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1 **Title page**

2

3 The First Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference: Summary and recommendations for
4 future directions in canine behavioral science

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21

22

23 **Abstract**

24 Objective – To describe the main messages from the oral presentations and to identify
25 some key future directions from the first Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference.

26 Setting and design – This is a narrative descriptive review of the oral presentations
27 from the first Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference and is a synthesis of the general
28 themes from these messages to generate key conclusions on future directions for canine
29 behavior science. The conference was set in London in June 2015 and had 91 attendees from
30 10 countries. There were 17 oral presentations supported by a poster schedule with 16 posters.
31 Two rapporteurs were invited to attend the conference and to give their conclusions on routes
32 forward for canine behavioral science.

33 Results – The oral presentations covered diverse topics including behavioral genetics
34 and genomics, phenotype assessment, neuro-biology and sensory-biology, evolution and
35 socialisation. The rapporteurs concluded from these presentations that global consensus on
36 standardised systems for behavioral nomenclature (definitions) and behavioral measurement
37 were required for the improvement of scientific output from canine behavioral research. A
38 multidisciplinary research model and the use of linked databases were also deemed critical
39 for effective advancement of canine behavioral science.

40 Summary – The first Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference acted as an incubator
41 for many nascent ideas and collaborations in canine behavioral science. The coming years
42 will judge whether these eggs hatch and generate real welfare improvements for dogs and
43 increased respect of the dog as both a valued working animal and a model of important
44 translational diseases worldwide.

45 **Keywords**

46 canine; behavior; cognition; personality; conference; rapporteur; genetics

47

48 **Abbreviations**

49	AMLR	auditory middle latency response.
50	BAER	brainstem auditory evoked response
51	C-BARQ	Canine Behavior and Research Questionnaire
52	CCD	canine compulsive disorders
53	DMA	Dog Mentality Assessment
54	EBV	estimated breeding value
55	FA	factor analysis
56	fMRI	functional magnetic resonance imaging
57	GWAS	genome-wide association studies
58	MLR	middle latency response
59	MMN	mismatch negativity
60	PCA	principal components analysis
61	PET	positron emission tomography
62	SNP	single nucleotide polymorphisms
63	SPECT	single photon emission computed tomography
64		

65 **Introduction**

66 The human species has both intentionally and unintentionally moulded the behavior of
67 the now domesticated dog ever since man first formed a commensal relationship with their
68 ancestors, the grey wolf. From these early domestication processes, through to what by
69 comparison may be considered fine-tuning of behaviors in recent centuries, humans have
70 endeavoured to create a partner creature that can live, and in some cases, work harmoniously
71 alongside themselves (Hare et al., 2002, Blaustein, 2015). In the UK, 31% of households are
72 shared with at least one dog (Murray et al., 2010), and an estimated 36% of US and Australian
73 households are also shared with a dog (van Rooy, et al. 2014). Consequently, dogs have been
74 behaviorally specialised into diverse roles that include hunting, transport, guarding, sporting,
75 herding, assistance, medical, companions and objects of aesthetic appeal (Friedmann and Son,
76 2009). Desired suites of specific phenotypic and behavioral characteristics required by these
77 novel roles have led to the development of over 400 recognisable breeds worldwide,
78 paradoxically making the domestic dog both the most diverse mammalian species on the
79 planet whilst also funnelling individual breeds towards increasingly limited genetic diversity
80 (Wayne et al., 2006, Leroy, 2011, Lewis et al., 2015). However, this partnership between man
81 and dog is not necessarily without problems for either party. The transition from a primarily
82 working role to a companion role for some domestic dog breeds over recent decades means
83 that many dogs are now living lives that may be at odds with their natural proclivities,
84 sometimes leading to the expression of what may be considered undesirable behaviors
85 (Pierantoni et al., 2011). Such conflicts can place a major strain on dog-human relationships
86 and also on the welfare of the individual dogs themselves (McGreevy and Bennett, 2010,
87 O'Neill et al., 2013). Understanding the genetic basis of personality traits that support
88 harmonious dog-human partnerships has the potential to improve selection towards the 'ideal
89 companion dog', with less emphasis being placed on the physical appearance of the dog,
90 potentially enhancing both canine and human quality of life (Svartberg and Forkman, 2002).
91 In addition, the importance of dogs in non-companion roles is becoming increasingly
92 prominent worldwide, for example with the acute olfactory abilities of the dog exploited in
93 diverse roles, from explosive detection in military theatre to cancer detection in medical
94 science (Gazit and Terkel, 2003). Discovering how to capture and enhance these abilities is of
95 high importance for human health and security. It is clear that advances in canine behavioral

96 science have never been so critical both for dogs and the humans with whom they share their
97 lives (Overall, 2005).

