Our reference: APPLAN 3210 P-authorquery-v7

AUTHOR QUERY FORM

	Journal: APPLAN	Please e-mail or fax your responses and any corrections to:		
		E-mail: corrections.esil@elsevier.thomsondigital.com		
ELSEVIER	Article Number: 3210	Fax: +353 6170 9272		

Dear Author,

Any queries or remarks that have arisen during the processing of your manuscript are listed below and highlighted by flags in the proof. Please check your proof carefully and mark all corrections at the appropriate place in the proof (e.g., by using on-screen annotation in the PDF file) or compile them in a separate list.

For correction or revision of any artwork, please consult http://www.elsevier.com/artworkinstructions.

Articles in Special Issues: Please ensure that the words 'this issue' are added (in the list and text) to any references to other articles in this Special Issue.

Uncited references: References that occur in the reference list but not in the text – please position each reference in the text or delete it from the list.

Missing references: References listed below were noted in the text but are missing from the reference list – please make the list complete or remove the references from the text.

Location in article Please insert your reply or correction at the corresponding line in the proof

No queries

Sometimes we are unable to process the electronic file of your article and/or artwork. If this is the case, we have proceeded

Rekeying (parts of) your article

Scanning the artwork

Thank you for your assistance.

Scanning (parts of) your article

Electronic file usage

by:

ARTICLE IN PRESS

Applied Animal Behaviour Science xxx (2010) xxx-xxx

EISEVIED

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Applied Animal Behaviour Science

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/applanim



Video analysis of dogs with separation-related behaviors

Clara Palestrini ^{a,*}, Michela Minero ^a, Simona Cannas ^a, Emanuela Rossi ^a, Diane Frank ^b

- ^a Dipartimento di Scienze Animali, Sezione di <mark>Zootecnica Veterinaria</mark>, Facoltà di Medicina Veterinaria, Università degli Studi di Milano, Via Celoria 10, 20133 Milano, Italy
- ^b Université de Montréal, Faculté de Médecine Vétérinaire, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vétérinaire, C.P. 5000, Saint-Hyacinthe, QC, Canada J2S 7C6

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Accepted 14 January 2010 Available online xxx

Keywords:
Dogs

Behavior
Separation-related problems

Separation anxiety

ABSTRACT

Separation-related behaviors are described as problematic behaviors that occur exclusively in the owner's absence or virtual absence. Diagnosis is generally based on indirect evidence such as elimination or destruction that occurs during owner absence. Questionnaire studies are based on owner perception and might therefore underestimate the actual proportion of dogs with separation problems. The aim of this study was to film dogs with separation-related problems when left home alone and compile objective information on behaviors exhibited. Twenty-three dogs, ranging in age from 5 months to 13 years $(2.9 \pm 2.7 \text{ years})$, were filmed home alone for 20–60 min $(49.87 \pm 12.9 \text{ min})$ after owner departure.

Analysis of behaviors on tape showed that dogs spent most of their time vocalizing (22.95 \pm 12.3% of total observed time) and being oriented to the environment (21 \pm 20%). Dogs also exhibited panting (14 \pm 18%), were passive (12 \pm 27%) and were destroying (6 \pm 6%) during owner absence. Most dogs displayed signs within less than 10 min after owner departure, such as vocalizing (mean latency 3.25 min) and/or destroying (mean latency 7.13 min). Barking and oriented to the environment tended to decrease (respectively p = 0.08 and p = 0.07) and conversely panting tended to increase over time (p = 0.07).

Diagnosis of separation-related problems is traditionally dependant on owner reports. Although owner observation may be informative, direct observation and standardized behavioral measurement of dogs with separation-related problems, before and after treatment, would be the best way to diagnose and to measure behavioral improvement.

© 2010 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Problems that occur when the owner is absent represent one of the principal causes for the breakdown of the human—companion animal bond and can lead to surrender of numerous dogs to shelters (Miller et al., 1996; Van der Borg et al., 1991).

In the literature, undesirable behavior problems that occur during owner absence are listed as separation anxiety, separation-related problems, isolation anxiety, separation reactions, separation-related distress and

0168-1591/\$ – see front matter © 2010 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2010.01.014

separation anxiety syndrome. Separation anxiety is described as problematic behavior motivated by anxiety that occurs exclusively in the owner's absence or virtual absence (Appleby and Pluijmakers, 2004; Borchelt and Voith, 1982; Flannigan and Dodman, 2001; Overall, 1997). Anxiety-related disorders and separation anxiety are among the most common behavioral problems in domestic dogs (Overall et al., 2001) with separation anxiety being diagnosed in 20–40% of dogs referred to animal behavior practices in North America (Simpson, 2000; Takeuchi et al., 2000; Voith and Borchelt, 1996). Some authors and veterinarians question whether dogs with separation-related problems are truly anxious (Papurt, 2001).

