approach), also referred to as domesticated animals, (Udell, Dorey, Wynne, 2008).

A famous study begun by Dimitri Belyaev in the late 1950s involved foxes from wild stock who were aggressive and fearful of humans. A "domestication elite" emerged after several generations of intense human interaction, emerged after several generations of "domestication elite" (Trut et al., 2004). The study showed that the aggressive-fearful reactions to humans were reduced. If true in foxes it could be applied to other animals.

it is

they could be part of a domestication elite); the species concerned all have the capability to be domesticated, and are domesticated to some extent in other parts of the world.

Our knowledge elephants and camels have not been studied in any experimental setting to investigate social learning. Although elephants have been tested in discrimination tasks (Schmidt, Nadal, and Squier, 1975; Savage, Rice, Branagan, Martini, 1998), our knowledge camels have not been studied for any kind of social learning. These species because of their history of close association with humans live in social groups.

In a different setting than the rest of the thesis, we felt that using camels was included. Using this species allowed us to investigate the results of the experiments described in the thesis at various zoos. A search in Web of Science and a review of the literature revealed that camels are used for objects in experiments (Schmidt and Dube, 1998).

1.7 Discussion

One of the intentions of this thesis is to expand on current methodologies so that they can be used in different settings. More specifically, the research will aim to find ways to study social learning from a psychologist's point of view in a zoo setting. Current methodologies at many zoos state that separating social animals, even for a short period, is not ideal. Thus these methodologies need to be changed to allow social animals not to be separated. To solve this problem, we propose to train subjects to learn two different behaviours in the presence of two different stimuli. By having subjects stay with their group and by having them respond to a particular stimulus, will help differentiate between the two behaviours. Furthermore, to deflect the criticism that social animals should not be separated (see Miklosi, 1999), we propose to use a method so that we can determine if the subjects choose different behaviours in the presence of the spontaneous stimulus. This will help determine if the behaviour is truly spontaneous.

(Campbell, Heyes, and Goldsmith, 1998), ravens (Fritz and Kotrschal, 1999), carib
beavers (Lefebvre, Templeton, Brown and Koelle, 1997), pigeons (Zentall, Sutton and
Sherburne, 1996), budgerigars (Dawson and Foss, 1965; Galef, Manzig and Field, 1986)],
chimpanzees (Whiten and Cusance, 1996; Hayes and Hayes, 1952), gorillas (Byrne
and Russon, 1998), orang-utans (Russon and Galdikas, 1993)], monkeys [marmosets
(Seymour, 1977), capuchins (Cusance, Whiten and Freidman, 1999)], and
rats (Seymour and Johnson, 1994)]. However, most of these studies have been
criticized in the field (for a list of criticisms, see Caldwell and Whiten,
1999). Pigeons (Zentall, Sutton, and Sherburne, 1996);
chimpanzees (Cusance, 1999; Hayes and Hayes,
1952) have been subjects in studies where results
have been questioned (Caldwell and Whiten, 2002). So
many studies, which are mostly
conducted in the laboratory, are decreased even
in the current literature,
and include

Another opportunity this research offers is helping to advance the animal cognition literature by introducing the idea of imitation as an operant class. The field of behaviour analysis where most of the research on human imitation has emerged, uses similar terminology as animal cognition, but the two fields are not referencing each others' work. Therefore, the methodological rigour of behaviour analysis should be helpful in identifying the concept that has proved elusive in the way imitation has. For example, if an observer observes the first instance of an imitative behaviour subsequent to a stimulus, this behaviour should then be considered operantly conditioned, rather than a simple response to the observer (which wasn't the case in our study). Research that has been found that imitation will be operantly conditioned (Palameta, 1988; Heyes et al, 1993; Heyes, 1998). Behavioural analysis have avoided reinforcing the idea of imitation. Heyes (1964) found that in the case of imitation, functional relations between the stimulus and the response are not intrinsic. If

range of settings and species studied in this discipline. In addition, we intend to develop methodology so that imitative learning research can be conducted in settings outside the laboratory without the need to separate animals from their social groups. All of the above projects complement my overall topic, in which we hope to ask if, in the species studied, generalized imitative behaviour and higher order operants can be

CHAPTER 2

Evidence of social learning in Diana monkeys and Sulawesi black crested macaque

Introduction

The aim of this study is to increase our knowledge of which species may show

social learning in two zoo housed Old World monkey species, Diana monkeys

and Sulawesi black crested macaques (*Macaca nigra*), neither of

which have been the subject of imitation research previously.

Researchers have discussed the possibility of imitative learning

and the criteria that must be met to claim to observe imitative learning are the

presence of behaviours that animals are found to possess behaviours not

observed in the wild (for classic examples see, Fisher and

Lee, 1973). The need for additional data to support

claims of imitative learning has led to the need for conclusive evidence for

imitative learning (Borgen, et al, 2003).

Imitative learning, as a form of knowledge, has

been shown to be shared within the group

Sulawesi black crested macaques (*Macaca nigra*). These species were chosen not only because they live in naturalistic social systems and living condition, but also because they possess higher cognitive abilities.

Diana monkeys live in large social groups of 15-30 individuals (Bshary and Noe, 2004). Our knowledge research on social learning in Diana monkeys has not been known to watch other conspecifics in their group (Bshary and Noe, 2004) and learn certain behaviours via social responses from conspecifics (Seyfarth, 1997) and other species (Zuberbuhler, 1997). *Macaca nigra* live in groups of between 5 to 97 individuals (O'Brien & Kinnaird 1997; O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997). Highly social behaviour among *Macaca* (O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997; O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997) for the cognitive abilities of *Macaca* genus has shown that *Macaca* (O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997; O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997) berghi, (O'Brien and Kinnaird, 1997) the

trained to operate a manipulandum using different parts of their body, e.g. to open a container with foot or mouth, for which they obtain a reward. Naïve animals (observers) are divided into two groups. One group watches the first demonstrator operate the manipulandum using one method (e.g. open with foot) and the other group watches the second demonstrator operate the manipulandum using the second method (e.g. open with mouth). After the groups of observers have watched the demonstrators, they are given the manipulandum and observed. If more observers operate the manipulandum using the demonstrators' use, more often than an alternative method, it is assumed that social learning of the observers has occurred. In the current study, the demonstrator's behaviours with either his mouth or hand were considered imitative if the observer's behaviour was the same as the demonstrator performed the same behaviour. For example, if the cue for choke was presented and the observer obtained a reward without performing any

The Diana monkeys' inside enclosure measured 8m x 12m x 10m and contained a swing, a rope hammock, various enrichment items, and a pool that was either empty, with water, or filled with enrichment items. The Sulawesi black crested macaques' enclosure measured 8m x 12m x 10m and contained various rope hammocks, various enrichment items, and a pool that was filled similarly to the Dianas' pool.

with the consoles were observed and recorded during:

both consoles were available to all the monkeys, but

(demonstrator) from each group was trained

(forcer) to perform five different

cues; the number of training

trators each behaviour

dominated the

this is most

er was

of

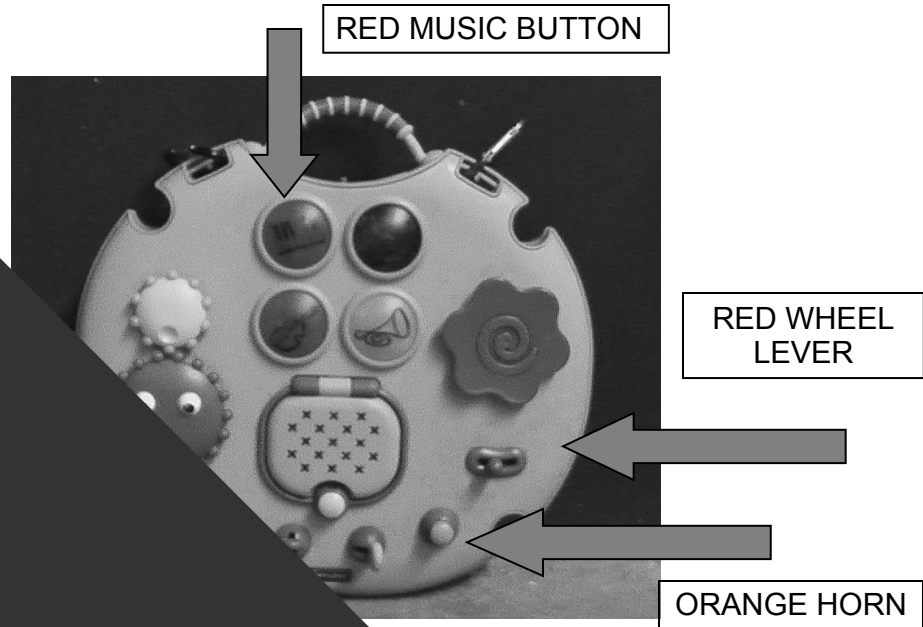
iv) Control sessions (n = 5), in this phase the session was conducted exactly like the experimental phase. The difference was that the demonstrator was not present in the inside of the enclosure, but lured outside; if he did come inside the session was suspended and restarted after 10 min. Grapes were given before the session began so that the others in the group were satiated. During these sessions grapes were given for any interaction with the demonstrator. After these experimental sessions had no effect on the

Name of behaviour	Definition of behaviour
[Obscured]	[Obscured]
[Obscured]	All digits flat on the gear holding it in a vertical upward direction.
[Obscured]	Touching the choke holding it in a vertical position out ward away from the demonstrator

attached to the wire windows, whichever came first. Training and experimental sessions began when the demonstrator correctly touched the left console with the correct part of the hand (i.e. choke) with the correct part of his body.

The behaviour was first trained as a free operant (meaning it was not associated with a stimulus) and expression of the desired behaviour was rewarded with a stimulus. When the demonstrator responded several times a cue was introduced and thereafter the behaviour occurred after the appropriate cue had been given. The stimuli were visual cards, which showed different shapes and colours. When the behaviour occurred reliably on cue, the probability of the behaviour was increased. When the probability of the behaviour was high in the context of other trained behaviours the procedure continued until all five

approximately 12.7 x



the manipulanda the demonstrator was

by toys, which housed

affording the

observations

x

ent

to the observer monkeys, so could be used by the observer monkeys at the same time that the demonstrator was interacting with 'his' console.

Results

As

The demonstrator was trained to perform five behaviours on cue. The number of sessions required for each behaviour is recorded in Table 2.1 according to how long it took to train the demonstrator to perform each behaviour. For the first monkey it took the demonstrator two sessions to train the red gear, three sessions to train red music button, four sessions to train red wheel lever, and five sessions to train red wheel lever.

In the second monkey group, one (Akea- the youngster) was

trained to use the observer console (Table 2.2). Of the

monkeys shown to imitate two of them (the

$\chi^2(1) = 11.37, p < 0.001$).

monkeys made a

made a

into the

Akea

Cue given to demonstrator	Number of time the demonstrator performed the behaviour in the presence of the observer	Number of times the observer was the next subject to respond (less than 20 sec) after the demonstrator	Number of times the observer responded to other cues	hand	mouth
	116	21	5	11	5
	26	0	0	0	0
	6	0	0	0	0
		23	1	21	1
		0	0	0	0

monkey, Akea, imitated the demonstrator; performed correct body part and the incorrect behavior with the demonstrator performed the behaviour. It performed the behaviour in the presence of the observer and of the demonstrator to respond was the observer and of the demonstrator to other cues. The other Diana monkey

performed the correct behaviour

used the correct part of

pressed the console

Douglas

Time given to demonstrator	Number of time the demonstrator performed the behaviour in the presence of the observer	Number of times the observer was the next subject to respond after the demonstrator	Number of times the observer responded to other cues	hand	mouth
		99	81	16	2
		23	16	1	6
		16	7	8	1
		0	0	0	0
			0	0	0

open

Number of times the observer responded to other cues	hand	mouth
	4	0
	0	0
		0
		0
		0

imitate, matched the demonstrator's behaviour for a few of the five behaviours performed by the demonstrator Douglas imitated three of the behaviours performed by the demonstrator (the gear cue $\chi^2(1) = 6.04, p < 0.01$, hand to red wheel lever cue $\chi^2(1) = 32.31, p < 0.0002$, and mouth to red music button cue $\chi^2(1) = 13.91, p < 0.0002$). Whereas Aspen imitated two behaviours, but his behaviour was not significant $\chi^2(1) = 1.46, p < 0.2$ for red wheel lever cue $\chi^2(1) = 1.46, p < 0.1$ for red wheel lever.

