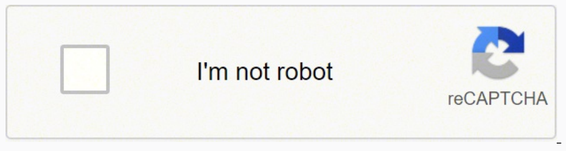

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The wild sheep chase review

The Welsh government will not review its ban on e-collar training for dogs despite the fact that Welsh farmers are four times more likely to experience dog attacks than other UK nations.Data from the National Police Chief Council's report into livestock worrying shows that Welsh farmers are being forced to shoot far more dogs than their English counterparts.The concerning statistic was highlighted in yesterday's (27 March) The Sunday Telegraph.Responding to the report, former Welsh Secretary David Jones MP said the data made clear that the ban had "failed" and was "leading to many more animal deaths". He said that in response to the suffering being caused to sheep and dogs the ban should be “urgently reassessed”.However, in response, the Welsh government said e-collars cause pain, adding "we have no plans to review this decision."E-collars are used to train dogs to associate sheep with a static pulse and so become wary of approaching them. Academic studies have found that the dogs continue to avoid sheep even when they are off-lead.That is particularly important given that police data reveals that in 89% of attacks in North Wales the dogs had escaped from human control.Plaid Cymru’s Peredur Owen Griffiths MS has also urged a review of the ban on e-collar training.In his letter to Wales' Rural Affairs Minister, Lesley Griffiths he said: “E-collars act like a vaccine against a dog’s desire to chase sheep."Being shot by a farmer is clearly far worse for the dog than being trained with a one-off startle from an e-collar.”Meanwhile the Conservative Shadow Rural Affairs Minister Sam Kurtz MS this month challenged Minister Griffiths over the increase in sheep attacks.The Welsh government banned the training of dogs with e-collars in 2010. In 2018 Scotland decided against following suit.In England, Defra has said it still plans to go ahead with a ban which was first proposed by then Defra Secretary Michael Gove four years ago.In a statement today, Jamie Penrith of the Association of Responsible Dog Owners said that David Jones MP was right to say that the policy had failed."Welsh sheep and dogs are dying in horrific numbers because of the ban on these training aids," Mr Penrith added."If the Welsh government refuses to review this ban it would indicate a heartlessness to the sheep which are being savaged and the dogs which are being shot.” PAW Patrol Member No. 4 Cockapoo (Cocker Spaniel/Poodle) PAW Patrol Member No. 4 (Aviation/Flying Pup) Flying, small animals such as bunnies, bats and penguins, being hugged and petted, Ace Sorensen, weddings, flipping, Francois Turbot, little kittens, baby eagles, her wind-up mouse, playing Pup Pup Boogie, the color pink, getting her fur styled Eagles, bunnies in danger (or anything in danger), having to wear a cone Kallan Holley (Season 1–Season 5)Lilly Bartlam (Season 6-present) Holly Thomas (Season 1–present) Skye is a female cockapoo (cocker spaniel/poodle mix) and one of the main protagonists in the PAW Patrol series. She is the first female member of the PAW Patrol, with the second being Everest. Her primary purpose is to keep a close eye on emergencies from above using her helicopter, and using her helicopter's grappling hook to save people and transport the team members from place to place if necessary. Bio Skye is the first female member of the PAW Patrol, and her main color is pink. Her job is usually based on flying and lookout, and she rides a helicopter. Skye always makes her landings graceful with flips. Her grace and her excellent memorization skills helps her do well at Pup Pup Boogie, she tells Chase she has a trick of saying the Pup Pup Boogie moves out loud. Skye is very lovable and emotional (shown in "Pups Save the Bunnies"). Nick Jr.com Description Skye is a smart Cockapoo who loves to fly in her helicopter or with the wings in her pup-pack. She tries everything with a back flip, grace, and a smile. Personality Skye is fun-loving and loves to play and participate in fun activities with her fellow PAW Patrol friends such as Pup Pup Boogie. However, she and Zuma can be competitive against each other. She is quite energetic, best emphasized by her giggle-bark and penchant for doing backflips. Skye is very brave and smart. She's not afraid of heights at all and takes enjoyment out of flying. Skye also has a fear of eagles, as seen in "Pups Save a Toof", but she will face that fear to help others and she doesn't mind harmless baby eagles. She has a soft spot for cute animals, especially bunnies. She often gushes over them when they're in sight. Like Rubble, she is sweet towards little kittens as long as they're not the Kitten Catastrophe Crew. She's more feminine in behavior than Everest and loves getting her fur styled at Katie's salon. She loves pink and is rather fond of dressing up femininely, especially on Halloween. Appearance Skye is an adorable pup with magenta colored eyes. She has a special pilot outfit in the