Separation-related distress has, for many years, been believed to be a distress response to separation from the

7 8

14

15

16

17

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +39 02 5031 8042; fax: +39 02 5031 8030. E-mail address: clara.palestrini@unimi.it (C. Palestrini).

ARTICLE IN PRESS

C. Palestrini et al./Applied Animal Behaviour Science xxx (2010) xxx-xxx

figure to whom the dog is attached (Voith and Borchelt, 1985). In most cases, the attachment figure is the dog's owner or a person in the household with whom the dog displays a strong affiliation. The degree of distress is thought to be related to the degree of the attachment to the absent figure (Schwartz, 2003). It is likely that separation-related distress in dogs has a multi-faceted etiology, so various authors have advocated symptom-based approaches for data collection since these approaches may avoid inappropriate interpretation of animals' moti-

and Masters, 2008).

The most common complaints are destructive behavior directed at the home, self-inflicted-trauma, inappropriate elimination, increased and repetitive motor activity (pacing, circling) and excessive vocalization (whining, barking, or howling) in the owner's absence (Appleby and Pluijmakers, 2004; King et al., 2000; Simpson, 2000).

vation (Blackwell et al., 2006; McCrave, 1991; McGreevy

Destructive behavior (chewing, digging and scratching) is usually directed at exit points such as doors, windows and gates (McCrave, 1991). Specific objects in the apartment or the house are scratched, chewed or torn apart. Occasionally this behavior may even lead to extensive destruction of furniture. Diagnosis is generally based on indirect evidence such as elimination or destruction during owner absence instead of visualizing tapes of actual behaviors and body language. Several owners will be made aware of a problem only because neighbors complain about excessive vocalization. Separation-related problems may therefore be underestimated if elimination does not occur, destruction is absent or minor and if no one hears the dog vocalize. Some behavioral signs, such as pacing, circling, or other repetitive actions can only be identified if avideo-recorded film is done during owner absence. Therefore, questionnaire studies based on owner perceptions may underestimate the real proportion of dogs with separation problems, as well as the severity of the signs.

To our knowledge, only one study (Lund and Jørgensen, 1999) reported observations of filmed behaviors exhibited by dogs with separation problems in their own environment. The aim of this study was to film dogs with separation-related problems when left home alone and compile additional objective information on behaviors exhibited.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Subjects

Twenty-three dogs (three intact and seven spayed females, nine neutered and four intact males) ranging in age from 5 months to 13 years (2.9 ± 0.7 years) were included. Dogs were chosen among patients presented for separation-related problems to two Behavior Clinics.

Breeds included two Siberian huskies and two Beagles, and one of each of the following: Golden Retriever, Poodle, English Cocker Spaniel, West Highland White Terrier, Wire Fox Terrier, Basset Hound, Doberman, American Staffordshire Terrier, Dachshund, as well as 10 mixed breeds.

Dogs were filmed under routine conditions normally adopted by the owners: 11 dogs were allowed to run freely

in the home, nine were kept in a cage and three were confined in a room.

2.2. Data collection

The owners were asked to fill out a questionnaire including information on the dog's characteristics and history as well as on the physical and social environment of the dog. Questions touched on home environment, management, age (current, age at acquisition), sex, reproductive status (entire or neutered/spayed), breed, number of adults and children in the household (children older than 18 years were considered adults), source of dog (breeder, pet store, shelter, rescue, family, friends or stray), and number of dogs and cats in the household. Other specific questions about the dog's behavior during owner absence were also compiled (house soiling, destruction, vocalization).

A video camera was installed in the room where the dog usually stayed during owner absence. If the dog was allowed to roam freely, the camera was installed where the dog was believed to spend most of its time. The owners were asked to start the camera immediately prior to their departure from home. The dogs were filmed when left home alone for variable periods ranging from 20 to 60 min $(49.87 \pm 12.9 \, \text{min})$ depending on the owner's schedule.

2.3. Data collection and analysis

2.3.1. Questionnaire

Answers to the questionnaire were scored. Absolute and relative frequencies were calculated and expressed as percentage.

2.3.2. Video recording

The behavior of each dog was video-recorded and every videotape session was subsequently analyzed. Twenty categories covering all recorded behaviors were established (Table 1). A focal animal continuous recording method (Martin and Bateson, 1993) was used to describe the dog's activity. Behaviors were recorded in terms of duration of occurrence or frequency. Behaviors recorded as states were: exploration, locomotion, circling, passive behavior, orientation to environment, scratching, oral behavior, play, panting, grooming, ears back, barking, whining, howling, trembling, paw up and not visible. Yawning, lip licking, elimination were recorded as events.