Three observers (Jasmine, Puzzle and Teak) of the 11 observers were asked to identify the cue given. Only 2 observers (Teak and Puzzle) correctly identified the manipulanda (gear and red wheel lever) with the cue given. Jasmine (Jasmine) touched the correct manipulanda. All three fell below chance with $p < 0.05$. All three touched the apparatus being touched during the demonstration. All three fell below chance with $p < 0.05$ for behaviour during the demonstration.

ies we

has

then shown a novel behaviour to see if they will copy it. Previous research has shown that human infants are very good at this and will readily imitate an adult demonstrator between 18 and 24 months of age, copying 75% of the time (Poulson and Kymissis, 1988). Although chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*) have also been found to readily imitate humans, studies have shown that they do not copy the general actions of a behaviour they observe and don't seem to master, but rather copy specific details of the behaviour; for example when the experimenter touches his nose with his index finger, a chimpanzee may touch his nose with this whole hand

The aim of the present study is to see if we could train one of the chimpanzees to copy the same behaviour they were observing (in this case touching the nose with the index finger) and imitate other behaviours

The first chimpanzee to be trained was the behaviours of the experimenter. The first chimpanzee to be trained was the behaviours of the experimenter. The first chimpanzee to be trained was the behaviours of the experimenter.

Douglas and Akea were trained by using successive approximation and positive reinforcement. After the behaviour was occurring readily, the experimental condition was terminated. The experimental condition lasted 10 sessions. Akea was rewarded for touching the orange horn on the right console with her hand while the demonstrator was performing this behaviour on the left console. Douglas was rewarded for touching the orange horn on the right console with his hand while the demonstrator was performing this behaviour on the left console.

After the experimental condition was terminated, the subjects were tested for the behaviour after the demonstrator a total of 10 sessions. Akea performed the behaviour after seeing it performed by the demonstrator on the right console after the third session and Douglas was not seen to perform the behaviour after seeing it performed by the demonstrator on the left console. This imitation did not occur after the third session.

behaviours did not seem to depend on the total number of times the observers saw the demonstration. Rather, if imitative responding was seen at all, it emerged early in the observation condition, and if anything it faded away rather than growing stronger with repetitions. Although only a minority of the observers (two Sulawesi black crested macaques and one Diana monkey) spontaneously imitated some of the behaviours, these results suggest a possibility for imitative learning within the species' repertoire.

They also generalize across behaviours even after these subjects were prevented from copying the demonstrators' behaviour.

Other studies that have used the two action methodology have placed the demonstrator from the rest of the group; so the subjects could see the behaviour at a distance from them and can't copy it. It is suggested that this separation is

(Suzuki, 1999, pg. 360), because

should include the

er, the current

ferent

stimulus enhancement. However, we controlled the other forms of social learning in other ways. First we used two identical consoles, one exclusively used by the demonstrator and one for the observers, thus controlling for stimulus/local enhancement. Second, the observers were only trained to perform the behaviour as defined by its end result (e.g. the console was lit up) we did not train specifics of the behaviour (e.g how they moved the console). Third, we made sure that we only counted behaviours as imitative if they exactly matched that the demonstrator had performed. If the demonstrator moved the console to the left, then the observer had to do so as well for the behaviour to be counted. Even though there could have been slight differences in the reality was that the behaviours were not used to manipulate the console; because of this it was not necessary. This may seem to be a bit odd, but we would consider this as a limitation. As states "since the model, methods and materials used were not specified, it is not clear how the results were achieved".

the fact that they were not in the subject's repertoire before the start of the experiment and that they did not receive reward after touching the apparatus, makes a strong case that the behaviour that we did find is imitative learning. All of these additional controls allowed us to conclude that the behaviour we observed was imitative learning and not another form of

observers that were seen to imitate the behaviour performed by

observers. Whether the age of the animals which successfully

performed this phenomenon is hard to compare

with studies using similar methodology, because they either used

different subjects, or do not compare the results of the older

subjects. The majority of the researchers in this field

have found a considerable ability on the part of the

subjects, thus not finding it

difficult to change their

behaviour. It is possible to imitate to

learn. Snowdon,

and

aspects of cognition, has been studied. Conducting imitation research in zoos will also allow the animals to be studied in a more naturalistic environment where social animals are in regular contact with each other as they are in nature.

In the next chapter I sought evidence for social learning in Goeldi's monkey, an Old World monkey which belongs to a monotypic genus and has not hitherto been tested using the methodology used, however the apparatus needed to be modified for the experiment to fit the species in manipulability and size.

CHAPTER 3**No evidence of imitative learning in a callitrichine, Goeldi's monkey (*Callimico goeldii*)****Introduction**

As explained previously, social learning is the process by which behaviour

influences the future actions of the same or similar behaviour in

other individuals of the same species. In lay terms, all such social learning is grouped

under the term social learning. There are several distinct mechanisms that can underlie

social learning. The mechanisms of social learning are the interactions underlying the mechanisms

of social learning. In the past, scientists have defined terms like local

learning. We will only describe the few terms

of social enhancement (Thorpe,

1956). A demonstrator draws the

attention of the observer when

the stimulus.

do

learning such as “object movement re-enactment”. Social facilitation can induce capuchins to eat, but does not alter their choice of food items (e.g. Visalbergi & Addessi, 2000). It has also been found that capuchins avoid toxic food from observing other members in the group (Visalbergi & Addessi, 2001) and infants do not learn about novel foods from adults (Visalbergi & Galloway, 1997). Similarly a study with squirrel monkeys (*Saimiri*) found that although they learned to avoid noxious foods, it was most likely done through direct experience with no evidence of social learning among the group (Fairbanks,

1997). These findings are very different. Golden lion tamarin monkeys learn to avoid noxious food by observing conspecifics, and novel foods are often then familiar foods (Fairbanks, 1997). Offspring are less likely to learn about novel foods than being given it by an adult (Fairbanks, 1997). In the golden lion tamarin, (*S. labiatus*) offspring of mothers who had learned to avoid noxious foods were more likely to avoid them than offspring of mothers who had not learned to avoid them (Fairbanks, 1997). This has

correct part of the apparatus compared to those that observed a partial demonstration and demonstration conditions. Similarly, Voelkl and Huber (2000) found that marmosets (*Callithrix jacchus*) after observing a trained demonstrator opened a canister lid with either hand, would imitate the method demonstrated.

Differences in social learning, between callitrichinae and other cebids, may be related to differences in natural history, for example in group size or parenting (Mikami & Washio, 2004). Marmosets and tamarins live in small family units (groups) of which assist in infant caretaking. In contrast, Old World monkeys live in large party individuals, where females raise their offspring. Rhesus monkey is more like that of the Old World monkey (Leigh, 1997). Thus we believe that differences in social learning. Those species of Old World monkey for some forms of social learning (Mikami & Washio, 2004; Washio & Mikami, 2004; Washio et al., 2004).

her

dominant member of the group to monopolize the apparatus. It also allowed imitation, if it occurred, to be distinguished from other forms of social learning. Imitation was considered to have occurred if a monkey who observed a trained demonstrator's performance of a particular behaviour toward a stimulus matched the same pattern of body part and behaviour toward a particular stimulus. Other forms of social learning, such as stimulus or local enhancement, occurs when a monkey learns from an incorrect behaviour (or the behaviour they were themselves

were studied at the Paignton Zoo

and three females (Kink 21 years old,

human contact the monkeys

area of their enclosure.

of plexiglass

backed

ong

The reason why the Legos differed in both shape and colour was to ensure that the differences between them were salient for all individuals. Goeldi monkeys have dichromatic colour vision, meaning that some individuals only have medium and long wavelength sensitive cone photo pigments (see Surrridge et al., 2003). Although this should not affect the ability to see differences in shape, it might make colour differences less salient to some individuals than others. Therefore, the differences were intended to offset any such effect. *Preference*

(Fernandez, Dorey, & Rosales-Ruiz, 2000) was

used to determine which would make the best reinforcer for the subjects

using a choice between mealworms, bananas, grape, bread, and

When the experiments were conducted, in

the subjects were allowed to interact with

the objects (pink) went

to the first one to

baseline and were considered naive. The number of sessions, the targets presented, and the responses reinforced at each stage are shown in Table 3.1.

At the beginning of each session the appropriate numbers of targets were put in the apparatus. Sessions lasted 10 min. from when one of the subjects correctly touched their assigned target. In addition to the assigned targets a black square target was always present (1) to ensure that even from the beginning, the subject who was assigned to touch the black square target (1) was able to touch it between two targets and 2) to allow the recording of any responses to it, as a measure of stimulus generalisation, bearing in mind that this target was never reinforced.

Successive approximations to the target were reinforced. Responses were reinforced with a conditioned stimulus (CS) of grape.

Two targets were used, respectively a red and a black square target. Behaviourally defined responses were reinforced at the same time. Tuff and Tuff were reinforced with a CS of grape.

Stage	Sessions took to train individual	Number of sessions before behaviour was stable and new target was added	Targets available	Subjects reinforced
Conditioning	5	Black Red Green Yellow Blue Black Red Black Red Green Black	none Kink Kink Tuff Kink Tuff Neat Kink Tuff	

Stage of the

Generalized modelled response: the monkey's trained response was made to a stimulus other than its target, when another monkey had been reinforced for making that response to that target.

Generalized non-modelled response: the monkey's trained response was made to a stimulus other than its target, when no other monkey had been reinforced for making that response. Such responses could be made either to a target to which another monkey had been reinforced for making the alternative response (there were two such targets) or to a black target, which no monkey had been reinforced for making that response.

Generalized non-trained response: the monkey's non-trained response was made to a stimulus other than its target, when the monkey had been reinforced for making that response to that target.

Generalized modelled non-trained response: the monkey's non-trained response was made to a stimulus other than its target, when another monkey had been reinforced for making that response to that target.

Generalized non-modelled non-trained response: the monkey's non-trained response was made to a stimulus other than its target, when no other monkey had been reinforced for making that response to that target.

explained by stimulus generalization, each kind of generalized responding should occur at a higher rate than the corresponding kind of non-generalized responding. Thus, this design is well suited for the independent detection of stimulus generalization, stimulus enhancement, and stimulus discrimination.

The subjects were successfully trained to perform the assigned behaviour to a high level of accuracy during the sessions spent attempting to train Neat's foot. The subjects required a number of sessions to achieve their target behaviour. After training, the subjects were able to perform their assigned target and perform the correct

response to five food items for each of the

grapes (both chosen 6 of the 8

out of 8 times they were

and grapes (both

times they

nted).

	Monkey					Example
	Kink	Tuff	Neat	Cork	Cork	
Forced response stimulus	Hand Red Vertical rectangle	Nose Green square	Hand Yellow horizontal rectangle	Nose Blue rectangle with curved extension	Nose Blue rectangle with curved extension	Nose Blue rectangle with curved extension
	2.021 (2264)	2.383 (2431)	0.535 (332)	3.519 (1478)	Nose blue	
target	0.013 (15)	0.011 (12)	0.000	0.014 (6)	Handle blue	
	0.150 (399)	0.048 (64)	0.017 (49)	0.016 (108)	Nose green	
		0.011 (64)	0.016 (49)	0.031 (108)	Nose yellow or red	
			0.005 (49)	0.032 (108)	Nose black	
			0.000	0.000	Handle green	
					Handle yellow or red	

To a non-target	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	Handle black
-----------------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-----------------

Table 3.2: Summarizes the rates of responding per minute (number of responses for the experiment divided by the total number of sessions that the target was available and session length (10)). made by each subject to all targets, during the entire experiment according to the response categories. Numbers in parenthesis are the total responses made by that subject.

