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The role of context specificity in learning: the effects of
training context on explosives detection in dogs

Irit Gazit*, Allen Goldblatt and Joseph Terkel

Department of Zoology, George S. Wise Faculty of Life Sciences,
Tel Aviv University, Israel

Corresponding author (and postal address of all authors):

Irit Gazit, Department of Zoology, George S. Wise Faculty of Life Sciences,
Tel-Aviv University, 69978, Israel.

Telephone: 972-3-6409805, Fax: 972-3-6409403

E-mail address: iritgazi@post.tau.ac.il

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Abstract

20 Various experiments revealed that if an animal learns a stimulus-response-reinforcer
21 relationship in one context and is then tested in another context there is usually a
22 lessening of stimulus control, and the same Discriminative Stimuli which reliably
23 controlled the behavior in the first context will have less effect in the new context.
24 This reduction in performance is known as the “context shift effect”.

25 The effect of changing context on the probability of detecting explosives was
26 investigated in seven highly trained explosives detection dogs (EDDs). In Experiment
27 1 the dogs were trained alternately on path A, which always had five hidden
28 explosives, and on a very similar path B, which was very similar but never had any
29 explosives. Within a few sessions the dogs showed a significant decrease in search
30 behavior on path B, but not on path A. In Experiment 2 the same dogs were trained
31 only on path B, with a target density of one explosive hidden every fourth day. The
32 probability of the dogs now detecting the explosive was found to be significantly
33 lower than in Experiment 1. In Experiment 3 the effect of the low target density as
34 used in Experiment 2 was investigated on a new but very similar path C. both the
35 detection probability for the one explosive every fourth day on the new path and the
36 motivation to search were significantly higher than found in Experiment 2. In the
37 final experiment, Experiment 4, an attempt was made to recondition the dogs to
38 search on path B. Although trained for 12 daily sessions with one explosive hidden
39 every session, the dogs failed to regain the normal levels of motivation they had
40 shown on both new paths and on the paths that they knew usually contained
41 explosives. The findings reveal that even a very intensively trained EDD will rapidly
42 learn that a specific stretch of path does not contain explosives. The dog will then be
43 less motivated to search and will miss newly placed targets. This learning is specific

44 to the formerly always-clean path and is to some extent irreversible. However, the dog
45 will search and detect normally on new paths even if they are very similar to the
46 always-clean path. The data are discussed in terms of variables effecting renewal. The
47 results suggest that following training designed to make a behavior “context
48 independent”, any extinction training will not generalize beyond that specific context
49 used during the extinction training. In addition, if the behavior is extinguished in a
50 specific context, it will be very difficult to restore that behavior in that context. These
51 conclusions should be considered by anyone attempting to extinguish well-established
52 trans-context behaviors

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54

55

56 **Keywords:** dog, canine, olfaction, explosive, context shift effect, extinction.

57

General Introduction

58 It is now well established that if an animal learns a stimulus-response-reinforcer
59 relationship in one context and is then tested in another context there is usually a
60 lessening of stimulus control, and the same Discriminative Stimuli (SD) which
61 reliably controlled the behavior in the first context will have less effect in the new
62 context (e.g. Thomas, 1985; Thomas et al. 1993). This reduction in performance is
63 known as the “context shift effect” and is found in many different experimental
64 designs (for a review see Balsam and Tomie, 1985). Changing the context in which
65 learning occurs also has a major impact on recovery from extinction (renewal) of
66 behavior. Renewal is the term used to refer to the fact that when a context is changed,
67 a previously extinguished behavior may be "renewed" and reappear in the new
68 context (Bouton and Ricker 1994).

69 This phenomenon of renewal is of both theoretical and practical interest. The
70 theoretical interest centers on the mechanisms by which the context modulates
71 stimulus control. A major practical interest concerns the extent to which extinction
72 generalizes between contexts. Since much behavior modification therapy involves
73 extinction of previously learned associations such as phobias, the generalizability of
74 that extinction is of some importance to the therapist. If an extinguished phobia
75 reappears whenever the situation is changed, then the treatment can not be considered
76 effective. Therefore it is important to determine the variables that affect the
77 generalizability of renewal.

78 One variable that seems to be important in determining the generalizability of
79 recovery of an extinguished behavior following environmental change, is the number
80 of contexts in which the target behavior was established compared to the number of
81 contexts in which the target behavior was extinguished.