Inter-observer reliability was assessed by two observers that scored independently a random sample of three videotaped sessions, for a total duration of 3 h of observation. The reliability was calculated by means of percentage agreement and Spearman's correlation. Percentage agreement was always more than 87%, Spearman's Rho = 0.983, p < 0.001.

2.3.3. Statistical analysis

In order to describe duration and frequency for each behavior a descriptive analysis was first performed. Categories such as play, grooming, ears back, trembling, circling, elimination and not visible were not considered for statistical analysis either because of total absence of the given behavior or short duration.

2

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56 57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74 75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83 84

85

86

87

88

89

90

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158 159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

Table 1Behavioral categories and their definition.

Behavioral category	Definition		
Duration			
Exploration—EX	Motor activity directed toward physical aspects of the environment, including sniffing,		
	and gentle oral examination such as licking		
Locomotion_LO	Walking or running around without exploring the environment (pacing)		
Passive behavior_PA	Lying down with the head on ground without any obvious orientation toward the physical or social environment		
Oriented to the environment—OE	Sitting, standing or lying down (the head does not rest on the ground) with obvious orientation toward the physical or social environment, including sniffing, close visual inspection, distant visual inspection (vigilance or scanning)		
Scratching—SC	All active behaviors resulting in physical contact with the cage/door, including scratching the cage/door with the paws, jumping on the cage/door, handling with the forelimbs		
Oral behavior—OB	Any vigorous behavior directed toward the environment/cage using the mouth (including chewing, biting, shaking, pulling with the mouth)		
Play _A —PL	Any vigorous or galloping gaited behavior directed toward a toy; including chewing, biting, shaking from side to side, scratching or batting with the paw, chasing rolling balls and tossing using the mouth. Although, the dog may take the objects into its mouth, destruction is not included in this category		
Panting—PT	Panting		
Not visible—NV	Not visible (during these periods, activities like barking, whining, scratching, chewing, were identified and recorded by the sound of the activity)		
Grooming—GR	The action of cleaning the body surface by licking, nibbling, picking, rubbing, scratching, etc. directed toward the animal's body (self-grooming)		
Ears back—EB	Ears flattened and back		
Barking_BA	Barking		
Whining—WH	Whining		
Howling-HO	Howling		
Trembling—TR	Trembling/shaking movements of the body or head		
Paw up <mark>—PU</mark>	Front limb raised		
Circling CI	Movement of the dog in circles		
Frequency			
Yawning—YA	Yawning		
Lip licking <mark>—LL</mark>	Part of tongue is shown and moved along the upper lip		
Elimination_EL	Defecation or urination in sitting or standing position		

Based on the total length of the observation, durations of states were calculated as percentage of total observation time and events were expressed as hourly frequencies.

A multivariate statistical analysis (Principal Component Analysis—PCA) was used for the remaining observed behavioral categories as an exploratory analysis to detect the underlying relationships among the observed behaviors and to identify cases clusters. Data assumptions were checked, KMO (Keiser Meyer Olkin) and Barlett's test of sphericity were performed in order to test the suitability of the data for structure detection. Factor scores were calculated for dogs when the component's Eigen value was greater than one, to evaluate the distribution of the subjects according to the considered variables and classed using the categories obtained from the questionnaire. Any differences in behavior which may have occurred in dogs owing to different classes of age at adoption, sex, source of acquisition, presence of other dogs in the household and various confinement styles (dogs free versus confined in a cage or a room) were evaluated by comparing dog scores on the main PCA factors using a Mann,-Whitney or a Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests.

Seventeen dogs out of 23 were filmed for more than 40 min. For these dogs, the first 40 min of each video was evaluated to determine how the behaviors changed over time. A General Linear Model (GLM) analysis of variance for repeated measures was performed on log transformed data in order to analyze the temporal distribution of

behaviors during subsequent intervals of 10 min for the first 40 min.

3. Results

Sixty per cent of the subjects lived in an apartment, 33.3% in a house and the others (6.7%) in various environmental contexts. Most dogs (76.5%) came from households without children, whereas some (23.5%) lived with adults, and teenagers or children. In 45.6% of cases, the dog was a single pet. In about half the households (54.4%), another animal was present, a dog in 25% of cases and a cat in the remaining 29.4%. Access to outdoors was limited (fenced yard) for 14.3% of the dogs, 28.6% were taken out on leash, 21.4% were allowed to roam free while outside and 35.7% were both out on leash or in a fenced yard.