color pink. Skye is the smallest of the pups, and she is the first female member of the PAW Patrol. Her shaggy ears, her tail, the fluff on her head, and the circles around her eyes are a golden-brown/orange color. Her legs, snout, and belly are a cream color. The rest of her body is golden-brown. Her nose is brown and so are her eyebrows. She has three small eyelashes and fluff on her forehead. Attires Here is a gallery of Skye's attires throughout the series. Princess Skye of Pup-sylvania (Halloween)Adventure Bay All-Stars basketball uniformUltimate Rescue police uniformUltimate Rescue aviator suitUltimate Rescue firefighter uniformUltimate Rescue swamp gearUltimate Rescue fix-it outfitUltimate Rescue construction uniformCollar and flower glassesScarecrow costume (Halloween only)Knight of the heart medal Equipment and Gadgets Pup-Tag Like all of the PAW Patrol pups, Skye has her own personalized pup-tag, with a shape of a propeller symbol on it, which she uses to communicate with Ryder, the Lookout, and the other PAW Patrol pups. When in use, the pup-tag flashes its light. The pup-tag also has a special mechanism, which allows the PAW Patrol pups to make video calls to other PAW Patrol members. Pup-Pack Skye's pink vest comes equipped with a pup-pack. When activated (by a bark), the pup-pack transforms into a set of wings, and jets to help Skye fly. Her Mission PAW pup-pack contains a suction cup launcher that can grab objects such as crowns. It also provides a set of wings to allow her to fly on missions, such as investigating a rumor that Barkingburg Castle was haunted. Her Sea Patrol pup-pack carries a rescue buoy, similar to the other pups' Sea Patrol pup-packs, along with a parasail to allow her to fly over Adventure Beach and watch for any threats. Helicopter Skye has a pink helicopter with a harness in the back. Ryder, Chase, Marshall, Rocky, Mr. Porter, Alex Porter, Danny, Luke Stars, Mrs. Wingnut, Mayor Humdinger, Mayor Goodway, Francois Turbot, Cap'n Turbot, Farmer Yumi, and Ace Sorensen have used the harness. Skye's helicopter contains a cable that can be used to pick up out-of-reach objects. The vehicle number is 04. During later missions in the jungle, Skye's helicopter is painted in camouflage and takes a more jungle-themed appearance, adding a pair of pontoons to the sides of her helicopter alongside the wheels. Skye's helicopter in jungle conversionSkye's Ultimate Rescue copter Sky cycle Skye's Mission PAW vehicle, dubbed the "sky cycle", is a motorcycle that can transform into a four-wheeled flying hovercraft. Seaplane With the opening of Adventure Beach and the pups being assigned their Sea Patrol duties, Skye was given a new seaplane to help protect the beach. The plane comes with a scoop she can use to swoop in and rescue anyone in trouble. Mighty Plane Skye's Mighty plane is powered by her powers of wind. It can be put on auto pilot when she need to fly to rescue someone. Skills and Abilites Skye is the only flying pup, with her jet-pack set and her helicopter. Skye is a great dancer and she can do back flips with grace. Her goggles have built in binocular-like lenses. Whenever Skye jumps, she almost always does a back flip. As a Mighty Pup, she can fly using tornados. When charged-up, she can control the weather. Catchphrases "This pup's gotta fly!" "Let's take to the sky!" "Oh, no. Not good." "Yippee!" "Hahahaha, ruff! Hahaha." "Ready when you are, Ryder!" "This Mighty puppy is going for a spin!" Ever since Darwin (1859), the search for human-like social cognition (i.e., behavior controlled by human and conspecific social cues similar to that observed in humans) has focused on our closest genetic relatives, particularly chimpanzees. Though much remains controversial in this field, it seems clear that chimps and several other species of primates are only modestly successful on many tasks designed to test for human-like social reasoning. Thus, chimpanzees are only able to follow gaze and show joint attention under a limited set of conditions (Barth, Reaux, & Povinelli, 2005). In the object-choice task described above, few chimpanzees or other nonhuman primates are able to use gaze or other social cues such as pointing to identify the location of a hidden object (Call, Hare, & Tomasello, 1998; Call & Tomasello, 1998; Itakura, Agnetta, Hare, & Tomasello, 1999; Povinelli, Reaux, Bierschwale, Allain, & Simon, 1997; Tomasello, Call, & Gluckman, 1997). Successful individuals typically need dozens of repeated exposures to the cue, and show poor transfer after even small changes to the testing environment (Brauer et al., 2006; Call, Agnetta, & Tomasello, 2000; Itakura et al., 1999).Dogs, in contrast, though they share much less of our genetic material than do chimpanzees, nonetheless show a spontaneous ability to follow human gestures to find reinforcing objects, even in the absence of training in the laboratory. Most remarkably, even dogs raised with minimal human contact can follow a human point and gaze gesture without explicit training (Hare et al., 2005).Chimpanzees also