82 Clinical textbooks on behavior modification (e.g. Pear and Martin, 1990) suggest that
83 the context shift effect can be diminished by either doing the therapy in the context in
84 which the targeted behavior actually occurs and/or by doing the extinction training in
85 as many contexts as possible.

86 But what are the effects of training the original behavior in several contexts on
87 renewal? It is reasonable to expect that the more contexts used in establishing the
88 association the less will be the extent of generalized extinction following extinction
89 training in only one context. Evidence supporting this can be seen in an experiment
90 by Gunther et al. (1998), who found less renewal following training in multiple
91 contexts.

92 The context shift effect is found in experiments, in therapy, and also in situations
93 where animals are trained to perform applied tasks. For example, Sea World found
94 that moving Killer Whales from one facility to another resulted in a loss of control
95 over previously learned behaviors (Turner et al., 1991). Changing the context can also
96 have detrimental effects on the performance of working animals such as explosives-
97 detection dogs (EDDs). The techniques recommended to reduce the context shift
98 effect in humans are exactly the same as those traditionally and commonly used in the
99 training of EDDs.

100 Once the dog learns the task of reliable explosive detection, i.e. after the initial
101 discrimination is established, it is then trained in as many contexts as possible in order
102 to reduce contextual control of the search. As stated by Hilliard (2003) in a chapter on
103 the principles of learning in a general handbook on the science behind mine detection
104 dogs: "The best way to ensure that trained behavior is independent of context is to
105 train in as many different places and situations as possible, once the initial learning
106 phase has been completed". In order for an EDD to receive official certification as a

107 reliable detector of explosives in operational situations, it must search and detect in
108 several novel environments, showing that search and detection has become context
109 independent.

110 Under normal EDD operating procedures the effects of changing the context on a well
111 trained dog should be minimal; the dog should detect explosives in any context in
112 which it is placed. However, what will happen if one context is continuously
113 associated with the total absence of explosives? This can occur during operational
114 work if the handler, for any reason, such as being in a hostile territory, is not able to
115 place positive stimuli (small amount of explosives) on a specific stretch of road.

116 Under such circumstances, the handler will place a small amount of explosives in an
117 area very similar to the operational area and command the dog to search this “training
118 area” until it has detected the positive stimulus.

119 Such a situation is interesting in that, as opposed to the normal experimental
120 procedures used in the study of context effects such as renewal, EDDs receive
121 extensive training designed to make the context irrelevant. How will they respond if,
122 after learning to ignore the context, they nonetheless receive training in one specific
123 context that is associated with the absence of explosives? This question directly
124 relates to the generalizability of renewal and was investigated in this study with very
125 well trained EDDs. Previous to this study the dogs had been working for at least a
126 year on the detection of explosives in many different contexts. Then, for the purposes
127 of this experiment, the dogs were trained on one specific path that contained
128 explosives (A), and then on a different specific path that never contained explosives
129 (B). Following this, the dogs were tested for their ability to find explosives now
130 placed both on the previously always clean path (B) and on a new path (C).

131 Two questions were asked: First, do the dogs learn to search in one context and not
132 search in another, but very similar context? Second, if the dogs do learn not to search
133 in the non-explosive context, does this generalize to other contexts?

134

135 **Materials and Methods**

136 With the exception of the number of targets on the paths, the following methods and
137 procedures were used throughout all the experiments.

138 *Animals*

139 The study utilized seven detector dogs (5 Belgian Malinois and 2 Labrador retrievers)
140 trained for explosives' detection. The dogs had received initial training to detect
141 explosives one year prior to the start of this experiment. After completion of this
142 training, their search and detection capability was maintained by training and testing
143 them at least three times per week, for 20 – 30 minutes per day, usually on the
144 explosive C4.

145 During this experiment the dogs received 40% of their total daily food ration as
146 reinforcement following correct detections. The remaining 60% of food was given to
147 the dogs in the afternoon. The dogs were individually housed in 2 by 3 m. kennels.
148 The kennels, housing conditions and care were under the supervision of a full-time
149 veterinarian and meet the Israeli standards required for housing dogs.

150 *Handlers*

151 Throughout the experiment each dog had its own personal handler who had had at
152 least six months experience with the dog before the start of this experiment. The
153 handlers were blind to the purpose of the experiment and never observed the

154 preparations and placement of explosives before each trial. The handlers were highly
155 motivated to succeed and detect all possible explosives.

156 *Explosives and containers*

157 Individual 30 gram quantities of C4 explosive were placed in a wide variety of small
158 containers (glass salt-shakers with metal lids, plastic soap-holders, small metal cans
159 and wooden boxes) in order to ensure that the dogs were detecting the odor of the
160 explosive as opposed to the odor of the container.