Twenty-five per cent of the dogs were acquired from the local animal shelter, 31.2% were adopted from another person, 12.5% were adopted directly from breeders, 6.2% were purchased from a pet store, and the remaining dogs (25.1%) came from a different source.

Age at adoption ranged from birth to 60 days for 22.2% of the dogs, between 2 and 3 months for 38.9%, from 3 to 12 months for 16.7% of the dogs and 22.2% were adopted after 1 year of age.

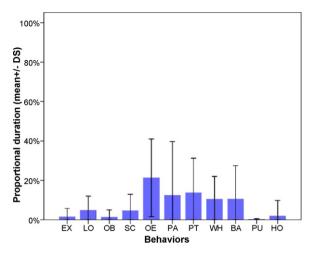
Based on owner answers to the questionnaire, 60.8% of the dogs reacted to thunderstorms, 71.4% of the dogs destroyed and 53.3% eliminated when left home alone. 

Fig. 1. Proportional duration of behaviors (mean \pm SD).

Based on owner perception or neighbor complaints, 88.2% of the dogs vocalized when left home alone.

Analysis of behavior on tape is shown in Fig. 1. Considering behaviors like barking, whining and howling together as vocalization and oral behavior and scratching as destruction, it is possible to evidence that dogs spent most of their time (22.95%) vocalizing (barking 11%, whining 10% and howling 1.95%) as opposed to being oriented to the environment (21%). Panting, passive, and destructive behavior were exhibited respectively for 14% and 12% and 6% (5% scratching at the cage, door, environment; 1% oral destruction of items or cage) of the time while other behaviors were only observed for shorter periods.

Hourly average for lip licking and yawning, was respectively 27 and 3. No dog played during owner absence, two dogs trembled and three dogs eliminated. Based on these videotaped records, most dogs displayed signs such as vocalizing (mean latency 3.25 min) and/or destroying (mean latency 7.13 min) shortly after the owner's departure. A good suitability of data for PCA analysis was valued (KMO = 0.609 and Barlett's test p < 0.001). The PCA (Table 2) revealed three main factors with Eigenvectors greater than one, which together explain 61.9% of the variation between dogs.

As shown in Fig. 2, the first factor (PC1) shows positive loading for the behaviors panting, lip licking, yawning and paw raised, all behaviors that can indicate distress. The second factor (PC2) showed positive loading for locomotion and destruction (oral behavior and scratching), and negative loadings for passive behavior (suggesting that dogs scoring high on this factor can be described as more active than dogs with low scores). These behaviors correspond to a state of activity/inactivity. The third (PC3) factor shows positive loadings for vocalization (howling, whining and barking) and oriented to the environment and negative loadings for exploration and may indicate a condition of anxiety as opposed to being more interactive with the environment.

Based on age of adoption, dogs did not gather homogeneously, but rather significantly (p < 0.05) separated into two groups on PC2: one group with higher

Table 2Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of quantitative data calculated from correlation matrix.

	Eigen value	Explained variance %		Cumulative explained variance %	
	PC1 3.012	30.122	30.122		
	PC2 1.731	17.307	47.429		
]	PC3 1.452	14.520	61.949		
,	Behavior	Compone	Component		
		1	2	3	
]	Exploration	093	.097	- .408 ^a	
]	Locomotion	169	.730	034	
	Oriented to environment	200	309	.638	
]	Passive	<u>^</u> .284	612	386	
]	Panting	.864	.196	104	
]	Paw raised	.714	075	358. <mark>^</mark>	
]	Lip licking	.879	1 .213	022	
,	Yawning	.762	<u>^</u> .413	012	
1	Vocalization	.055	.425	.651	
]	Destruction	.492	.526	406	

The most significant behaviors for each component are bold typed.

variable values associated with behaviors such as locomotion and destruction and the second group identified by higher variable values for passive behavior.

As shown in Fig. 3, dogs adopted before 2 months and after 3 months of age (Group 2) are clustered indicating that they appear to be more active (walking or running around without exploring the environment, and destroying) than dogs adopted between 2 and 3 months of age (Group 1) which spent more time in passive behavior.

Analysis of factor scores of dogs revealed that sex, source of acquisition and the presence of other dogs in the household did not affect the distribution of the dogs on the first three PCs. Caged dogs yawned and licked their lips significantly more (p < 0.05) than dogs running freely or confined in a room. No other significant difference in behavior was detected.