Responses for each category were averaged across all sessions in which the target was available. Where a given class of response could be made to more than one target, the response rates to the different coloured stimuli (reinforced targets for other monkeys) are shown as a percentage of the total responses (not reinforced for any monkey) are shown as a percentage of the total responses. Each response(s) Cork would need to make for the alternative response to their own targets is shown in parentheses. Interpreted as imitative, but there is no direct comparison available, there is no direct comparison available. Responses were higher than responses to stimuli that were not reinforced. Neat there is a small number of responses to stimuli that were not reinforced. per two

hand there is a small tendency for both modelled and non-modelled generalized responding to occur at a higher rate than the corresponding type of non-generalized responding, so that generalization does appear to have played a part in the monkeys' behaviour on the target set.

Because the sample size was small ($n=4$), the design of the experiment aimed to provide opportunities for subjects to observe each other interacting with the targets, but it was not possible for us to observe any form of social learning. The subjects interacted with the targets through the entire experiment.

The monkeys and demonstrators at roughly the same time spent a significant amount of time within the vicinity of the targets at times throughout the experiment, it was common to see a monkey approach a target but when this happened, the demonstrator never saw two subjects

rewarded by the experimenter. In addition, the demonstrator never saw them

confusing; it seems unlikely that it is explained either by phylogeny, or by the social environment. In both of these Goeldi's monkeys are closer to the other callitrichines, than to the other cebids, which do not.

Of course the monkeys were never reinforced for imitative responding, if it had not have been expected to be sustained. But if they had a strong tendency to imitate, they would have shown at least a measurable rate of imitative responding. They did show a measurable rate of generalized responding, despite the lack of reinforcement for this either. Furthermore, in some ways the present experiment is a good one for studying imitation, because the animals were kept in a social environment, to "show the real effects of imitation in a natural setting." This phenomenon in interacting individuals. The design used allowed data to be collected during the experiment to see if there was any difference between subordinate and dominant monkeys. A baseline was established for each monkey. In the experiment, the subordinate monkey was placed in the baseline. In

case) do not imitate the behaviour of a conspecific as readily as those that are food
derived (Dorrance & Zentall, 2001)

More types of social learning research should be conducted with Goeldi's monkey,
biased learning is always a collective outcome of interacting physical, social,
"learners" (Fragaszy & Visalberghi, 2004, p. 24). It is necessary to try a
experimental designs before concluding that a species is not capable of
at present, we must conclude that there is no evidence that
learning.

domesticated animal chapters. Studies reporting
with humans are better imitators than
with humans could play a substantial
imitative ability (Galef and
different species (dogs,
dogs, none of
for these
any.

CHAPTER 4

Indication of social learning from a demonstrator in a dog (*Canis familiaris*).

Introduction

In previous chapters we tested the evidence of social learning in two Old World and one New World primate species in a zoo. In the current chapter we test the evidence of social learning in dogs.

Dogs have become increasingly popular subjects for studies in animal cognition in

recent years. In fact, Topali and Csanyi (2004) studies using dogs have

become more common. In fact, Bloom (2004, pg. 1605) says “For

many years” The increased popularity for using dogs

is due to such as they are easy to work with,

and they are familiar environments to humans,

and the process of domestication as the

evolutionary steps of the

process over

the

food in one of several opaque containers (all are controlled for smell). The experimenter either looks at or points at the container that holds the obtainable piece of food. Human children can complete this task at about 14 months of age (Hare and Tomasello, 1999).

Researchers have found that chimpanzees have difficulty solving this task (Call, Agnetta, 1998). However, dogs have demonstrated that they can follow a human's gaze (Miklosi et al., 1998). To date, domestic dogs have been shown to use a variety of cues in locating a hidden item including: Variations on pointing (Miklosi et al. 1998; Miklosi, Pongracz, Lakatos, et al. 2001; Hare and Tomasello, 1999) , head turning (Miklosi et al. 1998;), bowing (Miklosi et al. 1998;) and

relationship dogs have with each other. A study showed that dogs can follow the actions of a human and that they could learn a task from a human. The study used 1, 28, 38 and 48 dogs. The dogs were given food. After the food was given, the dogs that

puppies were placed into groups depending on how long they were raised by their mothers and whether their mother was trained to retrieve narcotics or untrained. Group one puppies were standard raised (taken from mother at 6 wks of age) and had untrained mothers.

Group two puppies had extended maternal care (taken from mothers at 12 wks of age) and untrained mothers. Group three puppies were standard raised and had trained mothers and untrained mothers and had extended maternal care. In addition, for two groups of puppies were allowed to watch their mother be praised for retrieving narcotics one time a week for 15 min. a day.

All puppies were placed into standard police dog training classes for 12 weeks. At 6 months of age the puppies were tested. Retrieval accuracy was scored (on a scale of 1-10) on how well they retrieved the bag at hand) and how well they retrieved the bag. The speed and success of retrieval was also noted. Puppies were given bags of narcotics for 12 weeks later.

around a fence were more likely to follow that way than dogs who did not watch a demonstrator (Pongracz et al., 2001, 2003, 2005; Kubinyi et al., 2003).

Rooney and Bradshaw (2006) conducted two experiments to examine what dogs learn from watching dog-human interactions. In the first experiment dogs watched a demonstrator and a human playing tug of war during which various outcomes were signalled using body language and signalling indicating play vs. non-signalling. For the second experiment, a demonstrator dog sat in a chair and gently stroked the demonstrator dog. The demonstrator dog was thought to contain little status related to social interactions. The study investigated how the observer dogs reacted to each of the two interactions and that observer dogs gained information from watching the players (e.g. submissive behaviour). The results showed that observers were more likely to approach sooner than they

ifics and

y

gone through domestication they have most likely undergone neotenisation, the evolutionary process whereby juvenile characteristics are retained into adulthood, which allow them to increase their learning capability. Their third theory, and one that has been discussed in a number of papers (Hare & Tomasello, 2005; Miklosi, et al., 2004; Miklosi, & Wida, & Csanyi, 2005), is that dogs live in a human environment and have developed the ability to interpret some human behaviours through natural or artificial selection of the species (Miklosi et al., 2004).

This chapter was conducted to see if dogs would imitate a conspecific demonstrator perform a pedal action. A two-action methodology (see chapter 2) was used. Zentall (2003) states that this method can be used to study the ability to learn from a conspecific demonstrator (pg. 92) and “provides for the study of social learning” (Zentall, 2006, pg. 344).

None of these theories were tested in this study. The study was conducted with a conspecific demonstrator. The study was conducted with a conspecific demonstrator. The study was conducted with a conspecific demonstrator.

A total of 27 dogs (*Canis familiaris*) were used in this experiment of which two dogs were assigned the role of demonstrator with the remaining 25 dogs were categorised as observers. The observers varied in breed and age (see Table 4.1 for details); and were all \leq 11 different breeds were represented.

Dog's name	Breed Type	Age	Dog's name	Breed Type	Age
	Springer Spaniel	2 years	Tesse	Jack Russell	10 years
	Springer Spaniel	1 year	Daisy	Boxer	7 months
	Border Terrier	2 years	Paddi	Border Terrier	3 years
		1 year	India	Weimeraner	2 years
			Cholmondley	Labrador	7 months
			ius	Lurcher	5 years
				Labrador	1 year and 5 months
				Indesian back	7 months
					9 months
					r

The experiment was held in a room within the Canine Etiquette facility. The room was 7 m x 7 m and contained chairs, video cameras and the testing apparatus. During the experiment there were four people (caretaker of the dogs, videographer, time keeper and demonstrator) in the room along with the demonstrator dog.

The testing apparatus consisted of a wooden box (0.6X 0.6 m) with a pedal that could be pushed down. The apparatus was placed in the middle of the room so that the dog could see the pedal was pushed down and what part of the dog's

pedal was pushed down fully either with their nose or

pedal was pushed down fully either with their nose or

pedal was pushed down fully either with their nose or

pedal was pushed down fully either with their nose or

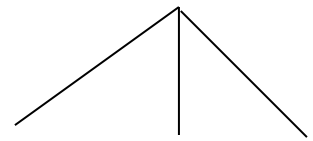
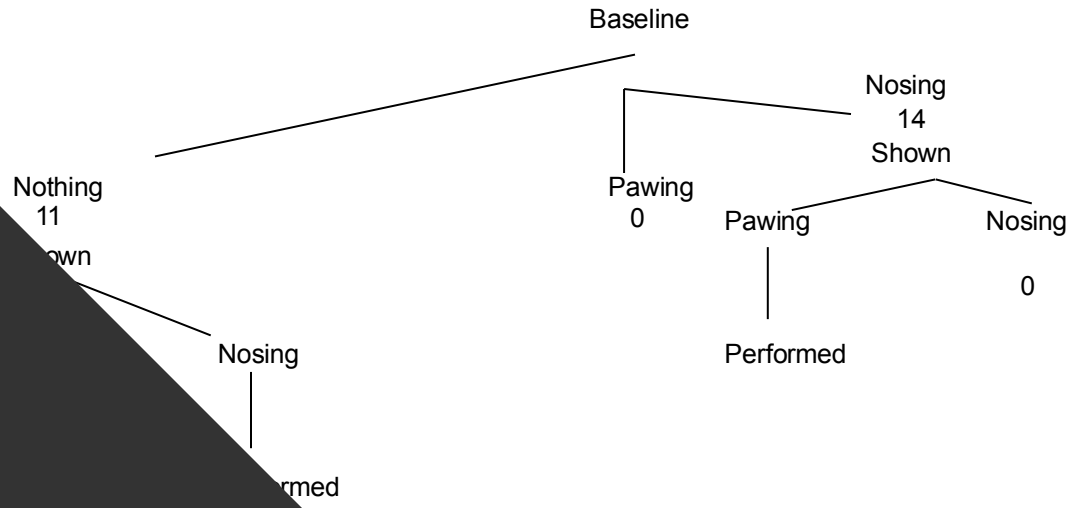
Following baseline, the appropriate non familiar demonstrator dog was brought in. The observer had to be looking in the general direction of the demonstrator before a demonstration began. The observer saw the demonstration 5 times. Observers in the nose demonstrator push down the pedal with its nose five times and those in the paw demonstrator push down the pedal with its paw five times. Food reward was given to the demonstrator once the pedal was fully down. The reinforcement was given to the observer dogs. After the observation sessions the demonstrator dog was cleaned down (Clorox hand wipes) and the observer dog was given 5 min. in the room to rest. The testing conditions was identical to those in the

1). None of the observer

All of them

paw

er these

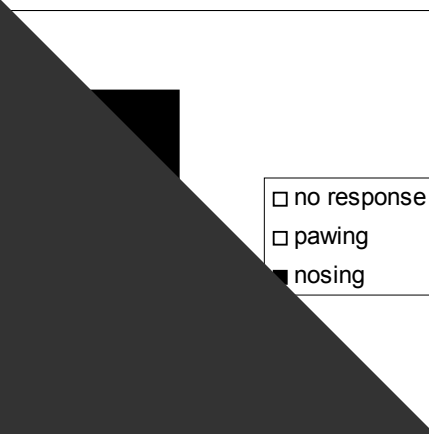


Nosing	Pawing	Nothing
7	1	6

wing	Nothing	Nosing	Pawing	Nothing
	2	4	0	1

break down of the observers' response during baseline, what behaviour of the demonstrators and their responses after watching the

dogs that saw a paw appeared to press the pedal down with () or not respond (occurred in 2+6=8 dogs) as opposed to () for (occurred 0+1=1 dog). Similarly, dogs that pressed the pedal down with their nose (occurred in 4) as opposed to pressing the pedal with their







performing paw push and Tessa pushing the pedal with her paw after seeing the demonstrator.