have been the species most intensely studied for any ability to respond to the attentional state of humans or conspecifics—so-called “Theory of Mind” abilities. However, several published studies have failed to find any evidence of a sensitivity to another's knowledge (e.g., Brauer et al., 2006; Povinelli & Eddy, 1996), and studies that do suggest this ability (e.g., Hare & Tomasello, 2004) have been subject to extensive criticism (e.g., Boesch, 2007; Heyes, 1998; Penn, Holyoak, & Povinelli, in press). Dogs, in contrast, respond readily to human cues in these kinds of tests (e.g., Brauer et al., 2004; Call et al., 2003; Gacsi et al., 2004).Chimpanzees have been by far the most intensively studied species for the comprehension of human language (including seminal studies by Gardner & Gardner, 1969; Savage-Rumbaugh et al., 1993; Terrace, 1979), but no peer reviewed paper has ever claimed the rapid “fast-mapping” of language acquisition found by Kaminski et al. (2004) in the dog Rico.Several theories have been proposed to explain why dogs perform so well on tasks involving socially mediated stimuli. The possibility that dogs learn to attend to human social cues simply because of the intensity of their interactions with humans appears to be refuted by the observation that even puppies and domesticated fox kits that have had only minimal exposure to human beings, nonetheless respond very accurately to human cues in choice paradigms (Hare et al., 2005).Hare and Tomasello (2005) considered the possibility that domestic dogs' high sensitivity to social cues is an evolutionary legacy inherited from wolves, the dog's closest wild relative and progenitor. If general social traits common to wild canids have simply been inherited by domestic dogs, then wolves also should do well on tasks involving social cues. However, when compared to wolves and wild foxes, domestic dogs (including puppies) make significantly more correct responses on choice paradigms where social cues serve as the discriminative stimuli (Hare et al., 2002; Hare & Tomasello, 2005). This is true even though the wolves tested had been socialized and raised by humans in their homes as pets. Thus, it does not seem that domestic dogs simply inherited the predisposition to attend to social stimuli from wolves.Hare and Tomasello's (2005) study included, alongside tests on domestic dogs, comparison tests on fox kits that had been selectively bred over 46 years for nonaggressive behavior towards humans. These fox kits were compared to others reared under the same conditions but not selectively bred for low aggression. Neither group of foxes had been raised in human homes (nor had the earlier generations from which they were descended). Hare and Tomasello found that the fox kits bred for nonaggressive reactions to people performed just like domestic dog puppies on pointing and gazing tasks. The fox kits that had not been selectively bred performed poorly on these tasks, at a level similar to that seen in wolves (Miklósi et al., 2003).These results suggest that during domestication, traits that were often selected by humans, such as lack of aggression and fearlessness towards people, may have carried with them other genetic traits that led to a heightened responsiveness to human social stimuli (Hare et al., 2002; Hare & Tomasello, 2005). It also is possible that by removing genetic tendencies towards aggression and fear towards humans, other preexisting social behaviors were no longer blocked and thus could increase in frequency.If selective breeding and domestication serve as a likely explanation for the success of domestic dogs on tasks involving human social cues, then that begs the question—Why don't other domesticated animals share these abilities? In fact, domestic cats have been shown to be only slightly less successful than dogs in using basic pointing cues to find a hidden food item in a simple choice test (Miklósi et al., 2005). However, when presented with an unsolvable task, where food was hidden in a butter pot but tied to a stool in such a way that retrieval was impossible, dogs looked between the problem and their owner more often and for longer periods of time, whereas cats only occasionally looked towards their owners and spent much more time trying to get the food themselves. This may indicate that: (1) During domestication cats were selected for traits less tied to the approach of humans and fear reduction, or (2) less stringent contingencies exist for cats in their home environment leading to behavior that is more independent of human action, or both.The lower responsiveness and less frequent orientation of cats to human cues may in fact be related to the fact that domestic cats are closer to their wild relatives than dogs are to wolves. The domestic cat (Felis catus) shows only a low level of genetic divergence from its two nearest wild relatives (the European wildcat, F. silvestris, and African wildcat, F. libyca), and the earliest evidence for cat domestication is only around 8,000–9,500 years BP—considerably more recent