98 With these great needs in mind, the first international Canine Behavior and Genetics
99 Conference took place in London on June 25th – 28th, 2015 and welcomed 91 delegates from
100 10 countries to two days of oral presentations supported by an exhibition of 16 posters and a
101 busy social networking programme (caninebehaviorandgenetics.org). Attendees included
102 clinical behaviorists, researchers in the field of canine behavior and genetics, working and
103 service dog groups, kennel and breed clubs, journalists, veterinary clinicians and
104 epidemiologists. With such a diverse audience and range of presentations, this meeting
105 recognised that showcasing emergent research and researchers across canine genetics and
106 behavior and incubating potential collaborative research could have far-reaching impacts on
107 canine behavioral welfare (Wilson and Wade, 2012), although only time will be the arbiter on
108 the successful achievement of this particular target. However, the meeting organisers also
109 aimed to harvest the overall conference content to generate ideas on key steps that could be
110 used to improve future canine behavioral science. Their intention was to extract and condense
111 key messages, both positive and negative, from across the presentations and the subsequent
112 open discussion sessions and to synthesise some coherent conclusions from these that could
113 inform the future direction canine behavioral science. In order to encourage fresh and open
114 inference, the conference organisers invited two rapporteurs from outside the traditional
115 inner-core of canine behavior and genetics research to observe and report on the oral
116 presentations. These rapporteurs were both full time researchers at the Royal Veterinary
117 College in London: Dr. Dan O'Neill who works within the VetCompass Programme
118 (VetCompass 2015) using primary-care veterinary clinical data for companion animal
119 epidemiological research and Dr. Rowena Packer, a canine health and welfare researcher, who
120 currently studies canine idiopathic epilepsy and its impact on canine behavior and welfare.
121 Their thoughts and conclusions form the basis of this paper and the recommendations
122 presented herein represent their personal opinions derived from the essence of the conference.

123

124 **Oral presentations**

125 Over the two days of conference, delegates were exposed to 17 excellent
126 presentations from a spectrum of both established as well as promising early career

127 researchers from 9 countries worldwide. The explored topics included genetics and genomics,
128 sensory processing, evolution, phenotyping and novel research possibilities (Table 1). The
129 majority of these presentations will be published as full papers in the *Journal of Veterinary*
130 *Behavior: Clinical Applications and Research* and the PowerPoint presentations are also
131 available online (http://caninebehaviorandgenetics.org/?page_id=244). Consequently, the
132 purpose of this paper is not to synthesise the talks but instead we aim to extract the key
133 messages from each topic area and use these to suggest opportunities to enhance future canine
134 behavior science.

135 ***Genetics and genomics***

136 Not surprisingly, genetics and genomics contributed substantially to the conference
137 programme, covering six of the 17 presentations. In the period since the canine genome was
138 first reported in 2005 (from a female Boxer dog called Tasha), canine genetics has become an
139 ever expanding area of research and has promised huge advances for canine health (Lindblad-
140 Toh et al., 2005). In addition, with their huge phenotypic diversity, well characterised
141 veterinary health metrics and over 400 known inherited diseases, it is also recognised that
142 canine genetics also offers substantial potential for mankind via translational research (Rowell
143 et al., 2011). However, despite so many inherited disorders having been identified in dogs
144 (Farrell et al., 2015), few of these relate to behavioral attributes and thus exploration of
145 established and novel approaches in behavioral genetics has huge potential to benefit both
146 dogs and mankind (van Rooy, et al. 2014).