After seeing the demonstration, Tess began to use her paw and Cholmodley began to press down the pedal. However, we could only class one of these as imitation because imitation is judged by how closely the movement of the observer (Miklosi, 1999). Cholmodley did not imitate the movement of the demonstrator (Fig. 4.3). He used his nose to push the pedal whereas the demonstrator dog used more of its chin to push the pedal. Cholmodley possibly showed emulation of the demonstrator's action of pushing the pedal, rather than attempting to imitate the movement (responding to the same stimulus as the demonstrator); whereas Tessa showed imitation. Tessa used a different

the pilot study

quire

se

1997). Furthermore, many studies have shown that dogs learn from watching humans (Miklosi et al. 1998; Pongracz et al. 2001, 2003, 2005; Kubinyi et al., 2003; Miklosi et al., 2003; Pruni et al. 2001; Hare and Tomasello, 1999).

Therefore, in this we conducted another experiment.

This experiment was run for a number of reasons. First, to see if there was a difference in learning between a baseline (run with the same subjects as are subsequently used in the experimental condition (run with different group of subjects). Both conditions were run to see if there were any tendencies of the species. A baseline was used to see if the demonstrator's behaviour was not novel, but the experimental condition was used to see if there was a second reason why this experiment was run. It was to see if there would be any behaviours already be in the dogs' repertoire. The second reason was to see if there would be any behaviours we wanted to see if there were any demonstrators.

Observer			Observer			Control group	
Breed Type	Age	Dog's name	Breed Type	Age	Dog's name	Breed Type	Age
man	2 yrs. old	Enzo	Retriever	2 yrs. old	Resse	Dachshund	3 yrs. old
ed	3 yrs. old	Cider	Springer spaniel	4 yrs. old	Rex	Pitt	5 yrs. old
	3 yrs. old	Merlin	Shi tzu	3 yrs. old	Gibson	Boxer	6 yrs. old
		Xochitl	Australian Shepard	11 yrs. old	Jackson	Unknown mix	5 yrs. old
		Jack	Lab mix	18 mon.	Chloe-3	Bichon Frise	3 yrs. old
			Lab mix	3 yrs. old	Wookie	Bichon Frise	2 yrs. old
			Husky	2 yrs. old	Jesse	Lab mix	1 yrs. old
				3.5 yrs. old	Lolita	Pit bull	4 yrs. old
				2 yrs. 5 mon	Arlo	Austrailan shepard	5 yrs. old
				mon.	Kia	Huskey	2 yrs. old
					Andy	Unknown mix	10 yrs. old
						Rhodesian Ridgeback	7 yrs. old

collie				Collie	
				Unknown	
Poodle	2 yrs. old	Larry		mix	16 mon.
				Tenn. Mt.	
dog	3 yrs. old	Camilo		dog	9 yrs. old

*... table shows a summary of the dogs used as observers and ones used in the
It includes their names, breed type and age (rounded to the nearest*

... or measuring 0.6 m x 0.6m with a baby gate (1.5m

... behind the door The apparatus was placed as

... rooms varied in size from 4.3m x 5.5m to

... frame with the door

... through the

... with no

... from

removed from the room and the observer dog was placed in the gated area. The dog was called to come through the door by saying the dog's name and "come on." No other reinforcement or reinforcement was offered. The observer dog was given 2 min. to open



dog opening the door with her paw as

tion. Dog

successive

recognized

demonstrator was the author. In this condition the human opened the door on instruction, the experimenter said “good,” gave the demonstrator a piece of cheese and closed the door

Condition

In this condition a naive group of 12 dogs saw no demonstrator. Prior to the test, each dog was led through the door frame with the door open, and then the door was closed. The dog was then placed in the gated area and called (as in the testing conditions).

The significance of the effects of

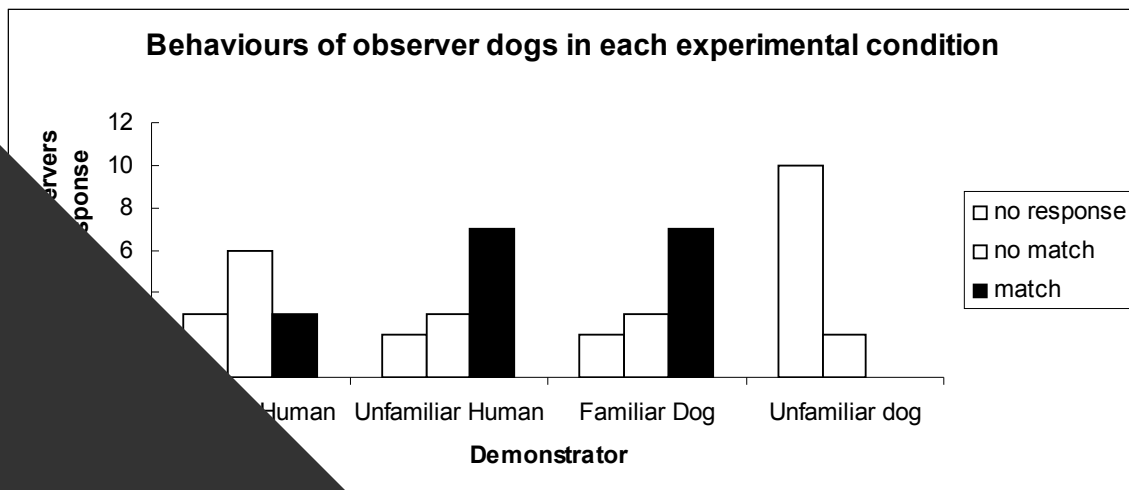
exact tests were used because

and frequencies were less than

te. Figure 4.5 shows the

response or a matching

response as the



observers making responses after watching either a human demonstrator, a familiar dog demonstrator, or an unfamiliar dog demonstrator.

When the demonstrator was a human, we found three

observers making a response of the demonstrator and six

observers making a response when the demonstrator was an

unfamiliar human demonstrator.

When the demonstrator

was a familiar dog, six

observers

did not

make

a

response

of

the

demonstrator.

When

the

demonstrator

was

those that made a matching response and those that made a non-matching response. The distribution between these two groups did not differ between experimental groups.

Figure 4.6 shows the proportion of responses made for each type of demonstrated response (nose, paw or paw) pooled across the four demonstrator types (dog and human; familiar and unfamiliar). Of the 12 dogs in the control condition (where there was not a demonstrator) 6 dogs opened the door with their nose and 6 dogs paw. Dogs that watched a nose demonstrator with her paw, opened the door more with their nose than they did with their paw. When watching a nose demonstrator, the dogs opened the door more with their nose than they did with their paw or not respond at all. When watching a paw demonstrator, the dogs opened the door more with their paw than they did with their nose. This difference was significantly different between experimental and control groups. The demonstrator type affected the likelihood of making a matching response, watching a demonstrator of the same type as the response, watching a demonstrator of the opposite type, the dogs opened the door more with their nose than they did with their paw. In all experimental groups, the dogs opened the door more with their nose than they did with their paw. The response made by the observer was significantly different from the response made by the demonstrator.



4.4 Overall Discussion

An interesting finding is that in both experiments very little imitation was found. The imitation that was found was not statistically significant with both human and dog demonstrators. These results could be due to the fact that we used a variety of breeds of animals that came from different living arrangements. Research has shown differences among breeds and differences in the same breed depending on the environment the breed lives in (i.e. same breed could be either a show dog, a working dog, or a pet dog) (Scott and Fuller, 1965) and differences within breeds in terms of trainability (Serpell and Hsu, 2005). Some studies show “some imitative abilities” after observing a human demonstrator. Researchers state that “there is less direct imitation in dogs than in chimpanzees” (Bradshaw, 2006, pg. 72). It is also noted that as they age they have a short attention span (Serpell et al. (2003) and that they are less

An interesting finding is that both experiments show the observer dogs using their noses to manipulate the apparatus more than they used their paws. This could be due to the demonstrator repeatedly get food for opening the door. Research has shown that dogs sometimes associate a stimulus with food and thus treat it the same way (King and King, 1982; Timberlake, 1983). In a few studies with rats, when they used ball bearings as a token to obtain food, the rats would pick up the bearing with their mouth, drop it into their mouth, and run to the end of the chamber near the food. They would chew, drop, and retrieve the bearing for lengthy periods (Timberlake, 1983, pg. 309). Further research needs to be done to see if using their mouth more was because they were trying to imitate what the demonstrator receive.

Research on dogs that are used to working shows that the frequency of nose use is more frequent in working dogs. There is a decrease in nose use in dogs that are new and has not been trained. It has been shown how dogs learn to use their noses to solve problems.

to manipulate objects like dogs, we went for a simpler methodology, but still incorporating
lightly altered two action method.

CHAPTER V

Evidence of social learning in a group of Bactrian camels (*Camelus bactrianus*)

Introduction

Interaction plays an important role in assisting the development of adaptive behaviours in both humans and other social animals (Boyd and Richerson, 1988; Richerson and Boyd, 2001). Social interactions can provide an opportunity for social learning, a process by which behaviour by one individual can influence the behaviour in another individual of the same species. This chapter discusses what can underlie social learning, and in an attempt to identify the mechanisms involved within the broader context of social learning, it discusses local enhancement, stimulus enhancement, and social facilitation. A few terms that are pertinent to the study of social learning are defined.

and stimulus
the

humans are better imitators than their wild-born conspecifics, suggesting that experience with humans play a substantial role either in enhancing imitative performance or in increasing imitative ability (Heyes and Galef, 2004); there is also the possibility that domestication to domestic condition has led to a greater tendency to imitate (Heyes and Galef, 2004). The definition of domestication has not been agreed upon by researchers, but it will be defined as the relationship between humans and animals that involves control of all aspects of the protection, movement, reproduction and management of the animals over several generations.

Animals that have been raised in close proximity to humans have been found to have enhanced imitative abilities. These studies have found that these animals have enhanced imitative abilities (Congracz et al., 2001, 2003, 2005; Heyes and Galef, 2004; Heyes, Viranyi, and Huber, 2007); (Heyes and Galef, 1995; Topal, Byrne, and Gacser, 2005). Although the exact mechanisms of domestication are still unclear (Heyes, 1984). The domestication of animals has led to a greater tendency to imitate (Heyes and Galef, 2004).

Palestine around 1100 BC. At least since then, camels have been a major part of human life in parts of Asia, Africa and the Middle East and have been used for military operations, as pack animals or riding animals and as a source of milk or even food (Wilson, 1984; Wilson, 1984; Wilson and Dagg, 1981).

Camels live in social groups up to 30 that are found in mountainous, rocky areas. Group size varies in size and composition with each area and season (Wilson, 1981). They have more body mass and shorter legs than the dromedary, which makes them more suitable for cold climates.

Camels are found in Northern Afghanistan, Siberia, Mongolia, and Northern China (Wilson, 1981). They live at altitudes up to 4000 meters, but coexist and may interbreed with dromedaries (Wilson, 1981).

Camels have many abilities. However, there has been some controversy over whether camels are considered to live or were domesticated. Some scholars claim that camels were domesticated to live or were domesticated (Wilson and Dagg, 1981). In the desert, it

older group members. The zoo housed Bactrian camels (*Camelus bactrianus*) were trained to perform different responses (nose and hoof) to different stimuli (targets placed on the ground and on the fence). These responses were chosen to facilitate the zoo's husbandry programme.

In this experiment, changes needed to be made from that of other social learning experiments with domesticated animals. These changes ensured that the camels could perform as well as possible in the zoo environment where they were studied) and prevented any individual of the group to monopolize the apparatus. Finally, these changes ensured that the camels had access to the stimuli and the opportunity to respond, and that the results observed, it would be possible to say with confidence about the nature of the social life of the species.

The Bactrian camels (*Camelus bactrianus*) housed at the zoo were trained to perform different responses (nose and hoof) to different stimuli (targets placed on the ground and on the fence). These responses were chosen to facilitate the zoo's husbandry programme. In this experiment, changes needed to be made from that of other social learning experiments with domesticated animals. These changes ensured that the camels could perform as well as possible in the zoo environment where they were studied) and prevented any individual of the group to monopolize the apparatus. Finally, these changes ensured that the camels had access to the stimuli and the opportunity to respond, and that the results observed, it would be possible to say with confidence about the nature of the social life of the species.