than that for dogs (between 14,000 and 135,000 years BP) (Driscoll et al., 2007; Serpell, 2000; Vigne, Guilaine, Debue, Haye, & Gérard, 2004). The traits selected for in the domestication of the two species also may have led to differences in the responsiveness and attentiveness each has towards humans. Even today, many dog breeds are selectively bred to work in close association with humans, filling specific roles in industries such as farming, therapy, police, and search- and-rescue. Even with earlier partnerships such as hunting it is quite probable that a dog that stayed close to its owner or was quick to respond to its owner's actions would have been a more beneficial working companion, securing its place in the group and ultimately in the gene pool.Cats were likely used as mousers and kept as pets from early in their domestication (Vigne et al., 2004), but they are not typically bred for purposes that require a close partnership with humans, even today. Thus, a house cat's independence could have actually been a beneficial trait that increased the chances of its survival in the same environment. Furthermore, cats are often chosen as pets because they are considered low maintenance compared to dogs. They do not require walking, they sleep or entertain themselves most of the day, and they are typically small and quiet enough to go unnoticed much of the time. Thus, there are many more opportunities for cats to engage in independent behaviors without immediate human consequences within the home environment.Several studies have looked for key similarities and differences between wolves and dogs. Perhaps the most striking developmental difference between dogs and wolves is that, whereas dogs can be socialized to humans within the first sixteen weeks of life, wolves must be removed from their mother for human socialization before fourteen days of age, or acceptance of humans is very unlikely (Klinghammer & Goodman, 1985).In a study by Frank and Frank (1982), domesticated dogs (Alaskan malamutes) and wolf pups that were raised in identical conditions in a home environment showed distinct differences in both physical and social development. Conducted as a two-stage experiment, 2 malamutes acquired at 10 days old were compared to 2 wolf pups acquired at 11 days old a year before. The wolf and dog pups did not interact, but the conditions were kept almost identical for the two groups during the experiment. Interestingly the two major differences were that wolves were given more socialization to humans, as they were required to sleep with their human foster parent two out of every three nights as pups, and the malamutes, who did not receive this extra socialization, were given slightly more frequent exposure to the outdoor enclosure. All pups were nursed by the same wolf mother until weaning, at which point they were hand raised and fed by humans.The wolves reached several physical developmental landmarks days ahead of the malamutes. For example, the wolf pups began climbing over their 45-cm pen wall at only 19 days, whereas the malamute pups could not climb over their 15-cm den box opening at 32 days old. However, socialization of the wolves was much more difficult than of the malamutes. At 2 weeks of age the wolf pups avoided the human handlers whenever possible and hid behind the wolf dam when humans approached. At 6 weeks they became less fearful but somewhat indifferent to the human presence, preferring to be around adult wolves or dogs in the enclosure. The malamutes, in contrast, became more independent of the nursing wolf, and actively approached nearby humans and engaged in “greeting frenzies” on a regular basis (Frank & Frank, 1982).However, this study has some potential flaws. First, all of the pups were raised by a wolf foster mother, which could have potentially impacted the behavior of the mother to the foster pups or the behavior of the growing pups toward the foster mother. Without a comparison using a Malamute foster mother for both species it is impossible to say that having a same-species foster mother would not produce a closer bond to that individual and therefore less of a bond towards humans. Second, since the two groups of pups were raised at different times, other factors may have been present in one study that were not accounted for in the next, for example, the age of the foster mother or other canine group members and the previous experience of the experimenters raising wolfs before raising the Malamutes.To address some of these concerns, Kubinyi, Viranyi and Miklósi (2007) conducted a similar study comparing the development and behavior of wolf pups and mongrel dog pups in foster homes with human caretakers. In this study, all pups were individually assigned to a human caretaker who hand raised and fed his or her pup from 4 to 6 days old. Both sets of pups participated in multiple behavioral tests from 3 to 9 weeks of age. When the wolves reached 9 weeks of age they had to be integrated into a captive wolf pack, but were still visited by their caretakers at least