147
148 Pam Weiner (UK), in a presentation entitled *Dissecting genetic and non-genetic influences on*
149 *dog personality*, proposed that the recognisable behavioral patterns of individual dog breeds
150 suggested strong genetic components to canine personality, but that the clear evidence of
151 within-breed variation in these traits offered significant opportunities for selection.
152 Personality has been defined as a distinctive pattern of behaviors that are consistent across
153 time and situations in an individual (Kubinyi et al., 2009). Using the Canine Behavior and
154 Research Questionnaire (C-BARQ) (van den Berg et al., 2010), the author explored
155 associations between 12 discrete personality traits in Labrador Retrievers in the UK and a
156 wide range of physical and environmental factors. The dog's role as a working, show or pet
157 animal had the strongest association with personality and was influenced by both genetic and

158 non-genetic elements. Heritability estimates for the personality traits ranged from 0.00 to
159 0.38. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) (Visscher et al., 2012) highlighted
160 *trainability* as having the largest effect among specific regions significantly associated with
161 behavioral traits.

162

163 Tom Lewis (UK) from the Kennel Club discussed *The genetics of complex traits - applying*
164 *theory to selection on behavior* and explained that, according to quantitative genetic theory,
165 effective selection can still be achieved without requiring specific knowledge of the location
166 or variants of genes for complex traits with multiple genetic and environmental factors. Dr
167 Lewis postulated that as most behavioral traits are complex, they are ideally placed to be
168 analysed by quantitative genetic techniques such as *estimated breeding values* (EBV) (Lewis
169 et al., 2013) for either selection or removal of targeted behavioral traits. Since only genetic,
170 (and not environmental) effects are inherited, quantitative genetic analysis enables efficient
171 use of phenotypic and pedigree data to estimate the genetic 'liability' for traits in individual
172 animals using data on both the animal itself and also its relatives. Although quantitative
173 genetic technologies are already accepted methods in livestock production, Dr. Lewis
174 believed that their potential was also high to improve canine selection and health.

175

176 Per Arvelius (Sweden) discussed the *Genetic evaluation of behavior in dogs* and explained
177 that behavioral traits should be an important component of any canine breeding goals
178 because, while they impact on the welfare of the dog itself, they also affect the dog's owner
179 and also society as a whole. However, effective behavioral selection requires effective
180 behavioral measurement and the author's previous work led him to recommend objective
181 measures over subjective measures of behavior. Many different methods can be used to
182 collect behavioral data and the ratings can describe individual behaviors in specific situations
183 or overall expression of behaviors. From a breeding perspective, the data collection method
184 can be expected to affect the usefulness of the measurements taken. Dr Arvelius believed that
185 EBV may be more useful for selecting general heritable behavior traits than for specific
186 individual behaviors.

187

188 Heidi Parker (US) explored *Complex genetics in the domestic dog* and explained that dogs are
189 useful models for human genetic research because of the commonality of environment and

190 medical care between the species, their susceptibility to similar diseases and genetic x
191 environmental interactions. An additional bonus for pedigree dogs was their discreet, known
192 and effectively closed populations. She went on to describe morphology and disease studies in
193 her lab that used canine mapping methodologies, and demonstrate the power of this method.
194 A study of body size identified 7 mutations that accounted for 86% of the variation in this
195 trait. A study of squamous cell carcinoma identified *kitlg* as the first example of a deleterious
196 gene being actively selected because of desired phenotype. Dr. Parker also highlighted the
197 challenges of studying ‘breeds’; while 1 in 5 Bernese Mountain Dogs are reported to develop
198 histiocytic sarcoma, different haplotypes exist between European and US populations. The
199 caveat from this study is that when selecting a ‘breed’ for genetic studies, researchers need to
200 consider whether the group are genetically a single breed or whether there are multiple
201 distinct genetic sub-types within the ‘breed’.