Apparatus

Targets consisted of a wooden 0.6 m x 1.27 m pole with a wooden shape at the end of it (each shape was painted a different colour). In total there were six targets, three used for nose training (white triangle and blue square) and three used for hoof training (red triangle, white square, blue circle). Three of the targets were assigned to a camel, and the other two (red triangle hoof target and a white triangle nose) were used to control for stimulus/local enhancement. All targets were attached to the fence by a carabiner clip and rope. Nose targets were hung at a height of 1.2 m and foot targets were laid on the ground (see figure 5.1 for diagram).

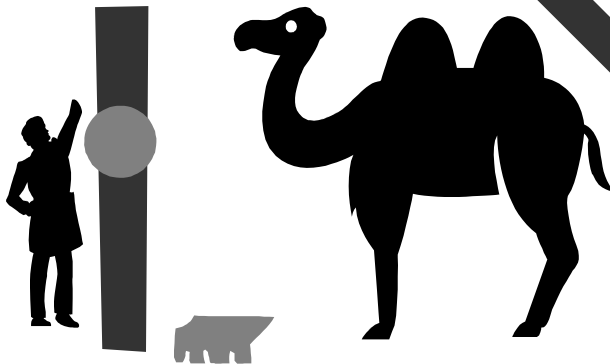


Figure 5.1: Shows a diagram of the experimental set up. The experimenter was behind the chain link fence while the nose and hoof targets were assessable to the camel.

Procedure

Before training began, five sessions of baseline were conducted in which all five targets were present, to see if there was any predisposition to interact with any of them. In training, a multiple baseline across subjects design (see Hersen and Barrow, 1976) was used.

Each behaviour was trained using successive approximations to the target behaviour (Johnston and Pennypacker, 1993). Each correct approximation was immediately reinforced with a conditioned reinforcer (click) and a primary reinforcer of a

first.

During the

behaviour to all

order Carmel, Oscar

nose. Nosing was defined

second. Carmel and Alice were

respectively, with their right hoof to p

hoof touching the target for more than a sec

and hoof behaviours at the end of the experiment

behaviours.

In addition to the assigned targets a red triangle hoof

nose target were always present, for two reasons: 1) to ensure that

the subject who was being trained had to choose between two targets (i.e.

discrimination) and 2) to allow the recording of any trained behaviours, from

and untrained subjects, that might occur to it, bearing in mind that no behaviour to

them was ever reinforced for any subject.

White
hoof target

Blue Circle
hoof target

Blue Square
nose target

Red Triangle
hoof and
White Triangle
nose

*Table 5.1: Shows the targets assigned to
targets used as controls.*

After the behaviour of the camel currently being trained was well established, the next camel and their target were added and training began. The targets of the first subjects' targets were still present until the end of the experiment. When Carmel's behaviour was well established, training Oscar began, but Oscar did not receive reward making correct responses to her target. The number of sessions, the targets presented, and the responses reinforced at each stage are shown in Table 5.2.

2		
3	Carmel and Oscar	
4	Carmel, Oscar, and Alice	77-116

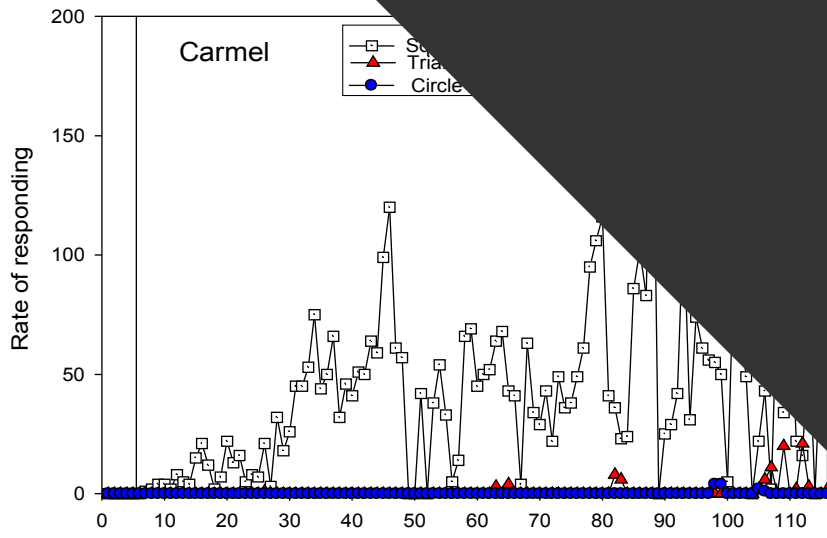
Table 5.2: The sessions each subject could participate in, and the number of sessions available, at each stage of the experiment.

At the beginning of each session the appropriate numbers of targets were put in place. Sessions lasted 10 min. from when one of the subjects correctly touched their assigned target. All sessions were video taped and data were collected from the tapes after the session was completed.

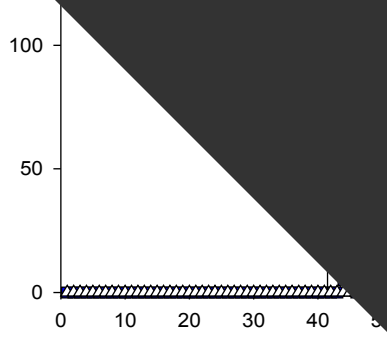
5.3 Results

All four subjects were successfully trained to perform the assigned behaviour to their assigned target. It took the subjects between five to 14 sessions to achieve this. The subjects were more likely to respond to their assigned target and perform the correct behaviour than any another combination of events.

the
training)
the white square
increase in the 29th
86th session before averaging
starting training.



Rate of responding



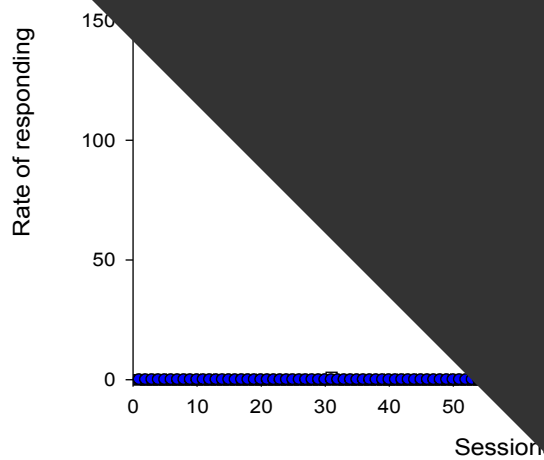


Figure 5.2: Shows the rate of responding per session for Oscar (blue circles) and James (white triangles) towards the targets available. It also shows James' responding during his initial training (training) towards the targets available. Note that James' responding is during his initial demonstration. Vertical lines show the transition from baseline to trained behaviour.

After 36 sessions of Carmel's initial training, Oscar was trained to respond to the blue square target by touching his nose to the blue square target. Oscar started to increase his responding to the blue square target from an average of five responses to 35 in the eighth session. Oscar's highest responding was 150 responses in the 100th session, whereas, in a couple of session Oscar didn't respond to the blue square target at all. Oscar only touched his hoof to the target twice in the entire experiment; and in a couple of sessions he was not trained to perform and responded to the incorrect nose target (white triangle) 57 times during the experiment.

After 38 sessions of training Carmel and Oscar, Alice's blue circle hoof target was added and she was trained to touch her hoof to this target. Alice started to touch her hoof to the blue circle target in the first training session with 11 responses which increased to a high of 86 responses in session 109 before averaging about 48 responses in the final 5 sessions prior to James starting training. In addition to Alice responding to her own target correctly she also nosed Oscar's target twice and the unassigned white triangle nose target

trial

James

perform both (n

performing those beh

triangle target and after five

make sure he could discriminate

sessions James exclusively responded

per session. After he was trained to respond

put his nose to a circle target. After his responding

session) the circle target was added to the rest of the other

responded the circle nose target exclusively with a rate of 10

Table 5.3 shows rate of responses per minute made by Cam

all targets and the type of social learning each would indicate. It should

physically impossible for the camels to touch their hooves to the nose target

response could be made to the hoof targets. Two of the non-target stimuli (white tri

for nose behaviour and red triangle for the hoof behaviour), were not assigned to any cam

in the group. Thus no behaviour towards them could be either imitative or stimulus/local

enhancement. The other targets were assigned to other camels with in the group. If the

camels are able to imitate, each kind of modelled response should occur at a higher rate

than the corresponding kind of non-modelled response. For James, modelled responses

should have occurred more on assigned targets than non assigned targets. If local or

stimulus enhancement occurs, non-modelled responses should occur at a lower rate to the

non-assigned targets than to the other targets. Different stimuli were available for different

resp

R

Genera

stimulus other than

response to that target (con

Generalized non-modelled

stimulus other than its target, when no

response to that target. Such responses cou

camel had been reinforced for making the alterna

for Oscar and one such target for Carmel and Alice), or

camel had been reinforced for contacting.

Incorrect response to own target: This could only occur for Oscar if a non-trained response (nose) was made to their own target.

Non-generalized modelled response: Oscar's trained response (nose) to a stimulus other than his target.

Non-generalized, non-modelled response: This could occur if Alice, Oscar, or Carmel made a non-trained response to a stimulus other than its target, when no other camel had been reinforced for making that response to that target (i.e. touching the triangle targets) or if Oscar made an untrained response to any of the nose targets. Such responses could be made either to a target to which another camel had been reinforced for making a different response, or to the non-assigned targets.

not

correct st

(re)					
Reinforced					
Incorrect response to target					
Generalized modelled response					
Generalized non-modelled response					
To another animal's target	N/A				
To a non-target	0.079	0.079			
Non-generalized modelled response	0.00	N/A			
Non-generalized, non-modelled response					
To another animal's target	0.000	0.002	0.002		Square Triangle
To a non-target	0.000	0.000	0.005		Nose to Re Triangle

Table 5.3: Responses averaged across all sessions in which they were available. Where a given class of response could be made to more than one stimulus, rates to the different stimuli (reinforced targets for other camels) are added, and rates of the unassigned stimulus (not reinforced for any camel) are shown. The final columns shows which response(s) by Carmel would fit each category, as an example.

Oscar had the highest response rate at 4.5 responses per min. for his trained behaviour to his target. Oscar did perform the trained hoof behaviour to Carmel's target, but at a very low rate of 0.002 responses per minute. Other than his assigned target, the

of 0

C

rate of 4.0 resp

but did respond to th

0.079 responses per minu

Alice had the lowest resp

responding at 3.6 responses per minu

behaviours on most targets, but rates of resp

responses per minute to the white square hoof targ

Table 5.4 shows rates for James's responding. I

responses per minute for the hoof target and 1.8 responses per

Before training his rates were very low with the highest rate of res

responses per minute on Oscar's blue square target.

Reinforced response	Nose	Hoof	Stimuli tou
After training	1.850	1.400	
Before training (No reinforcement)			
Possible imitation			
To hoof targets	N/A	0.003	Hoof to White Square or Blue Circle
To nose target	0.017		Blue square
Possible stimulus enhancement			
Nose to hoof target		0.005	White square, blue circle or red triangle

Table 5.4: Rates of responding per minute across all sessions in which they were available for James.

watching

been any exper

This experim

learn the behaviour of the

social groups have been found to

chimpanzees) what food to eat (for ex

vocal calls to make (for example, Powell, D

adult members.

This experimental design meant that James was

experiment and was trained only at the end to prove that he

hoof touching behaviours at a high rate. During the experiment Ja

group members' targets. However, the highest response rate was 14 nos

Oscar's target across the 80 sessions that the target was available and the low

Carmel's hoof target (4 touches across the 116 sessions the target was available). In

one of these responses are above chance rate.