161 Identical containers to those containing explosives were filled with a wide range of
162 odiferous materials such as soil, sugar, coffee, bread, or left empty. These are termed
163 “dummy containers” and the dogs were trained to ignore them. These containers were
164 used as controls to ensure that the dogs were detecting the odor of the explosive and
165 not other odors inadvertently attached to the container such as human odors resulting
166 from improper handling techniques. During testing the dogs never responded to
167 dummy containers, confirming that the only discriminative cue was the odor of the
168 explosive C4.

169 *Study area*

170 The study used three 2800 meter lengths of hard-packed dirt paths, each
171 approximately 3 meters wide. On each side of the path was at least a 3m swathe of
172 low vegetation, primarily grasses (see fig.1). The three paths (A, B, C) were within
173 one kilometer of each other and all on flat agricultural land. The paths were
174 infrequently used by farmers to access their cultivated fields. Each path was divided
175 into seven 400 meter sections and each section was searched by only one dog per day.
176 This was to avoid the possibility that an odor cue left by one dog would influence the

177 behavior of another dog. The three paths were similar in every way except for the
178 number of explosives hidden.

179 Before each search the explosives containers and dummies were thrown from a slowly
180 moving car perpendicular to the axis of the path, one to two meters from the path
181 edge, along the particular 400m long track being used for a given dog. The containers
182 came to rest in the vegetation growing on each side of the path. Prior to every search
183 all previous containers were removed and replaced with new containers in order to
184 avoid odor contamination. Neither the dogs nor their handlers observed the placement
185 of the containers, nor were the handlers informed as to their location. In addition, the
186 containers were not visible to the handler from the path. Each dog performed only one
187 search per day, each day on a different section of one of the seven 400 meter paths,
188 thus preventing it from using memory of the explosives found on the previous days.

189 *Procedure*

190 In Experiment 1 the dogs were trained on both path A, which always had five hidden
191 explosives, and on a very similar path B, which never had any explosives. In
192 Experiment 2 the dogs were trained only on path B, on which only one explosive was
193 hidden every fourth day. In Experiment 3 the effect of the same low target density
194 used in Experiment 2 was investigated on a new but very similar path C.

195 *Description of search behavior*

196 All dogs worked off-leash, instructed by the handler who remained up to 50 meters
197 behind the searching dog. Searches were terminated at the end of the 400 meter
198 section or when the handler said that the path was clean and did not contain any
199 explosives .Each dog was continuously encouraged vocally to search by using such
200 phrases as “where is it?”, “find it!” etc. Upon detection the dog sat next to the

201 container and the handler ran to the dog and reinforced it with a few pellets of
202 commercial dog food. As the dog moved up the path, the handler slowly followed it,
203 maintaining a distance of at least 50 meters. The individual recording the data and
204 videotaping the session maintained a distance of approximately 5 meters from the dog
205 and was completely ignored by it. Periodically, the handler would call the dog back to
206 him and send it out again to search. Every effort was made to keep the behavior of
207 the trainer consistent from day to day and path to path.

208 Environmental temperature and humidity were measured prior to each search with a
209 digital temperature and humidity gauge, $\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $\pm 3\%$ accuracy; wind speed was
210 measured with Windmeter, Davis Wind Wizard.

211

212 The following dependent variables were recorded:

213 1) Explosives detection percentage; 2) control (dummy) signing
214 percentage (percentage of false alarms); 3) search duration (sec); 4)
215 verbal encouragements (average per one minute of search) and 5)
216 percentage-amble (the percentage of time, out of total search duration,
217 that the dog ambled as opposed to trotting or running). The logic
218 behind percentage-amble is that the speed that the animal moves
219 during the search is considered to represent its motivation to perform
220 the assigned task. If the dog is walking or ambling during the search
221 phase, we consider it as not motivated to find the odor. Higher
222 motivation results in less walking and more trotting and a consequently
223 lower percentage-amble score. When experienced handlers observe
224 that the dog is walking or ambling they will either recall the dog and

225 restart the search or, more usually, will call encouragement to the dog
226 to continue searching.

227 The entire session was videotaped and archived.

228

229 Statistical analysis

230 The data were analysed using Statistica Software. The exact type of analysis
231 depended upon the question being asked. In all cases the percentage detection data
232 were transformed using an arcsine transformation (Winer, 1962). Mean values are
233 presented \pm SE.