202

203 Claire Wade (Australia) discussed *Using breed splits to explore the genomics of canine*
204 *working behavior*. The presentation explored concentrated analyses for selective sweeps
205 within single dog breeds that had been subjected to either formalised breed splits or diverging
206 selection pressures. Selective sweeps are long regions in the DNA that have little remaining
207 variation in the cohort of animals under selection and are taken as genomic signatures of
208 human or natural intervention in animal fitness. Chromosome 25 has not been well
209 characterised previously for function in dogs but has been linked with obesity, cold
210 sensitivity, reflexes, lethargy, co-ordination and hypo-activity in the laboratory mouse. This
211 study showed that chromosome 25 was associated with energy score in the Labrador
212 Retriever and the results were validated in a separate C-BARQ characterised population.
213 Chromosome 3 has been associated with cerebellar atrophy in the dog and with fear
214 conditioning, nociception, gait, pupillary reflex, nystagmus and anxiety response in the
215 laboratory mouse. This study showed an association with chromosome 3 and reduced pain
216 perception in Australian Kelpies. These dogs need to survive and run in an Australian outback
217 that is covered in spiky plants, where individuals or breeds with lowered pain perception are
218 more likely to function and thrive. Therefore selection for reduced pain perception is a logical
219 but potentially not explicitly known selection pressure used by the breeder. These results

220 highlighted that we are often co-selecting for unknown adaptive traits during selection
221 processes.

222 Enikő Kubinyi (Hungary) discussed *Canine opioid receptor gene polymorphism and*
223 *behavior associations* and explained that her lab's research aimed to both use dogs as a
224 model for human disease and also to improve canine welfare. The study she presented
225 examined the mu-opioid receptor (MOR) that responds specifically to endogenous and
226 exogenous opioids. In humans, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (The International
227 SNP Map Working Group 2001) in the protein-coding region of the MOR gene are involved
228 in mediating complex behaviors including social bonds, addiction, and mood disorders. In the
229 study described, a total of 120 purebred dogs and 24 wolves were genotyped, with
230 questionnaire data available for 114 dogs and behavioral test data available for 118 dogs.
231 SNP-associations were found for inattention factor and the dog's reaction to separation from
232 their owner, offering potential insights into areas of the gene that may have some role in
233 differences between individuals in behavior and response to opioid drugs between dogs.

234

235 *Sensory processing*

236 Peter Scheifele (US) explored *Middle Latency Response (MLR) testing for auditory cognition*
237 *in canines*. Brainstem Auditory Evoked Response (BAER) testing measures auditory acuity
238 and has been available for several years in dogs (Wilson. 2005). MLR testing, however, offers
239 new ground for canine cognitive understanding by measuring changes in cognitive brain
240 activity in direct response to auditory stimuli. The method can be used in combination with
241 BAER testing for a more complete auditory assessment. Two systems were described in a
242 study of 20 dogs of various breeds: Mismatch Negativity (MMN) and Auditory Middle
243 Latency Response (AMLR). MMN was useful to detect non-attentive response to a discordant
244 "deviant" tone presented within a series of tones. In combination with BAER testing, MLR
245 testing could identify dogs that were potentially noise-reactive and could be useful for
246 predicting distractibility in task performance or the ability to work with sounds in a noisy
247 environment. Peter highlighted that reference ranges based on a large baseline population are
248 required for auditory tests, which are not available at present. Understanding the perceptual
249 abilities of an animal and detecting any deficits, for example in hearing, may be important
250 during the diagnosis of a behavioral problem.

251

252 Francis Galibert (France) explored *The genetics of canine olfaction*. Canines are well
253 recognized for their exceptional olfactory abilities which natural selection has honed over
254 millions of years, and supports their survival and behavioral traits (Quignon et al., 2012).
255 Olfaction comprises two anatomic components: the nose (detector function) and the brain
256 (analyzer function). The surface area of the canine olfactory epithelium is extensive: 200cm²
257 in German Shepherd Dogs compared with just 5 cm² in humans. Genetically, the dog has 856
258 intact olfactory receptor genes compared with 391 in humans. However, in real life, most
259 odors are mixtures of almost unlimited combinations and the perceived smell is really a
260 combinatorial code. Olfactory discriminant abilities are not just innate but can be learned and
261 this learning capability is related to both genotype and experiences. From a genetic
262 perspective, high levels of polymorphisms were described that led to amino acid changes in
263 olfactory proteins that may have affected function and that were clustered within breeds that
264 had been subjected to differing selection pressures and showed differing olfactory abilities.
265 The power of the study was limited by access to good transcriptomic data.