Rates at which Alice and Carmel made alternative responses to Oscar's target were

non-negligible, and these responses could be interpreted as imitative, but there is no

standard of comparison for them. Where there is a standard of comparison, there was no

evidence of imitation: There is no sign that rates of modelled responses were higher than

rates corresponding non-modelled responses. There is also little evidence for local or

stimulus enhancement: for all the camels as the rate of responding to targets assigned to

other camels were no higher than to the corresponding non-assigned targets.

social learning would be possible. It could be that camels are engaged at other tasks to see if the evidence makes it less likely in the life of domestic camels, or in the

In the next chapter I investigate I found very little evidence for social learning one more domesticated species. However, this pa elephant thus making it difficult to use a two action method other “gold standard” method for investigation imitation, the This methodology also let me test any evidence of a higher order

6.1 Introduction

In the current study, we conducted an experiment to test whether generalized imitation can be vicariously learned from an individual behaviour may be under a social influence from the group (see section 1.4.1 for explanation). This is in a well trained animal with centuries of domestication, on one hand, adapted to be responsive to human commands (Udell, Dorey, and Wynne, 2008), and on the other might have evolved order strategies for dealing with new commands through formal training.

The “do as I do” methodology has been used for investigating generalized imitation in children for decades (Baer & Sherman, 1964; Poulson, Kymissis, Reeve, & Reeve, 1990; Young, Krantz, McClannahan, & Poulson, 1994). In this method a subject is trained to match a few gestures of the demonstrator for reinforcement (i.e. the demonstrator raises her/his hand and the subject raises his/her hand) on the verbal command of “Do this” or “Do it”. After the subject reaches criterion on the trained behaviours a novel behaviour is added that has not been trained to see if the subject will spontaneously imitate the behaviour. Successfully copying a novel demonstration is taken as evidence of understanding the rule needed for imitative performance.

To our knowledge the first formal experiment with animals to use the ‘do as I do’ methodology was Hayes and Hayes (1952). In this experiment they taught a chimpanzee

acti
the subje
behaviours that
well in response to the
mentioned, the Hayes and
scientifically adequate detail of
(pg. 841)". Thus since this study a
(Moore, 1993), dolphins (Herman, 2002a,
Myowa-Yamakoshi & Matsuzawa, 2000). The
few behaviours under the command 'do this'. After the
(which varies between experiments) the subject is shown ne
the demonstrator with the command 'do this". If the subject ma
response to the human performing the behaviours and the verbal comm
be evidence of generalized imitative learning.

The "do as I do" methodology is advantageous for three reasons. First, it
to the two action methodology, both of which control for local/stimulus enhancem
(when the actions of the demonstrator draws the attention of the observer to a particular
stimulus) because "arbitrary actions were presented instead of solutions to technical
problems" (Custance et al., 1995, pg. 840), so the researcher can tell true imitation from
other types of social learning. Second, this methodology also controls for contagion (a
behaviour -probably instinctive- performed by the demonstrator tends to act as a releaser
for the same behaviour in an observer e.g. yawning), because a large number of actions can
be reproduced. With each added action the likelihood that the behaviour is being produced

the
imitation,
generalized im
behaviour the demon
across many different be
subject learns this relationship
operant. Finally, with this method we
just looking to see if it does so spontaneously

There are many responses that animals can
merely, if ever, emitted spontaneously. By putting
repertoire we are increasing the likelihood that this type of b

Elephants were chosen for this experiment for four main
been previously used to study social learning in an experimental setting
anecdotal evidence in field studies (see Sukumar, 2003 for examples), the
animals, they have been domesticated and researchers have shown they ha
cognitive ability. In the following paragraphs we will elaborate on these facts.

Elephants are among the most advanced social organizations known amongst
mammals (Norton, 1994; Lee and Moss, 1999). Group sizes range from 2-35 individuals
for African elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) and fewer than 5 individuals for Asian
elephants (*Elephas maximus*). However these group sizes can vary and have been known to
reach over 100 individuals. Group size has been known to decrease due to the lack of food
and water and increase for protection, mainly against humans (Sukumar, 2003). Calves are
thus born into a stable family unit where females stay with the group their entire lives and

either

independently

The main reason for this is that the knowledge of the location of the water hole is passed on to it, from its long history of use by the community, and is passed on to the next generation for her family group. This knowledge is passed on to the next generation and survival of her family. This knowledge is passed on to the next generation by her daughters and granddaughters. This knowledge is passed on to the next generations this knowledge (Sukumar, 2003, pg 125). This knowledge is passed on to the next generation of a complex social life that reaches into this "multi-generational" (Sukumar, 2003, pg 125).

Domestic animals are important in studying social learning. Researchers have found that chimpanzees who have had extensive experience with humans are better imitators than their wild-born conspecifics, suggesting that experience with humans play a substantial role either in enhancing imitative performance or in generalizing imitative ability (Heyes and Galef, 2004); there is also the possibility that genetic adaptation to domestic condition has led to a greater tendency to imitate (Heyes and Galef, 2004). A single definition of domestication has not been agreed upon by researchers, so for this paper domestication will be defined as the relationship between humans and animals in which humans control all aspects of the protection, movement, reproduction and food (Clutton-Brock, 1994) and have done so over several generations. Elephants are thought to have been domesticated as early as 3000 B.C. (Sukumar, 2003). Even though elephants are skittish by nature they can be trained to put up with just about anything if they trust their handler

good

It

mammals (Nar

1994; Romanes, 188

elephants have been shown

1994), use tools such as twigs for

(Sukumar, 2003) and are able to recog

Reiss, 2006). However, self recognition in

argued against the existence of self recognition, b

Povinelli's study did not find evidence of self recognit

mirrors that the elephants couldn't touch.

In summary, elephants live in complex social world and are the subject of much research in cognition (Schulte, 2000). The purpose of the present study was to see if we wanted to see if generalized imitation could be learned through the “do as I do” methodology. Second we wanted to see if the subjects were able to discriminate between the different commands given to them. Discrimination tasks have been the favoured method of assessing perceptual and cognitive capabilities in animals (Jeffery, 2007). This could be because “discrimination tasks are easy to administer and score, and provide ready data in the form of easily quantified learning curves” (Jeffery, 2007, pg 213).

6.2 Method

Subjects and Setting

The subjects in this experiment were one Asian elephant (*Elephas maximus*), Gay and one African elephant (*Loxodonta africana*), Dutchess aged 30 and 38 respectively.

Envi
were dur
sessions were e
decade. All the train
head keeper. The role of the

Sessions were conducted
m² and consisted of heavy iron walls
there was a cage that was filled with hay du
enclosure there was a blue barrel that was used as

During the training phase, (though not the base
reward (apple and/or banana) was used along with a conditio
of these were also used in the daily training sessions conducted for

Procedure

Behaviours that were going to be used for the subjects to model and
which these behaviours were presented for both phases were chosen by the trainer
experimenter. Both had prior experience of the elephants' behaviour gained from them
watching the behaviour of the elephants. They independently ranked the behaviours in
order from easy to difficult, and a final order was determined by discussion. These
behaviours were then presented to the elephants in an order so that the level of difficulty
was alternated. The reason for alternating the behaviour difficulty was so that if a learning
curve was seen it should not be due to the fact that the behaviours were getting easier, and
also so that we wouldn't lose the elephants' interest by giving them a series of difficult
behaviours.

trained to imitate the behaviour of the trainer in the presence of the experimenter. Behaviours were counted as correct if they resembled the trained behaviour. It was assumed that the trainer had modelled the behaviour that would have been considered imitative. If more than 5 correct behaviours occurred then the session was considered successful. Once the percent correct reached 80% the behaviour was added to the pool of already trained behaviours. A new session was started for a new behaviour. During baseline there were no behaviours.

All but a few sessions were video taped. Data were collected from the video and were checked for accuracy later from the video.

Phase two: Gay was the only subject that participated in this phase. In this phase we used the same behaviours that were used in the first phase except we combined them together, thus the elephant was to perform two behaviours simultaneously (lift trunk and cross legs). This phase was conducted to see if it would be easier for imitation or discrimination if the behaviours were sequences of elements that were already in the animal's repertoire. The procedures were the same as phase I, except the behaviours were combinations of those trained in phase one.

6.3 Results

Dutchess, the African elephant, continued in this experiment until it was recognised that cataracts were affecting both of her eyes and she could no longer see the experimenters clearly. Thus all the data presented are of Gay's performance.

behaviours
 behaviours
 were presented
 Demonstrated Behav

Single behaviours	
Lift leg (LL)	
Cross legs (CL)	
Lift trunk (LT)	
Lift something w/trunk (LST)	180
Shake head (SH)	153
Lower head (LH)	61
Combination behaviours	
Lift trunk and Lift leg (LTLL)	175
Cross legs and Shake head (CLSH)	192
Lower head and lift trunk (LHLT)	83
Lower head and Shake head (LHSH)	47

Table 6.1: The number of trials for each behaviour after training for the entire experiment in the order they were trained for both phase one and phase two.

Table 6.2 shows the percent of hits (correct behaviours made by Gay) and false positives (behaviour was made but was incorrect for the command given, e.g. demonstrator lifted his leg and Gay crossed her legs) for each behaviour, averaged across all sessions after training had begun with the relevant command. For the single behaviours, *lift trunk* and *lift something with trunk* ended up being the ones that were most reliably expressed

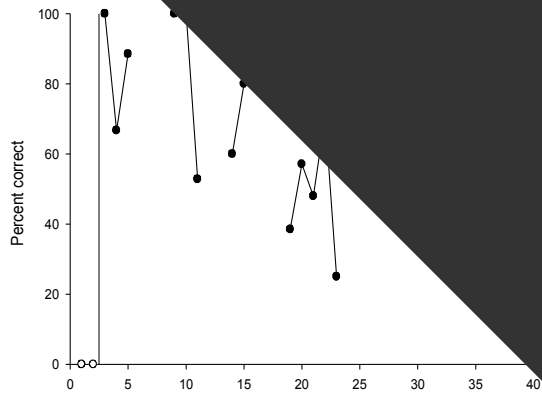
com
 easier for
 of *cross legs* an

Behaviour performed		
Single behaviour		
Lift leg (LL)		
Cross legs (CL)		
Lift trunk (LT)		
Lift something w/trunk (LST)	65.0%	
Shake head (SH)	60.3%	
Lower head (LH)	76.0%	
Combination behaviour		
Lift trunk and lift leg (LTLL)	71.1%	
Cross legs and shake head (CLSH)	46.8%	10.0%
Lower head and lift trunk (LHLT)	58.3%	16.7%
Lower head and shake head (LHSH)	69.6%	0%

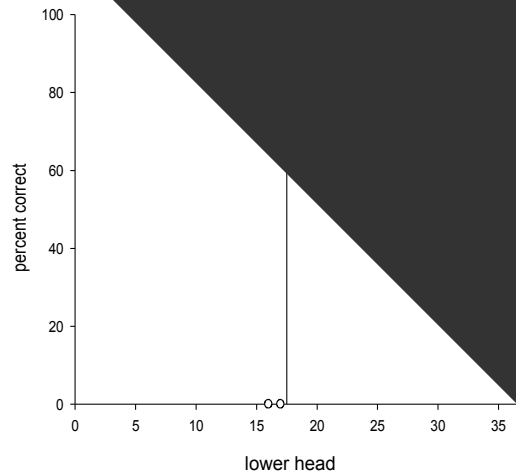
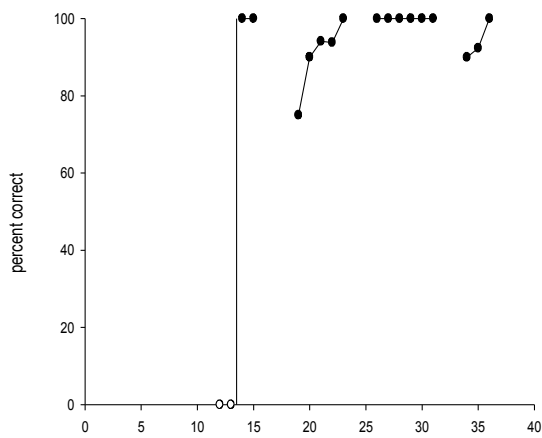
Table 6.2: The percent hits and false positives for each behaviour, averaged across sessions after training had begun with the relevant command. The behaviours are listed in the order in which they were trained. Only the first response made after a command was counted.