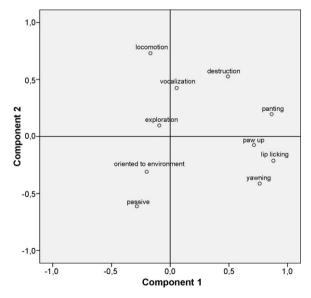


Fig. 2. Projection for the loadings of the behavioral variables considered for the First and Second Principal Component.

Please cite this article in press as: Palestrini, C., et al., Video analysis of dogs with separation-related behaviors. Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci. (2010), doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2010.01.014

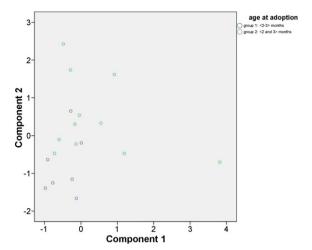


Fig. 3. Score plot of dogs in terms of age of adoption.

Behaviors such as whining, scratching and passive did not change significantly over successive interval times. Barking and oriented to the environment tended to decrease (respectively p = 0.08 and p = 0.07) and conversely, panting tended to increase over time (p = 0.07).

4. Discussion

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

The aim of this study was to film dogs with separation-related problems when left home alone and compile additional objective information on behaviors exhibited. Our research included a small sample of dogs of different breeds and ages displaying various degrees of separation-related behaviors. Therefore, they may not be representative of the entire population of dogs with separation-related behavior problems, and caution should be exercised not to generalize these results. Our study does show that dogs with separation-related problems do not all exhibit the same signs and these signs can vary in intensity.

Vocalization, in the form of barking, whining or howling was the behavior exhibited most often by our dogs. Twenty dogs out of 23 vocalized during owner absence. Dogs barked and whined more than howled, and similarly to Lund and Jørgensen (1999), we frequently found that the different forms of vocalization were mixed. Although the type of vocalization in our study did vary to a certain extent among dogs, all but three were whining. Whining is a social signal providing information about the emotional state of the dog calling for attention (Lund and Jørgensen, 1999). The emotional state of a whining dog exposed to social isolation may be distress related to fear (Lund and Jørgensen, 1999). If this is the case, then fear was involved in the separation-related behaviors observed in our study. Barking can occur in response to external stimuli and may reflect arousal (Lund and Jørgensen, 1999). When visualizing and listening to the tapes, we were unable to identify any external stimulus that could have elicited vocalization. In some contexts barks are acoustically different which means that the acoustic features of the bark depend either on the motivational/emotional state and/or on the actual context (Molnár et al., 2008).

Howling is used in wolves for long distance communication when an individual has been separated from the pack (Fox, 1971; Mech, 1977). Therefore, howling may be considered a natural response in separated dogs experiencing the discomfort of being left alone (Lund and Jørgensen, 1999).

Hence, vocalization in dogs left home alone can occur as a consequence of discomfort, fear or anxiety (Landsberg et al., 2003; Overall, 1997). Analysis of dog behavior on tape showed that they spent most of their time being oriented to the environment (21%) and this could be explained by the fact that anxiety elicits behaviors that enable the animal to approach the source of (perceived) threat (McNaughton and Corr, 2004) by increasing attention and stimulating risk assessment (Lang et al., 2000; Ohl et al., 2008). Furthermore, during risk assessment, non-defensive behavior, such as environmental exploration, self-grooming, feeding and social interaction are inhibited (Blanchard et al., 1998; Mastripieri et al., 1992; Shuhama et al., 2007), and the degree of suppression of these behaviors may be used as an indirect index of defensiveness or anxiety (Shuhama et al., 2007). Exploration can in fact be partially or completely inhibited by anxiety, therefore reduced exploration might represent an indirect measure of anxiety (Crawley and Goodwin, 1980; Ohl et al., 2008). In our sample of dogs, self-grooming was never observed and exploratory behavior was observed only for short periods which is compatible with a state of anxiety. Withdrawal, behavioral inhibition and immobility are also considered symptoms of separation anxiety (Horwitz, 2002; Takeuchi et al., 2000). In our study, passive behavior was exhibited by eight dogs, two of which were trembling for short periods of time thus perhaps indicating behavioral inhibition of these dogs rather than a relaxed or stress-free state.

Destruction can occur as an element of play or exploratory behavior in young active animals without appropriate exercise (Simpson, 2000), or in the course of territorial displays at windows and doors as well as during phobic episodes related to noises or storms (Horwitz, 2002). In some cases, there is the possibility that fear responses causing these behaviors are only seen during owner absence (Horwitz, 2002). In our study 74% (*n* = 17) of dogs displayed both destructive behavior and vocalization (barking, howling, whining). Of the 19 dogs exhibiting destructive behavior, 15 did not howl, and only one of the five howling dogs did not exhibit destructive behavior. Therefore in our study, as well as in Lund and Jørgensen's study, discrimination between "vocalizing" or "howlers" and "destructive" dogs does not seem justified.