266

267 *Evolution*

268 Robert Wayne (US) explored *Domestic dog evolution and genes under selection in the dog*
269 *genome* by summarizing published genetic studies of dog evolution to provide a context for
270 behavioral studies. Wolves and dogs have a very complicated and admixed ancestry; it may
271 be that dogs and modern wolves shared a common ancestor of archaic wolves that are now
272 extinct. Genomics based on Clade A/ grouping 1 suggest that the majority of dog sequences
273 have a single point origin with first domestication about 36, 000 years ago. Mitochondrial
274 variation suggests this may have been in East-Asia whereas fossil and skull evidence suggests
275 it may have been in Europe. Two models of breeding patterns were described: firstly where
276 'Like evolves Like' and secondly where a single mutation gets passed around many breeds
277 e.g. dwarfism. Genetic bottlenecks have had a large influence on the genetic diversity of the
278 modern breeds that we now recognise. These bottlenecks were especially influential during
279 early canine domestication and happened again during more recent breed creation and re-
280 creation processes. Unfortunately the genetic bottlenecks imposed by intense human selection
281 for separated dog breeds over recent years have increased Mendelian recessive disease genes.

282

283

Phenotyping

284 Nicola Rooney (UK) discussed *Measuring working dog performance* and explained that
285 meaningful and reliable measures of performance are essential for effective selection and
286 breeding for optimal working ability. There are currently a vast array of systems for
287 measuring dog performance but many lack standardisation and validation. Dr. Rooney
288 described her work using arms and explosives search dogs to develop a systematic and
289 evidence-based approach to quantify working ability. Based on this work, she had derived an
290 **8-Point Plan** to improve the quality and usefulness of the measures of performance.

291

1. Identify the most important aspects of performance to measure

292

2. Standardise the vocabulary used for behavior

293

3. Optimise the measurement strategy

294

4. Consider the measurement context

295

5. Measurement validity and reliability

296

6. Choose the optimal rater

297

7. Optimise data collection tool

298

8. Institute some rater training

299

300 Bjorn Forkman (Germany) explored *Performance assessments in dogs - determining 'good'*
301 *behavioral measures and phenotypes* and explained that we are really assessing the
302 underlying motivational tendency of the dog when we try to predict the behavior of a dog in a
303 specific situation. Since motivations can only be inferred and cannot be directly observed, it is
304 important to assess multiple measures when trying to predict behaviors in specific situations.
305 A number of types of measures for behavioral traits were described. Behavioral coding
306 methods, such as counting the number of snaps (bite attempts) per minute, had the advantage
307 of being more objective and giving higher inter-rater reliability, but were quite restrictive in
308 their application. Behavioral rating methods, such as evaluating for rejection of human
309 contact attempts, offered more general application but were more subjective and thus inter-
310 rater reliability is lower. Adjective rating methods were also available that measure traits such
311 as courage or curiosity. The usefulness of questionnaire tools was explored and it was
312 emphasised that many still need to be validated both directly and also across populations and

313 time, and to be demonstrated to have good inter-observer reliability and repeatability.
314 Questionnaires could also be compared to better understand their strengths and weaknesses,
315 for example comparing the Dog Mentality Assessment (DMA) (Svartberg, 2005) with the C-
316 BARQ (Hsu and Serpell, 2003). Understanding how the traits measured by tools such as the
317 C-BARQ relate to the problem behaviors for which owners seek help in real life is of
318 importance; for example, does C-BARQ measured 'fear/anxiety' relate to owner-reported
319 fear/anxiety behaviors, and if so which ones?