The graphs show the percent correct (number of times the behaviour was performed correctly in the presence of the demonstration/the number of times the demonstration was presented) of each behaviour across all sessions (Figure 6.1). The vertical lines indicate the phase change between baseline and training and the gaps indicate sessions when the behaviour was not modelled, not all behaviours could be modelled in all sessions because of time constraints. As shown by the graphs, Gay did not spontaneously imitate any of the

cross



Lift Trunk



Shakehead

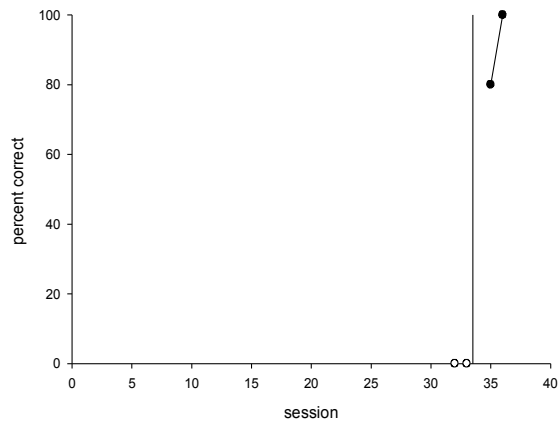
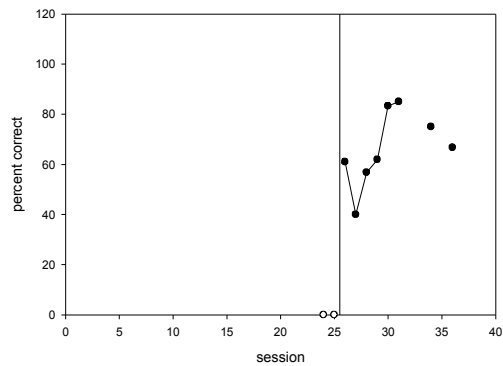


Figure 6.1: The percent correct across sessions for all the behaviours trained in phase one. The vertical lines indicate the phase change between baseline and training and the gaps

behaviours (

except for the com

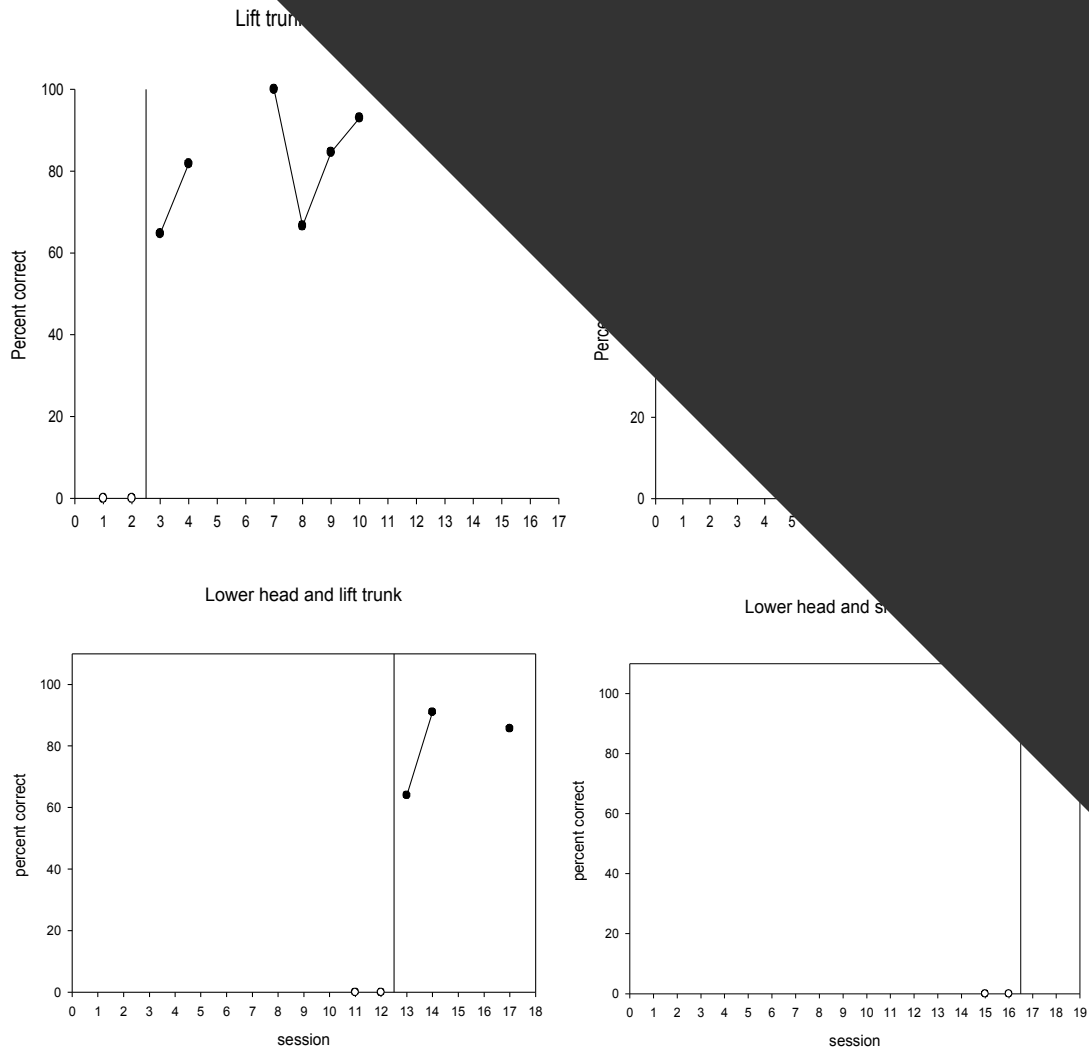


Figure 6.2: Shows the percent correct across session for all the behaviours trained in phase two. The vertical lines indicate the phase change between baseline and training and the gaps indicate sessions when the behaviour was not modelled, not all behaviours could be modelled in all sessions because of time constraints.

6.4 Discussion

Gay was successfully trained to perform all the behaviours, however generalized imitation did not emerge after training 10 behaviours (both single and combination) under

in the first session. In the second session, Gay's behaviour was more consistent. In the third session, behaviours that were not observed in the first two sessions were observed. Second, Gay's behaviour was more consistent when the leg or the head keeper's arm was used. Third, Gay perceived the responses she was given. Fourth, perception requires a self concept and a concept of others. Such a concept (Plotnik et al., 2006), this research was done with a single elephant, and a previous study (Povinelli et al., 2000) showed awareness.

Although the results did not show imitation, the results showed Gay's ability to discriminate between different commands including combination commands. In previous studies of elephants the level of observed discrimination was limited. Elephants have been known to discriminate between light and dark (Plotnik, Markowitz, Schmidt, Nadal, and Squier (1975) and objects (Rensch, 1957; Savage-Rumbaugh et al., 1994). We gave Gay 10 commands and found that she had more difficulty discriminating between the combination commands than she did with the single commands. The percent correct for the single behaviour phase (with the exception of cross legs) was at 100% in the first sessions after training, whereas with the combination behaviours the percent correct was at 60% or below (with the exception of shake head/lower head combo). The combination commands may have been more distinct because there were two behaviours occurring in sequential order. In Savage et al. (1994) the objects the elephants were asked to discriminate were household objects (soda can, brick, spoon) and they found elephants

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trials to re
be because ges
due to elephants' po
vision and are dichromatic

This current experiment
collection, some as long as a month, h
effects. Gay's ability to perform the correct
than when she was participating in the experiment
remember the commands even after months of not taking
and perhaps Asian elephants, could possess a rather good long-term
suggested by Markovitz et al. (1975). However more research needs to be done to determine
the limits of this ability.

Although this study did not succeed to demonstrate imitative learning in the African
elephant, the results add to the small pool of research on elephant cognitive abilities.
Further investigation needs to be conducted to find the extent of these abilities. In
particular the animals' capacity for discriminating and producing sequences of body
gestures seems worth further investigation.

7.1 Overview

Of 116 references cited in this thesis, only 5 include the word 'theory of mind'. This suggests that, though social learning is often used to describe the acquisition of particular responses, it is not generally used to describe the acquisition of behaviour in general, and is not generally used to describe (Gibson, 1999), especially behaviour through observation in a natural environment.

Although some psychologists feel the need to theorize about what an animal understands the actions of another, this thesis has not concluded that an animal being evidence of an animal possessing a theory of mind. Instead, it has drawn conclusions from the field of behaviour analysis, who believe that science should focus on observable behaviour and not theorize what is going on in the animals mind. This was done by extending the range of settings and species in which it has been studied. In addition, a new variation of the 'two action' method was developed to allow for imitative learning research to be conducted in settings outside the laboratory without the need to separate animals from their social groups.

7.2 Summary of results

Only species that naturally live in social groups were chosen for this thesis. Since the topic is social learning, choosing species that would be more likely to learn from watching their conspecifics was the most logical. This thesis was naturally split further into studies of domesticated animals and primates. Primates were chosen because as far back as

behavioural differences between wild-born and domesticated animals because of the influence of their wild-born parents. This plays a substantial role in the ability (Heyes and Galef, 2001) domestic condition has led to a (2004).

In the Goeldi's monkey experiment which allowed for the independent detection of social enhancement, and true imitation. No evidence of imitation was found despite extended exposure to the conditions, in contrast to what is obtained from other callitrichines (e.g. marmosets, *Callithrix jacchus* (lids). It appears that this group of callitricicts do not always show social

This outcome makes sense if you consider the natural behaviour of Goeldi's monkeys. In the wild, Goeldi's monkeys are seen to disappear into the trees when an observer approaches (Pook and Pook, 1979). In my observation while conducting the experiment we found the monkeys to be evasive at first. Thus I had to spend a few weeks just sitting on the floor in front of their enclosure before they habituated to my presence. They are clearly attentive to the presence of other individuals, whether of their own or a different species. However, detailed analysis of video records, and analysis of session by session data, show that, although they interacted frequently with the targets and with each other, at no point did the monkeys give the appearance that they were attending to and copying each other's behaviour. Research is now being conducted at Paignton

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manipula

In the E

both groups. Two stu

the Diana group were fou

However, imitative behaviours

Furthermore the tendency to imitate

were trained and given a reward after imita

interesting observation made in the experiments

imitate the demonstrator's behaviour were juveniles. In

sense for the juveniles to be the ones that watch and copy the

group as this is a faster way to learn about their environment. In c

adults more when they are younger and decrease this time as they age (A

Ritchie, 1994), although other research has found no affect (see Prescott and

Smith, 1999).

In addition to studying non-human primates we also studied domesticated anima

In the first study we used one of the longest domesticated species, the dog. We conducted

two experiments with this species. In the first experiment we used a pedal as the apparatus

and let the subject watch a demonstrator operate it in one of two ways (either with its paw

or with its nose). In this condition we found one dog out of 25 showed convincing evidence

of imitative learning. This is after a baseline where she did not touch the apparatus,

showing that the behaviour wasn't previously in her repertoire.

was used in experiments with dogs. Both are effective ways of comparing human and conspecific behaviour. The comparison will be better if the human condition is the more widely used. The experiment conducted was to see if choosing an alternative demonstrator would increase the dogs' chances to learn something. There should be a difference between human and conspecific demonstrators if there would be a difference in responding between unfamiliar

Unlike that found with the macaques and Diana's method, we did not show the nose and paw behaviour during baseline in both experiments. If they did not respond in baseline, we did not find significant signs of social learning. In fact, the dogs responded significantly less in the presence of an unfamiliar dog. A similar finding was found in cats (Chesler, 1969) and such findings have been used to explain Thorndike's results (Wynne, 2004). This suggests that dogs find an unfamiliar conspecific demonstrator distracting. This is a factor that has not been studied with any species, but one that might affect the results when conducting these types of experiments since most social groups live together in hierarchies. It seems worth investigating further what kinds of demonstrators are more likely to be copied. For example, would a subordinate dog pay attention more to another subordinate or a dominant dog? This line of research was not able to be pursued within the scope of this thesis.