234

235 **Experiment one. Effects of context on explosives odor detection.**

236 Introduction

237 This experiment was designed to determine whether EDDs show a context shift effect
238 when the two contexts appear very similar.

239 The dogs were trained on alternate days on two very similar hard packed-earth paths.
240 Path A always had explosives, path B never had explosives. Each dog searched the
241 two path sections alternately (one per day for 16 days), for a total of 7 sessions on
242 path A and 9 sessions on path B. Data were collected on the dogs' search behavior and
243 sitting responses which indicated possible detections.

244 Our hypothesis was that the dogs would differentiate between the two paths and stop
245 searching on the path never associated with explosives.

246 Results and discussion

247 The dogs moved significantly faster in searches performed on path A (5 explosives)
248 compared to path B (0 explosives) and therefore their percentage-amble percentage
249 was significantly lower on path A ($32.3\% \pm 7.45$; $44.43\% \pm 6.8$ respectively, arcsine
250 transformation, one tailed Paired T test, $t=-3.2$, $df=6$, $p<0.01$. see Table 1) (Fig.2).
251 Mean number of verbal encouragements was higher during searches along path B in
252 comparison to path A (5.47 ± 0.78 , 3.3 ± 0.48 respectively, Paired T test, $t=5.93$, $df=6$,
253 $p<0.001$). Although there were more verbal encouragements on path B, dogs'
254 motivation to search along this path was lower. This suggests that the handlers'
255 behavior was not the factor responsible for the decrease in dog's search behavior on
256 path B.

257

258 PLEASE INSERT FIG. 2

259 Surprisingly, an examination of percentage-amble values throughout trials on path B
260 reveals little difference in motivation between the first and last session on path B.
261 (41.6 ± 7.0 , 46.6 ± 7.47 , respectively, Paired T test, $t=0.53$, $df=6$, $p=0.23$). The fact that
262 the motivation to search was already low by the end of the first session on path B was
263 probably due to frustration induced by the absence of any detected targets in dogs that
264 were accustomed to finding explosives approximately every 60 – 80 meters (as on
265 path A). This abrupt shift in target density, equivalent to what is found at the start of
266 extinction sessions, could have caused this rapid decrease in the dogs' motivation to
267 search.

268 We also examined whether the decrease in motivation found in searching path B
269 would generalize to searching path A (5 explosives). However, no difference was

270 found in either search speed or detection percentage between the first and last session
271 on path A (session 1, percentage-ambly = 33.08%±6.64 and session 9, percentage-
272 ambly = 34±7.4; Paired T-test, df=6, t=0.3, p=0.77; Detection percentage on path A
273 session 1= 84.7%±3 and on path A session 9 = 87.3%±3.4; Paired T-test, df=6,
274 t=0.65, p=0.5). The decreased motivation shown on path B therefore had not affected
275 the dogs' motivation when searching path A. No difference was found between mean
276 number of verbal encouragements on the first and last sessions on path A (2.53±0.6,
277 3.25±0.53, respectively. Paired T test, t=1.26, df=6, p=0.25). Since the dogs never
278 made false positive responses this variable was thus discarded.

279 We found a higher percentage of ambling on path B than on path A. This suggests
280 that the dogs had become less motivated to search on the path that never contained the
281 explosive while maintaining good search motivation with a high percentage of
282 detection on the path with the explosives. This learning was quite rapid and suggests
283 that dogs use subtle environmental cues (i.e. odor and/or visual) in determining the
284 possible presence of explosives. However, because no explosives were ever placed
285 on path B it was impossible to determine whether the dogs had actually stopped
286 searching or were still searching but in a more haphazard way. The only way to
287 resolve this question was to place an occasional explosive on path B and see if it was
288 detected by the dogs. This was done in Experiment 2.

289 **Experiment 2: Probability of detection on a previously clean path.**

290 Introduction

291 The results of Experiment 1 suggested but did not prove that the dogs were no longer
292 actively searching on the “clean” path. However, regularly planting explosives on
293 path B might lead the dogs to learn that the path now always contained explosives,

294 thus causing them to increase their amount of search behavior. We therefore decided
295 to place a very few explosives on the previously clean path. Specifically, one
296 explosive was placed on the path every fourth day. The dependent variables again
297 included the probability of detecting the explosive and percentage-amble.

298

299 Procedure

300 One explosive was hidden along path B every fourth session. However, if the dog did
301 not detect the explosive, we placed it again on the next day. Each dog performed one
302 session daily only on path B, for a total of 6 sessions with explosives and 15 without.
303 Between each session with an explosive, there were at least 3 sessions without.