320

321 Katriina Tiira (Finland) discussed *Canine anxiety genetics: challenges of phenotyping*
322 *complex traits* and explained that dogs are promising genetic animal models for human
323 psychiatric disorders and that conversely, veterinary behavioral science can learn much from
324 human psychiatry diagnosis, personality research and genetic research. Study design features
325 that heavily limit canine behavioral research include inadequate sample sizes (collaboration
326 was critically useful here), difficulties in selection of appropriate controls and poorly-defined
327 phenotypes and their dimensions (e.g, mild versus severe). In addition, although different
328 anxiety disorders are likely to share some affecting loci, little is known about behavioral
329 phenotype co-morbidity in dogs. Questionnaire and behavioral test results are often highly
330 correlated, in which case it was advisable to use both. The choice of breed for study is also
331 important as the heritability of behavioral disorders varies between breeds. It is also important
332 to consider environmental effects during study design because these may act as confounding
333 factors. For example, fearful dogs may have received poorer maternal care and less
334 socialization in early life and may receive less daily exercise while noise phobic dogs are
335 more likely to be older and sterilized and to receive less daily exercise. To achieve large
336 sample sizes, multi-centre studies are required; however, for such studies to be successful,
337 consensus is required regarding what to measure and how to measure it. This should be seen
338 as a positive challenge rather than a constraint because collaboration has the potential to
339 unlock success.

340

341 Karen Overall (US) discussed *Canine behavioral phenotypes: what makes a crisp phenotype*
342 *and where does trouble lie?* Although the reliability and validity of behavioral phenotyping,

343 especially for pathological behaviors, have been questioned, there are options to improve the
344 quality of behavioral data collected in canine behavioral research. Application of objective
345 criteria may set a lower bound but the false negative rate is high if behaviors are
346 episodic/infrequent. Rating scales are subjective and usually lack validated assessment
347 criteria, making them less reliable. Direct observation and standardised testing can
348 characterize quantitative behavioral response surfaces to create good behavioral phenotypes.
349 These can be compared across individuals, time and context to assess for patterns indicating
350 true biological consistency. The use of well-defined terminology in diagnosis and research
351 has the potential to improve the quality of scientific investigation of neurochemical,
352 neuromolecular and genomic mechanisms of action in behavior.

353

354 *Novel research possibilities*

355 Kathelijne Peremans (Belgium) spoke about *The contribution of nuclear medicine in the*
356 *research of canine behavior disorders*. Molecular imaging modalities that can evaluate
357 canine neuronal function include Brain Single Photon Emission Computed Tomography
358 (SPECT), Positron Emission Tomography (PET) and Brain perfusion and metabolism (based
359 on glucose consumption). These tools are useful both as diagnostic tools and also to
360 investigate the neurobiological base of brain (dys)function and to evaluate
361 psychopharmaceuticals. Pathophysiologicals that can be imaged include impulsive aggression
362 (reduced frontal cortex but increased limbic activity), anxiety (reduced serotonin receptors),
363 the aging brain and psychopharmaceuticals (for example ciproamil or SSRI studies). However,
364 the requirement for anaesthesia with an understanding of its effects on the brain and the
365 dedicated licensed infrastructure required for the use of radioactive compounds are
366 limitations to the wider application of nuclear medicine. If these constraints can be overcome
367 and more facilities to carry out these methods become available, then these techniques can
368 offer fascinating insights into the function and dysfunction of the canine brain.

369

370 Niwako Ogata (US) discussed *Exploring future possibilities for studies in canine anxiety*
371 *disorders*. Anxiety disorders in dogs are believed to cover a spectrum of clinical behavioral
372 problems such as aggression, canine compulsive disorders (CCD) and separation anxiety.
373 However, unlike human research, epidemiological data in veterinary behavior medicine are

374 scarce. In humans, anxiety is reported to comprise 83-91% of clinical behavior cases and to
375 have an 18.8% prevalence with 22.8% of cases classified as severe. In dogs, separation
376 anxiety is estimated to affect 29-50% of animals while CCD is estimated to affect 20-28%.
377 This presentation described a study of canine compulsive disorders in genetically predisposed
378 breeds. Based on cases of flank/blanket sucking in Dobermans, a susceptibility locus to CCD
379 on chromosome 7 was described. To thoroughly investigate these cases, Dr. Ogata advised to
380 explore beyond clinical signs and define the endophenotype based on physical/medical,
381 neuroanatomical (e.g. total brain and grey matter higher in CCD), neurochemistry (e.g.
382 serotonin receptor abnormality in OCD) and neurocircuitry assessment.