Elimination has been interpreted as symptomatic of a general anxiety-like state (Bradshaw et al., 2002). Elimination behavior reported by other authors (Borchelt and Voith, 1982; Horwitz, 2002; Simpson, 2000) and considered among the most common symptoms of separation anxiety was found in only one case by Lund and Jørgensen (1999) and three cases in our study.

Based on owner answers to the questionnaire, 60.8% of the dogs in our study reacted to thunderstorms. Noise phobias and separation anxiety may in fact be associated (Overall et al., 2001). Anxiety and fear of novel situations, C. Palestrini et al./Applied Animal Behaviour Science xxx (2010) xxx-xxx

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402 403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

fear of strangers, aggression and compulsive behaviors may all occur in conjunction with separation anxiety (Overall, 1998) or with separation-related problems (Horwitz, 2002). When an extremely fearful dog encounters the fear-producing stimuli while the owner is absent, they may engage in behaviors (especially destruction) that may mimic separation anxiety (Horwitz, 2002). Restlessness, pacing and escape behaviors were noted in our study and are also frequently observed in fearful or phobic dogs (Neilson, 2002; Overall, 2002), as well as reported in many publications (Borchelt and Voith, 1982; McCrave, 1991; Overall, 1997; Simpson, 2000) on separation anxiety. In contrast to the Lund and Jørgensen (1999) study, in which behaviors related to separation were divided in either (1) exploratory, (2) object play/predatory, (3) destructive or (4) vocalization, our study seems to indicate that separation-related problems could be the consequence of different underlying conditions such as fear, phobia, or anxiety, with overlapping signs of different intensities and frequencies. Results from PCA analysis, in fact, identified dogs with three different responses to being home alone: (1) a "discomfort response" associated with signs of distress (Schwizgebel, 1982), such as lip licking, yawning and paw raised, (2) a "fearful response" shown either by increased motor activity and escape (flight) behavior ("hyperactivity" subgroup) or behavioral inhibition ("freezing" subgroup), and (3) an "anxious response" with increased attention toward the environment, vocalization and reduced exploration.

Based on our results, an inappropriate age at adoption may influence behaviors such as increased locomotion and destruction that are related to the "fearful response" of dogs. Experiences during developmental stages such as early separation from the mother or other incidents of separation are in fact important for the sensitivity of the stress response in adult animals and may produce subsequent difficulties with routine separation (Boissy, 1995; Serpell and Jagoe, 1995).

In agreement with Lund and Jørgensen (1999), in our study sex, source of acquisition and despite what owners commonly believe (separation-related behavior may disappear if they buy a second dog to provide company), the presence of other dogs in the household, had no effect on dog behaviors. Some authors suggest a confinement area such as a crate or a room to alleviate the anxiety associated with owner departure (Horwitz, 2002). However, in our study cage confinement seems to increase the "discomfort" response. Behaviors, such as yawning and lip licking were performed significantly more by caged dogs than dogs allowed to run freely or confined in a room. While many dogs respond favorably to having a smaller place where they can feel secure, some dogs panic at being put into an enclosed space, and such dogs should never be forced into a crate (Overall, 2002).

In agreement with other authors (Borchelt and Voith, 1982; Lund and Jørgensen, 1999), in our study separation-related behaviors start at the time of the owner's departure or very shortly thereafter (vocalizing at 3.25 min and/or destroying at 7.13 min).

Most behaviors in our dogs did not change over time. Nevertheless, barking and oriented to the environment tended to decrease over time while panting tended to increase possibly as a consequence of exhaustion.

Diagnosis of separation-related problems is largely dependant on owner reports. Questionnaire based studies (Appleby and Pluijmakers, 2004; Flannigan and Dodman, 2001; Podberscek et al., 1999) report that the most common signs shown by the dogs when left home alone include destruction, excessive vocalization and inappropriate elimination. If only minor or no destruction occurs, separation problems may not be recognized by owners. In some cases, owners are made aware of their dog's problem only because the neighbor complains about excessive vocalization. If neighbors do not complain, or the destructive behavior is of no importance to the owner, the problem can be underestimated even if both forms of behavior are actually displayed by the dog (Lund and Jørgensen, 1999).

Although owner observation may be informative and useful for general identification of behavioral problems, direct observation and standardized behavioral measurement of dogs with separation-related problems when alone, before and after treatment, would be the best way to diagnose and to measure behavioral improvement (Cottam et al., 2008).