304 The general procedures were identical to those in Experiment 1.

305

306 Results and discussion

307 The average percentage ambling ($46.89\% \pm 5.7$), was similar to that found on the same
308 path B ($44.43\% \pm 6.8$) in Experiment 1. The percent detection of the explosive was
309 significantly lower than on path A in Experiment 1 ($52.46\% \pm 6.1$ and $86.93\% \pm 2$
310 respectively, arcsine transformation, one tailed paired T test, $df=6$, $t=5.48$, $p<0.001$;
311 see Table 1.). In Experiment 2, furthermore, we did not observe any improvement in
312 search behavior even following detections on the formerly clean path. This suggested
313 that reconditioning the dog to search this path properly would be difficult to
314 implement.

315 Examination of mean percentage-amble values of all dogs between first and last trials
316 on path B reveals no significant difference in the dogs' motivation to search along this
317 path even following detection of explosives on it (52.8 ± 8.6 , 40.6 ± 12.5 respectively, T

318 test, $df=6$, $t=0.84$, $p=0.2$. see fig 3). No differences were found in vocal
319 encouragement between first and last trials on path B (4.6 ± 0.7 , 3.8 ± 1.5 respectively,
320 T test, $df=6$, $t=0.5$, $p=0.3$, see fig.3).

321

322 PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 3.

323

324 The finding in Experiment 2 that the higher percentage of time ambling on the
325 formerly clean path B was accompanied by a lower percentage detection of
326 explosives, indicates that the dogs were not searching this path efficiently. These
327 results support the hypothesis in Experiment 1 that the dogs had acquired lower
328 motivation to search path B, resulting in a low probability of detection of explosives.
329 An alternative explanation for the lower detection percentage was that, irrespective of
330 any previous knowledge of the path, the frequency of placement of explosives (one
331 explosive on a 400 meter path every fourth day) is insufficient to maintain the dogs'
332 motivation to search. This was tested in the next experiment.

333

334 **Experiment 3. Probability of detection on a new path.**

335 Introduction

336 In Experiment 1 we had found that searching the clean path B did not reduce either
337 the dogs' motivation to search for explosives on path A (as measured by percentage-
338 amble), or the probability of detecting explosives on path A. In Experiment 3 we
339 asked whether the previous experience with path B would reduce the motivation to
340 search and detect explosives on a new but very similar path. Having tested the effect
341 of low target probability on a familiar path in Experiment 2, we now tested the same

342 low reinforcement (one explosive every four days), on maintaining search behavior on
343 a new path.

344

345 Procedure

346 The third path C used for this experiment was very similar to paths A and B. As in
347 Experiment 2, only one explosive was placed on path C every fourth day. The dogs
348 were tested for 21 sessions, six sessions with explosives (starting on the first session)
349 and 15 sessions without. Explosive placement and search procedure were the same as
350 in Experiments 1 and 2.

351

352 Results and discussion

353 The percentage ambling of the dogs in this experiment was lower than in Experiment
354 2 ($28.62\% \pm 7.6$ versus $46.89\% \pm 5.7$ respectively; one-tailed Paired T test after arcsine
355 transformation $df=5$, $t=4.29$, $p<0.01$. Table 1), indicating a greater motivation to
356 search. Detection percentage was significantly higher than in Experiment 2
357 ($95.83\% \pm 2.6$, and $52.46\% \pm 6.1$, respectively, one-tailed paired T test after arcsine
358 transformation, $df=5$, $t=6.2$, $p<0.001$. Table 1). The high percentage of detection
359 supports the interpretation that the poor search behavior found on path B in
360 Experiments 1 and 2 was not related to the low rate of reinforcement, but was directly
361 due to the dogs' having learned that path B did not contain explosives and therefore
362 they had little motivation to search.

363 Interestingly, in Experiment 2 we did not observe any improvement in search
364 behavior even following detections on the formerly clean path. This suggested that

365 reconditioning the dog to search this path (B) properly would be difficult to
366 implement. We tested this in the next experiment.

367

368 PLEASE INSERT TABLE 1.

369 **Experiment 4: Reconditioning search behavior on the formerly clean path.**

370 Introduction

371 The three previous experiments supported the role of context in the reduction of both
372 search motivation and the consequent probability of detection of the explosive odor.