This...
data were...
any of the men...
method used in this...
social learning, but other...
should look at other behaviours...

The final experiment was com...
However, because we were limited in group...
by using a 'do as I do' method, which would also...
learning.

The results of this experiment did not produce any fi...
However, this could be due to a number of reasons. First, we were...
subject to follow a human who has a different body shape and has never...
to pay attention to their movement before. Second, we were limited on the an...
behaviours we could match and perhaps did not have enough behaviours for the sub...
pick up on what we were asking her to do.

7.3 Is the low rate of imitation surprising?

Thorndike (1898) was unable to find evidence of imitation in chickens, cats, dogs
and monkeys that he brought into his laboratory, though all learned by trial and error. He
interpreted these failures to imitate and their ability to learn by trial and error as animals'
inability to solve problems (Galef, 2004). Today many studies claim they have found
imitation and have moved the study of imitation in animals "beyond a theoretical,
autonomously motivated search for evidence of a phenomenon to ask what is imitated, who

295

then Galef

Within

all researchers in the

evidence of theory of mind

others. Of course social learning

behaviour, but only “true imitation,”

the action for the demonstrator, can be evidence

For just over 100 years psychologists, having

that time only a handful of researchers have been able

animal’s ability to imitate the actions of a demonstrator (Byrne

2005; Zentall, 2006). In addition, these experiments have rarely been

replicated. This lack of evidence may not be the result of the lack of behaviour

repertoire of nonhuman animals, but rather the limited definition that that field

confined themselves to and the strict methods that they use in their search.

Since Thorndike’s first and simplest definition of “learning to do an act from seeing

it done”, psychologists have sought to answer once and for all whether species can or

cannot imitate and in the process have made the definition more complex. Zentall and

Galef (1988) attempted to distinguish imitation from other forms of social learning.

However, others disagreed with their fundamental distinctions and have created their own

(see Whiten and Ham, 1992). Zentall (2004), however, took a different approach altogether

and defined imitation by describing what imitation is not. Thus, “imitation is a form of

social learning that remains when one has ruled out or controlled for all of the alternative

con-

Furtherm

In addi

others have shown in

differences in analysis, in

been conducted with the “gold s

only four studies have found imitation

Akins and Zentall, 1996, with Japanese qua

and Huber, 2000 with common marmosets).

For some of these studies there might be other

imitation. Voelkl and Huber (2000) showed marmosets either

its mouth or one that opened a film container with its hand after w

demonstrator. The authors found that “common marmosets copied the r

of a conspecific demonstrator to open aKodak film canister” (p 200). Howev

to the table provided both mouth and hand opening occurred in all but two subjects

mouth group (see table 7.1).

	NI	3
	ME	3
Hand	KL	3
	SU	3
	VI	3
	GI	3
	SH	3
	Mean	3.0
Control	Mean	3.0

Table 7.1: Reproduction of table from Voelker et al. (2013) showing the number of hand openings, mouth openings, nose-near-lid approaches, mouth-opening and hand-opening ratios, and the discrimination ratio (the number of hand openings divided by the number of opened canisters) are shown for session 1. The number of opened canisters is shown, as all canisters were opened. For the control group (N=11) only the mean values are shown” (p. 13)

In fact some of the subjects in the mouth group used their hands more (NI for example had 13 hand openings and only 2 mouth openings). The data provided for the first trial which might have given us a true sense of which behavior would have occurred naturally after watching the demonstrator. Furthermore, in the generalization test they counted subjects’ data twice. According to the method section they only had 6 observers total for the mouth demonstration condition and 5 observers for the hand demonstration conditions (see Figure 7.1). However if you add the number of subjects

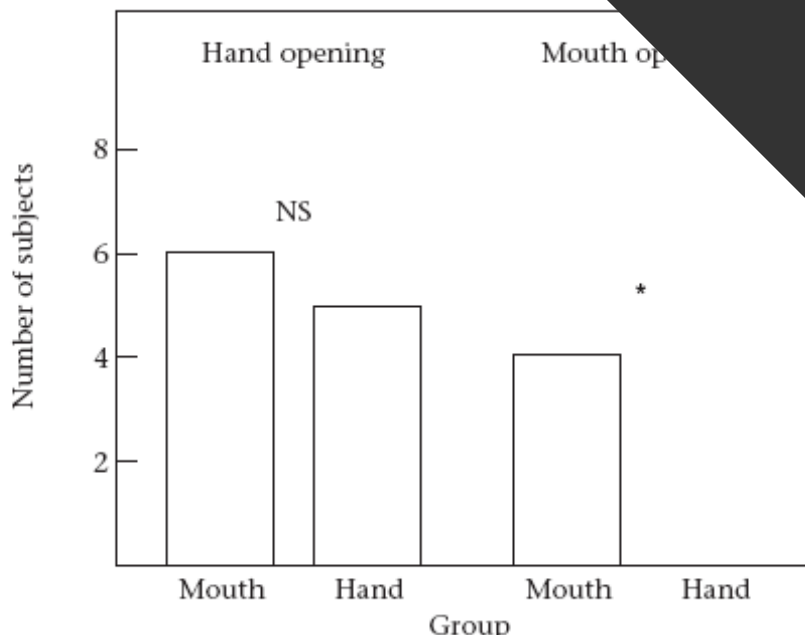


Figure 7.1: Reproduced graph from Voelkl and Huber, 2000. “Number of observers that opened the canisters at least once by hand (Hand opening) or by mouth (Mouth opening) during the first test session. Six observers saw a mouth-opening demonstrator (group Mouth) and five saw a hand-opening demonstrator (group Hand). * $P < 0.05$.” (p 199)

What they did was let each individual open 15 canisters and counted all the methods of opening the canisters. We wonder what the data would look like if they counted

exp...
who used a seq...
method. In this study...
watch a demonstrator open...
and showed the chimps which w...
observed demonstrations there was so...
copy the demonstrator's behaviour. The aut...
learning. However, Tomasello (1996) argues that...
to open the device by emulation, and not imitation. Em...
the observers are not learning the exact way in which to man...
only learning the end goal (in this case to obtain food that is in the...
(2006) argues that these findings can be accounted for by affordance lea...
actions of the demonstrator have detectable different effects on the environm...
experiments that set out find imitative learning most of the time actually find other...
of social learning or social facilitation (for example Caldwell and Whiten, 2004).

In looking through the literature there is an interesting trend towards an increase in responses made with the body part the animal would typically use to obtain food. Of the experiments that were conducted using the two-action methodology, most of them show a preference for the behaviour the animal naturally uses to obtain food. Akins and Zentall (1996, p. 318) report "overall mean frequency of pecking was greater than that of stepping". Dorrance and Zentall (2001) found that quail that were food deprived for longer periods of time pecked the treadle more than quail that were not as food deprived. Voelkl

that
door with
stepping on the

Although all
instinctive-drift” (Timberlake, 1983).
“misbehaviour resulted from the
contingencies into more primitive phylogenetic
gathering behaviours of a particular species.
conditioned to pair the object that is the discriminative stimulus (e.g.,
pigeons, film canisters for the marmosets) with food and
typically used to obtain food (see Timberlake, 1983).

7.4 Experimental procedures and imitation

Whether or not imitation is observed has also been found to depend on a number of
extraneous variables, not just the methodology. Dorrance and Zentall (2001) found that the
occurrence of imitation depends on the motivation of the observer. In this study, they
used a two-action methodology with two observation conditions. Before the experiment
began the Japanese quail were food deprived for 22-23 hours for several weeks. During the
experiment they were either fed before observation, or deprived of food before observation
and fed after testing. Quail were tested either immediately following observation or after a
delay. Results show that the delay didn't have an effect on behaviour, but quail that were
hungry imitated and satiated quail did not.

Most of the animals in the present studies were run before their meals (except the
Goeldi monkeys, who had access to food during the experiment). However, husbandry

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Dorrance and Z

Additional re

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rats as subjects, and allowed ob

of a discriminative stimulus. Demons

observer and from the same strain or unfam

observers were more likely to match the behavior

was a stranger rather than if the demonstrator was fam

The human literature has found imitative learning in

one thing that has not been controlled for when comparing this lit

given to nonhuman primates. In every study reviewed that used human

instructions were given. At the minimum these instructions consisted of the re

telling the child that they are going to play a game. Even this simple instruction wo

cause the child to pay attention to the researcher in the hopes of understanding and winn

the rewards associated with the game (Loftus, 1979 for effects with adults). Attending to

the demonstrator is the mainpoint of any social learning experiment; we feel that

instructions are a major advantage and might be the only reason that these experiments get

these results. Would a child imitate an experimenter if he walked into the room and started

playing with a toy and obtained a reward, if they weren't told that they were involved in a

game?

is the...
the research...
(Wurbel, 2002),
early social environment...
are housed in, placement...
the behaviour of subjects in experiments...
Thus there are many different variables...
outside of the methodology.

The zoo environment is not exempt from...
zoos offer a more naturalistic environment than a laboratory...
observers are able to interact with demonstrators. Wild individuals...
out or isolated from the group before or after a demonstration. Zoo...
in more natural groups and are raised in a more natural setting than laboratory...
(although this isn't always the case, it was with the experiments described in...
fact, unlike laboratory housed animals, modern zoo populations have shown similar...
activity budgets to their wild counterparts (e.g. Melfi and Feisnter, 2000), increasing the...
value of research conducted in this type of setting.

Although the zoo environment is a more natural setting than that of a laboratory...
there are also some disadvantages when studying social learning in such a population. In...
our research, subjects were expected to manipulate objects after watching a demonstrator...
However wild animals use tools less than captive animals (Thierry 1985) and manipulate...
objects less in general (Menzel, 1966; Fragaszy and Adams-Curtis, 1991). Also, animals...
that live in the wild are not as tolerant of each other as animals in a laboratory setting may

den

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environment h

animals have defined

Overall, even with the

setting, so that these behaviour

that are controlling the differences in

environments can be teased apart. Furtherm

evidence of social learning and even less evidence

that would work with zoo housed primates and a possi

unfamiliar conspecifics. Although both of these projects cou

scope of this thesis, future projects could look into these areas. In

could also look further into the differences between juveniles and adults

what are the best demonstrators to use in a two action method, which type of

are distracting to different species.

This thesis used a large range of species. The goal was to choose species that live in social groups and might be adapted to learn by imitation. However, because a range of different species were used the methodologies had to vary to suit each species. Because of the time limit, only a small number of experiments could be conducted. However, given more time we would have concentrated more on other types of social learning such as learning about what foods to eat or vocalizations. We would have also liked to conduct some studies that looked at other forms of social learning to see if once you had the observers learning from the demonstrators in similar tasks (e.g. local enhancement) and then built up to imitation.

for...
capability...
imitative learn...
Some primates will...
is sparsely distributed wha...
resources (Chapman, White and...
“honeypot” resources do approach fee...

It has been a common theme of this the...
researchers who set out to look for imitation ofte...
are cognitively less demanding, e.g. emulation. From a...
perhaps not surprising. Except for species that specialize in...
prepare food that is difficult to access, emulating (copying the end...
or more useful than imitating the whole behaviour as it takes up less cog...
same outcome. Byrne (2007) has argued that the distinctive foraging strategy...
is precisely the use of such complex food preparation technodgies (pg. 581). It is p...
not surprising that convincing evidence of “true” imitation in non-ape species has been...
hard to find.

(*Canis*)

Agnetta
domestic dogs of

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(*Coturnix japonica*) using
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