5. Conclusion

Separation-related problems are commonly reported as a reason for consultation in referral behavior practices. Our results supported the view that separation-related disorders could be the consequence of different underlying states such as (1) discomfort, (2) fear ("hyperactive" and "freezing" subgroups), or (3) anxiety, along with overlapping signs of different intensities and frequencies.

If these separation-related behaviors are compatible with one or several underlying states, it is then possible that different clinical syndromes may have been grouped under the same label. This inaccurate categorization could explain the discrepancy in opinions on how to treat separation anxiety as well as explain some treatment failures (Frank, 2005). The diagnosis for most authors relies almost exclusively on owner reports, and the actual behaviors are rarely videotaped to confirm the diagnosis or to assess treatment response. The need for better diagnostic tools is essential and has consequences for the treatment of the affected animals by helping individuals cope adequately with their environment (Ohl et al., 2008).

Acknowledgements

We thank all the owners and dogs that participated as volunteers.

References

Appleby, D., Pluijmakers, J., 2004. Separation anxiety in dogs. The function of homeostasis in its development and treatment. Vet. Clin. N. Am. Small Anim. Pract. 33, 321–344.

Blackwell, E., Casey, R.A., Bradshaw, J.W.S., 2006. A controlled trial of behavioural therapy for separation-related behavioural disorders in dogs. Vet. Rec. 158, 51–554.

- 475 476 477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485 486 487
- 488 489 490 492 493
- 491 494 495 496 497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506 507 508 509 510 511 512 512 513 514 515 516 517 518 519

520

521 522

523

526 527

- Blanchard, R.J., Hebert, M.A., Ferrari, P., Palanza, P., Figueira, R., Blanchard, D.C., Parmigiani, S., 1998. Defensive behaviours in wild and laboratory (Swiss) mice: the mouse defense test battery. Physiol. Behav. 65, 561-
 - Boissy, A., 1995. Fear and fearfulness in animals. Q. Rev. Biol. 70, 165-191. Borchelt, P.L., Voith, V.L., 1982. Diagnosis and treatment of separationrelated behavior problems in dogs. Vet. Clin. N. Am. Small Anim. Pract. Bradshaw, J.W.S., McPherson, J.A., Casey, R.A., Larter, S., 2002. Aetiology of
 - separation-related behavior in domestic dogs. Vet. Rec. 151, 43-46. Cottam, N., Dodman, N.H., Moon-Fanelli, A.A., Patronek, G.J., 2008. Com-
 - parison of remote versus in-person behavioral consultation for treatment of canine separation anxiety. J. Appl. Anim. Welf. Sci. 11 (1), 28-
 - Crawley, J., Goodwin, F.K., 1980. Preliminary report of a simple animal behavior model for the anxiolytic effects of benzodiazepines. Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav. 13, 167-170.
 - Flannigan, G., Dodman, N.H., 2001. Risk factors and behaviors associated with separation anxiety in dogs. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 219, 460-466. Frank, D., 2005. Animal behavior case of the month. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.
 - 227, 90-892, Fox, M.W., 1971. Behaviour of Wolves. In: Dogs and Related Canids, Harper and Row, Publishers, New York.
 - Horwitz, D.F., 2002. House soiling by cats. In: Horwitz, D., Mills, D.M., Heath, S. (Eds.), BSAVA Manual of Canine and Feline Behavioural Medicine. BSAVA Publications, Gloucester, pp. 97-108.
 - King, J.N., Simpson, K.L., Overall, K.L., Appleby, D., Pageat, P., Ross, C., Chaurand, J.P., Heath, S., Beata, C., Weiss, A.B., Muller, G., Paris, T., Bataille, B.G., Parker, J., Petit, S., Wren, J., The CLOCSA (Clomipramine in Canine Separation Anxiety) Study Group, 2000. Treatment of separation anxiety in dogs with clomipramine: results from a prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled, parallel group, multi centre clinical trial. Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci. 67, 255-275.
 - Landsberg, G.M., Hunthausen, W., Ackerman, L., 2003. Handbook of Behavior Problems of the Cat and Dog, Second ed. Butterworth Heinemann, pp. 314-315.
 - Lang, P.J., Davis, M., Öhman, A., 2000. Fear and anxiety: animal models and human cognitive psychophysiology. J. Affect. Disord. 61, 137-159.
 - Lund, D.J., Jørgensen, M.C., 1999. Behaviour patterns and time course of activity in dog with separation anxiety. Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci. 63,
 - Martin, P., Bateson, P., 1993. Measuring Behaviour: An Introductory
 - Guide, Second ed. Cambridge University Press, pp. 84–85. Mastripieri, D., Martel, F.L., Nevison, C.M., Simpson, M.J., Keverne, E.B., 1992. Anxiety in rhesus monkey infants in relation to interactions with their mother and other social companions. Dev. Psychobiol. 24, 571-581.
 - McCrave, E.A., 1991. Diagnostic criteria for separation anxiety in the dog. Vet. Clin. N. Am. Small Anim. Pract. 21 (2), 247–255.
 - McGreevy, P.D., Masters, A.M., 2008. Risk factors for separation-related distress and feed-related aggression in dogs: additional findings from a survey of Australian dog owners. Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci. 109, 320–328.
 - McNaughton, N., Corr, P.J., 2004. A two-dimensional neuropsychology of defence: fear/anxiety and defensive distance. Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev. 28, 285-305.