373 The results also showed that this reduction was specific to path B, where the dogs had
374 originally learned that there were no explosives. The later planting of one explosive
375 every four days on this path did not seem to improve the dog's motivation to
376 searching, and the detection percentage was much lower on path B than on either the
377 new path C with the same low density of explosives, or the original path A that
378 always contained explosives.

379 The dogs had rapidly learned that path B did not contain explosives and this learning
380 seemed to be resistant to extinction. This resistance contrasted with the ease with
381 which the dogs had learned not to invest in searching the path. We thus next decided
382 to investigate whether we could recondition this resistance to extinction.

383

384 Procedure

385 The dogs were now trained on path B for 12 daily sessions, one session per day. One
386 explosive was placed on the path each time. If the dog passed the location of the
387 explosive the individual recording the session told the handler and the dog was

388 recalled and sent again. If the dog still did not detect the odor, its handler brought it
389 to the explosive and reinforced the dog when it made a detection. In this experiment
390 neither percentage-able nor percentage of detection were useful variables due to the
391 experimental design, since the percentage-able was artificially manipulated by
392 stopping the dogs and forcing them to make the detection (100% detection).
393 Therefore, we introduced a new dependent variable of motivation which was based on
394 the following rating scale: At the end of each session, the experimenter, dog handler,
395 and two senior dog handlers independently gave the dog a score on “relative
396 eagerness”, where 1 = total lack of eagerness (apathy) and 10 = the normal level of
397 eagerness shown by the dog when searching paths known to contain explosives.
398 Since all the raters had become extremely familiar with the behavior of each dog over
399 a period of one year while running on paths, it was felt that their rating would be a
400 valid means of measuring the motivation of each dog.

401

402 Results and discussion

403 The findings from the "relative eagerness" scores showed that although there was
404 some improvement in motivation on path B, even after 12 sessions the dogs had still
405 not reached their normal level of eagerness (fig. 4). Although this is a subjective
406 measure, there was good agreement among the raters and we believe that the data
407 accurately reflect the relative eagerness of the dogs to search. The findings from this
408 experiment thus indicate that once a dog has learned not to search a path because there
409 are no explosives, it is difficult to restore the original search motivation shown on
410 other paths that do contain explosives.

411 PLEASE INSERT FIG. 4

General Discussion

412

413 The first and most basic finding of the four experiments is that the dogs were able to
414 learn that one specific path did not have explosives. This in itself is important and
415 shows that even very similar areas are easily discriminated by dogs. We do not know
416 what cues the dogs used to discriminate between the two paths but presumably it was
417 a combination of odor and visual cues.

418 A summary of the results of all the experiments is given in Table 1. These results
419 show that continued experience with the always-clean path resulted in a decrease in
420 both motivation to search and in the probability of detecting an explosive placed later
421 on this path. Furthermore, both search behavior and detection percentage failed to
422 increase to baseline levels even following extended experience with explosives
423 planted daily on the previously always-clean path. This failure was shown not to be
424 due to the low reinforcement schedule (every fourth day) since the same schedule on a
425 new path yielded high levels of motivation and detection.

426 Before the implications of these results are discussed, the role and possible effects of
427 the handler must be addressed. The dog does not work alone but as part of a team.
428 The dogs are very quick to pick up nonverbal signals from their handler, especially
429 since each dog had the same primary handler for at least several months. Although
430 the handlers were not told either the number or location of explosives on the path, it is
431 quite likely that they learned (as did the dogs) which paths contained explosives and
432 which did not. Thus it is theoretically possible that the handlers unwittingly
433 transmitted some sort of message to the dog which resulted in its decreased
434 motivation to search. There are however several reasons why we regard handler
435 influence on the search behavior as unlikely. First, the handlers were all experienced
436 and dedicated to their task, and they were instructed and encouraged to behave in the

437 same way in every session. Neither the experimenter nor the chief trainer could detect
438 any differences in the handlers' behavior as a function of the path being searched.
439 Importantly, the handlers believed that their dogs would obey them and that they
440 could make the dog search thoroughly by the use of verbal encouragement. It was a
441 challenge for the handler to ensure that his dog would detect all of the explosives.
442 Misses were taken personally and were considered failures.

443 Furthermore, during both Experiments 2 and 3 the handlers learned that explosives
444 might be present on the path but they did not know when or where. Since they
445 encouraged their dogs to detect all possible explosives, the differences in detection
446 probability could only be due to differences in the dog's motivation to search. In
447 Experiment 4, in which the handlers tried to recondition the dogs to search the
448 previously clean path, they were surprised at being unable to restore each dog's
449 motivation to its original level. For these reasons we are confident that the differences
450 in search behavior between the different experiments are true reflections of the dog's
451 behavior and not of the handler.