once or twice a week. Unfortunately the mongrel dogs in the study continued to live in a human household at this point, so testing later in their lives could have been impacted by different home environments. Nevertheless, the study found that the wolves could be handled by their caretakers similarly to dogs when tested between 1 and 2 years of age. This included coming when called, sitting and lying down on cue, allowing dog accessories such as a muzzle to be put on, and minimal social and physical neophobia. The level of attachment, measured by the length of time the wolves spent in close proximity to their caretaker at 1 to 2 years of age, however, was less for wolves than it was for the dogs. The domestic dogs also out-performed the wolves on tasks involving more complex human social cues, such as momentary distal pointing. The wolves could be taught to use the same level cues as the dogs at 11 months, but only after extensive training (Kubinyi et al., 2007).Studies comparing domestic animals and their closest genetic relatives are a good step in the direction of identifying the role phylogeny and ontogeny play in key behaviors that seemingly make the species behaviorally distinct. However, much care needs to be taken to make sure both species are treated equivalently and that the behavior that results is not a byproduct of some unintended aspect of the experimental environment. This includes taking into account genetic and developmental differences that may impact how different species respond to stimuli when presented at the same age or in different environments.The fact that various domesticated animals do better than their nondomesticated relatives on tasks requiring the use of human social stimuli indicates that selective breeding and domestication play some role in this class of behavior. These genetic traits or predispositions may have been a result of artificial selection in some species, but they are still a product of the evolutionary history of that species. Instead of mountains creating the geographic isolation of a pack of wolves, stone walls and chains may have determined which individuals could breed. In place of a natural distribution of ecological resources, a human hand may have determined which individuals would live or die within a pack.Dogs may have developed at least some behaviors similar to those of humans because the two species lived in such close proximity over 10,000 years. It also is the case that it would have been beneficial to humans to create similar or complementary social traits in these animals through selective breeding. Of course, over most of this history of artificial selection, the human breeders would have understood nothing of genetics or selective breeding. Simple operant conditioning would be sufficient to explain the selection of dogs with desirable traits. Dogs that bit or attacked a human may have been killed, whereas ones that worked well with humans on the hunt and were nonviolent to their owners were taken care of and had a greater chance of reproductive success. Over time, people would have learned to recognize traits in puppies that had typically led to aggressiveness in older dogs in the past, and the process of selecting desired individuals and rejecting ones with undesirable traits would have become more efficient. In other words, the selection of particular traits in dogs would be reinforced with the presence of cooperative, nonaggressive dogs, whereas the tolerance or selection of other traits might be punished with aggressive attacks or a lost investment of food and energy if a fearful dog runs away.Of course, phylogeny may set the limits of what is possible in behavior, but it is ontogeny—the personal history of reinforcement—that determines what an animal actually does. In a study by Hare and Tomasello (1999), domestic pet dogs demonstrated the ability to use the location and gestures of both humans and other dogs to help locate hidden food. Four conditions were used: human–local enhance (the human squatted by the correct location); dog–local enhance (another dog sat by the location); human–gaze- and-point; and dog–gaze-and-point (the other dog faced and looked towards the location). When performance was assessed as a group, the 10 subject dogs in the study found food significantly more often in each of the experimental conditions than in the control or baseline condition where no cue was provided. As a group, no one condition appeared to be more helpful than another. However, individual dogs differed greatly in which stimulus they were most successful in using to find the target location. Only 2 dogs were successful in all four conditions, 1 dog was successful in three conditions, 2 dogs were successful only with the human communicator, 2 only with the dog communicator, 1 during both the human– and dog–local enhancement conditions only, and 2 during the human–local enhancement condition only. These differences are most likely due to different levels of experience in the home with situations similar to the ones the experimenters