- Mech, L.D., 1977. The Wolf: The Ecology and Behaviour of an Endangered Species. The Natural History Press, Garden City, NY.
- Miller, D.D., Staats, S.R., Partlo, C., 1996. Factors associated with the decision to surrender a pet to an animal shelter. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 209, 738-742.
- Molnár, C., Kaplan, F., Roy, P., Pachet, F., Pongracz, P., Doka, A., Miklosi, A., 2008. Classification of dog barks: a machine learning approach. Anim. Cogn. 11, 389-400.
- Neilson, J.C., 2002. Fear of places or things. In: Horwitz, D., Mills, D.M., Heath, S. (Eds.), BSAVA Manual of Canine and Feline Behavioural Medicine. British Small Animal Veterinary Association, Gloucester, UK, pp. 173-180.
- Ohl, F., Arndt, S.S., Van Der Staay, F.J., 2008. Pathological anxiety in animals. Vet. J. 175, 18-26.
- Overall, K.L., 1997. Clinical Behavioral Medicine for Small Animals. Mosby-Year Book Inc., St. Louis, pp. 261–262.
- Overall, K.L., 1998. Animal behavior case of the month. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 213, 34-36.
- Overall, K.L., Dunham, A.E., Frank, D., 2001. Frequency of non-specific clinical signs in dogs with separation anxiety, thunderstorm phobia, and noise phobia, alone or in combination. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 219, 467-473.
- Overall, K.L., 2002. Noise phobia in dogs. In: Horwitz, D., Mills, D.M., Heath, S. (Eds.), BSAVA Manual of Canine and Feline Behavioural Medicine. BSAVA Publications, Gloucester, pp. 164-172.
- Papurt, M.L., 2001. An alternative look at separation anxiety. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 219, 910.
- Podberscek, A.L., Hsu, Y., Serpell, J.A., 1999. Evaluation of clomipramine as an adjunct to behavioural therapy in the treatment of separationrelated problems in dogs. Vet. Rec. 145, 365-369.
- Schwartz, S., 2003. Separation anxiety syndrome in dogs and cats. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 222, 1526-1532.
- Schwizgebel, D., 1982. Zusammenhänge zwischen dem Verhalten des Tierlehrers und dem Verhalten des Deutschen Schäferhundes im Hinblick auf tiergerechte Ausbildung. Aktuelle Arbeiten zur artgemassen Tierhaltung, pp. 138-148.
- Serpell, J., Jagoe, J.A., 1995. Early experience and the development of behavior. In: Serpell, J. (Ed.), The Domestic Dog: Its evolution, Behaviour, and Interactions with People. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 80–102.
- Shuhama, R., Del-Ben, C.M., Loureiro, S.R., Graeff, F.G., 2007. Animal defense strategies and anxiety disorders. An. Acad. Bras. Cienc. 79 (1), 97-109.
- Simpson, B.S., 2000. Canine separation anxiety. Compend. Contin. Educ. Pract. Vet. 22, 328-337.
- Takeuchi, Y., Houpt, K.A., Scarlett, J.M., 2000. Evaluation of treatments for separation anxiety in dogs. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 217, 342-345.
- Van der Borg, J.A.M., Netto, W.J., Planta, D.J.U., 1991. Behavioural testing of dogs in animal shelters to predict problem behaviour. Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci. 32, 237-251.
- Voith, V.L., Borchelt, P.L., 1985. Separation anxiety in dogs. Compend. Contin. Educ. Pract. Vet. 7, 45–52.
- Voith, V.L., Borchelt, P.L., 1996. Separation anxiety in dogs. In: Borchelt, P.L. (Ed.), Readings in Companion Animal Behaviour. Veterinary Learning Systems, Trenton, pp. 161-162.