452 The data for Experiment 2 show a quite substantial decrease in both the motivation to
453 search and the probability of detecting the explosives. There was 25% more ambling
454 on path B than on path C. Moreover, even following 24 sessions on path B with an
455 average of only three detections out of a possible six (indicating a 50% decrease in
456 probability of detecting explosives) there was absolutely no indication of reduced
457 motivation to search a new path (path C). This very meaningful difference appears
458 due to the dogs' having learned that one path (B) was not associated with explosives.
459 This loss of motivation to search was thus highly specific to path B, and there was no
460 evidence of generalization of the extinction of search behavior seen in Experiment 2

461 to path C (in subsequent work with these dogs on other explosive detection tasks there
462 also was no evidence of any decreased motivation to search other paths).

463 Our results, together with other research on context specificity of extinction, suggest
464 an interesting progression from a broad generalization of extinction to extreme
465 specificity of extinction. The ability of any new context to cause renewal of a
466 previously extinguished behavior seems to be a function of two variables. The first
467 variable is the amount of change between the two contexts. The greater the
468 difference, the larger will be the context shift effect (Zhou and Riccio, 1996).

469 Although the two paths used in Experiment 1 seemed to us to be very similar, our
470 training procedure in Experiment 1 of alternating training on path A with path B
471 probably served to increase the dogs' discrimination between the two paths. Blair et
472 al. (2003) discuss literature showing that exposure to a pair of stimuli, especially
473 when arranged to promote comparison between them, will increase the later ability to
474 discriminate between them. This has been found both for preexposure to stimuli later
475 used in Pavlovian conditioning (e.g. Mondragon and Hall, 2002) and preexposure to
476 stimuli later used as reinforcers (Blair et al. 2003).

477 The second variable that seems to influence the generalizability of extinction is the
478 ratio of the number of contexts used in establishing the behavior compared to the
479 number of contexts used in extinguishing it. When only one context A is used for
480 training, only one context B for extinction, and only one context C for testing, the
481 extent of recovery of the extinguished response is substantial (e.g. Bouton and Bolles
482 1979; Rodriguez et al. 1999; Thomas et al. 2003). However, when the original
483 training is only in one context A and extinction is in multiple contexts B1, B2 and B3,
484 then the extent of renewal is attenuated, suggesting that multiple extinction contexts
485 makes the extinction more context independent (e.g. Gunther et al. 1998). In an

486 experiment with rats in which both training and extinction occurred in all three
487 contexts, the extent of recovery was greater than that found when the original training
488 was only in one context (Gunther et al. 1998). In our experiments, the pre-
489 experimental conditioning was in a very large number of contexts (A1, A2, A3 ...Ax)
490 and extinction was only in one context, B. When tested in a new context C there was
491 no evidence of the previous extinction training done in context B; renewal of the
492 extinguished response was complete. The high context specificity of extinction found
493 on path B can be most easily explained by the context modulating the stimulus cues
494 (Bouton and Ricker 1994). After extensive training of the search behavior in many
495 contexts the dog learned that the only relevant cues for searching were the
496 encouragement of the handler and removal of the leash just before the dog was sent
497 forward onto the path. Due to constant training in different contexts, context cues
498 become irrelevant in regard to the search behavior. The dog was then given
499 discrimination training on a novel section of path, and the normal cues of
500 encouragement were given, yet, contrary to all previous experience, no explosives
501 were ever found. Only on path B did the context cues of that specific path thus
502 become strongly and rapidly associated with the absence of explosives, resulting in a
503 drop in search motivation and poor search behavior. However, in the original path A
504 and the novel path C, the context cues were irrelevant and the handler cues were
505 associated with searching and detecting explosives. In this situation the dogs learned
506 that the context was important only on path B; therefore, the extinction of the search
507 behavior occurred only in context B.

508 The above analysis suggests that the resistance to retraining found in Experiment 2
509 may be due to the fact that the dogs had learned that the context of path B was the
510 only cue signaling the absence of explosives. Later, when a low density of explosives

511 was placed on path B, no additional cues were available to help disambiguate the
512 situation. The learned association of context B with no reinforcement had apparently
513 blocked any subsequent learning that the same context B was now associated with
514 reinforcement.