set up in the laboratory.If, then, there is a genetic component to some aspects of behavior that have a clear impact on human–dog interaction, can bans targeting “bad dog” breeds such as pit bulls, or profiling based on genes in general, be justified by maintaining the position that behavior is a product of genetic tendencies as well? Evidence suggests that the answer is no. Although bites and deaths attributed to pit bulls are up in recent years (Sacks, Sinclair, Gilcrist, Golab, & Lockwood, 2000), other breeds have been number one for aggression against humans at other times. German shepherds and St. Bernards were estimated to be responsible for the majority of deadly dog attacks, not including police dogs, from 1975 through 1980 (Pinckney & Kennedy, 1982). In the 1970s, Dobermans were on the top of the list (Randall Lockwood of the ASPCA, as cited in Gladwell, 2006), and between 1993 and 1998 Rottweilers were the most dangerous dog breed (Sacks et al., 2000). However, these estimates are imperfect because they do not take into account the baseline populations of each breed in the U.S. at any given time, and identifying an individual as a specific breed is not always clear cut. Therefore, breeds that have a larger population may be involved in more attacks than less popular breeds but proportionally may be less aggressive; and aggressive dogs that do not fall clearly into a breed category are often labeled as a breed that is already deemed aggressive, thereby inflating the numbers for that breed. However, even in times where one breed may show proportionally higher levels of aggressive behavior, there is evidence that this is not solely due to an inherited “bad dog” gene. In fact, the type of owner, not the breed of the dog, is the best predictor for dog attacks (Gladwell, 2006; Siebert, 2004). In a quarter of fatal dog attacks, the owners previously had been arrested for illegal fighting, and many aggressive dogs are ones that have been abused, starved, or deprived of medical attention. In addition, some owners seek out breeds that have a reputation as “bad dogs” and then shape the aggressive behaviors that later seal their fate. According to Randall Lockwood, a senior vice-president of the ASPCA, “A fatal dog attack is not just a dog bite by a big or aggressive dog. It is usually a perfect storm of bad human–canine interactions—the wrong dog, the wrong background, the wrong history in the hands of the wrong person in the wrong environmental situation” (cited in Gladwell, 2006, p. 26).Dogs may become problems in human society because their owners may also respond in unconventional ways to social stimuli within the environment because of their own history—possibly exposing their dog to contingencies governed by an abusive, isolated, or neglectful home environment. Therefore, to fully address these and other types of behaviors demonstrated by domestic dogs, the specific contingencies that surround the operant and the specific properties of social stimuli that serve as effective discriminative stimuli need to be identified and defined.The study of dog behavior may seem new to experimental behavior analysis, but the interest in applying behaviorist technology to dog training dates back to Skinner's own writings. Skinner wrote: “Since nearly everyone at some time or other has tried, or wished he knew how, to train a dog, a cat, or some other animal, perhaps the most useful way to explain the learning process is to describe some simple experiments which the reader can perform himself” (Skinner, 1951/1999, p. 605). He went on to provide techniques to shape the behavior of any animal the reader could “catch” using the basic principles of positive reinforcement (Skinner, 1951/1999). Three decades later, Karen Pryor reintroduced behavioral methods of dog training to a new generation of animal trainers and pet owners (Pryor, 1984).Notwithstanding Skinner's and Pryor's encouragement to behavior analysts to become involved in dog training, and even a paper in the psychological literature calling on behavioral scientists to become more involved in the scientific development of dog training methods (Tuber, Miller, Caris, Halter, Linden, & Hennessy, 1999), the two flagship journals of the field, the Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior and the Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, have published surprisingly few empirical papers involving dogs as subjects, the most recent (Cohen, 1970) having a publication date of over 35 years ago.Surely there would be no better way to convince people of the effectiveness of scientific behavioral techniques than to provide them with the technology that they desire to address their current needs. Now is the time to provide the research that will help behaviorists, and in turn society, better understand the behavior of domestic dogs as a species, and to devise refined and easily applied methods of training and evaluation grounded in empirical and testable approaches to behavior.

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