515 These results have implications beyond the obvious ones for training and maintenance
516 of explosives detection dogs. They suggest that following training designed to make a
517 behavior “context independent”, any extinction training will not generalize beyond
518 that specific context used during the extinction training. Furthermore, if the behavior
519 is extinguished in a specific context, it will be very difficult to restore that behavior in
520 that context. These conclusions should be considered by anyone attempting to
521 extinguish well-established trans-context behaviors.

522

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523

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Declaration

531 The experiments comply with the current laws of Israel.

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574

574 Table 1. Detection percentages and percentage-amble (relative percentage of time out
 575 of total search duration that the dog walked, rather than trotted or run) during
 576 Experiments 1, 2 and 3. Data present mean \pm SE.

577

578

	Variables	Detection	Percentage- amble
Exp. 1	Path A 5 explosives	86.93% \pm 2	32.3% \pm 7.45
Exp. 1	Path B No explosives	No explosives	44.43% \pm 6.8
Exp. 2	Path B 1 explosive	52.46% \pm 6.1	46.89% \pm 5.7
Exp. 3	Path C 1 explosive unfamiliar track	95.83% \pm 2.6	28.62% \pm 7.6

Figure legends

Figure 1. The three paths used in the study.

Figure 2. Experiment 1: Change in mean percentage time spent ambling (as indicative of motivation level) \pm SE over trials for path A (white) and path B (black). Bars represent the average of all dogs combined. Note that greater value indicates lower motivation level.

Figure 3. Experiment 2: Dogs' performance (mean values \pm SE) on path B trials with explosives. Mean percentage-amble, Mean number of vocal encouragements (Per 1 minute of search).

Figure 4. Experiment 4: Eagerness estimation (scale 1 to 10) \pm SE of dogs' search behavior on path B during daily encounter with explosives (previously experienced by the dogs as a "clean" track).

Figure 1.

Path A



Path B



Path C



Figure 2.

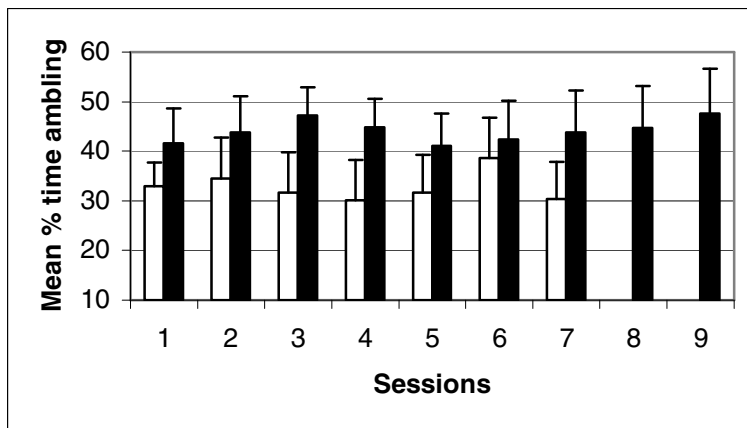


Fig. 3

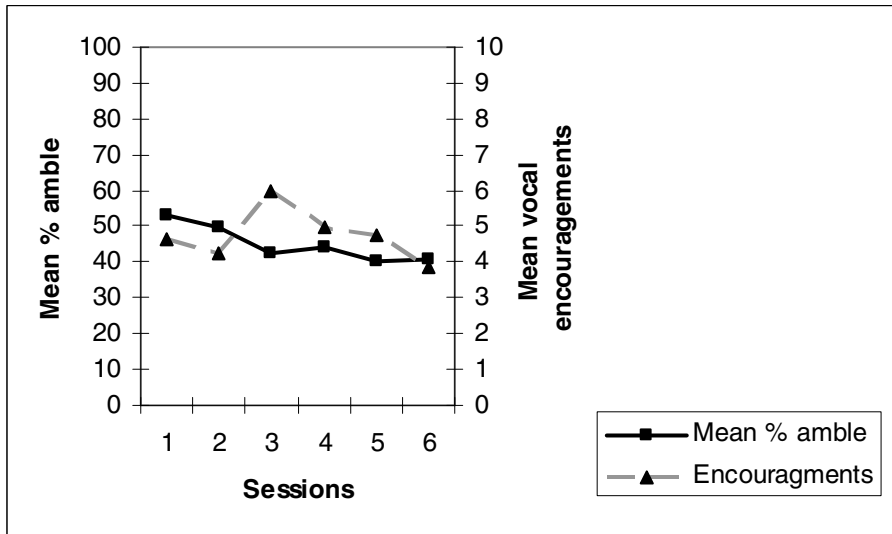


Fig. 4