383

384 Peter Cook (US) explored *Regional brain activity in awake unrestrained dogs*. Although
385 functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) has been a foundational tool of human
386 cognitive neuroscience, its application in dogs has been limited because of the requirement for
387 anesthesia and restraint. Despite the MRI environment being novel, enclosed, elevated and
388 loud and the dogs being not allowed to move, this research group found that dogs are readily
389 trained to remain awake, relaxed and unrestrained in the MRI environment using positive re-
390 inforcement during a 2-4 months training period. Using fMRI techniques in these dogs, Dr
391 Cook reported multiple tests showing associations between stimuli and regional brain
392 activation. These included validation (simple reward prediction task using a reward; a
393 hotdog), odors (olfactory bulb and caudate activation indicative of reward associated with
394 familiar human scent), facial recognition (fusiform part of brain) and impulse control (Go/No
395 go decisions showing the pre-motor cortex and frontal cortex were associated with successful
396 inhibit). The researchers aim to develop a brain map: a functional atlas describing the regional
397 activation associated with both positive, negative and neutral stimuli. This ground-breaking
398 research, although incredibly time and labour intensive, offers novel insights into the
399 functioning of the canine brain, striving to achieve the level of understanding already seen in
400 human medical research but in a relatively non-invasive environment.

401

402 **Future directions**

403 The role of the rapporteurs was to absorb and digest the content of the presentations
404 and their subsequent general discussions over the entire conference period and to synthesise
405 these threads into formalised action points that could be used to direct future endeavours in
406 canine behavioral science. These recommendations were presented to the attendees at the
407 closing session of the conference. This paper presents an ordered list beginning with the most
408 urgent needs as perceived by the rapporteurs based on their personal opinions and also and the
409 responses from the audience of the conference. These recommendations are given in the spirit
410 of ‘thought provokers’ that require attention and discussion, rather than an absolute set of ‘12
411 Behavioral Commandments’.

412 **1. Single accepted standard nomenclature**

413 There is a clear need for a comprehensive, agreed upon and common-sense nomenclature on
414 companion animal behavior that is universally accepted among veterinary behavioral experts.
415 Since behavioral terms are often complexly interlinked, such a system would need to be
416 hierarchical, offering the options of parent-child relationships between terms (for example,
417 *fear-aggression-conspecific* might be a child term to *fear-aggression* as a parent term, and
418 *aggression* as a grandparent term). Extensive discussions may be required to reach consensus
419 on terminology and hierarchies; however, this system does not have to be static and can be
420 routinely reviewed and updated based on new evidence. The proposed behavioral
421 nomenclature could be stand-alone and modelled on existing veterinary systems or could be
422 built as an extension of a current veterinary system such as the VeNom Coding group (The
423 VeNom Coding Group 2015). Term names could be supplemented with agreed case
424 definitions to standardise the output of disparate behavioral research projects across the globe
425 and over time.

426

427 **2. Agreed upon, validated measurement systems**

428 Specifications for reliable and well-defined behavioral measurement systems and for
429 reference ranges describing both normal and abnormal results across a wide variety of breeds
430 and locations were identified as a current deficit in canine behavioral science. Such systems
431 need to be extensively peer reviewed and published, and to be thoroughly validated across

432 locations, breeds and contexts. An open-access repository could be built to store these
433 methodologies, their validation credentials, and details of their use in both the clinical and
434 research setting, along with contact information for previous users who were willing to share
435 their experiences. Once a system was deemed trustworthy, this could then be used
436 consistently across studies to facilitate comparison between studies and to assist with meta-
437 analyses and systematic review. An online forum could be established to share and build on
438 experiences with extant measurement systems and reduce the trend towards creation of
439 numerous novel but unvalidated systems which is time and resource wasteful.

440

441 **3. Multi-disciplinary: experts from many fields**

442 The diversity of backgrounds, specialisms and nationalities of the attendees at this conference
443 is testament to the breadth of interests that already exist in canine behavioral science. Building
444 formal links between these various groups for genuine collaborative research is likely to
445 substantially accelerate the pace and quality of scientific understanding in this field. Dogs are
446 potentially excellent models for human behavioral and psychiatric states, are naturally
447 occurring in contrast to genetically induced rodent models, and may greatly enhance
448 translational medicine. Research funding is becoming increasingly difficult to secure but
449 financial and intellectual economies of scale make collaborative projects more attractive to
450 funding bodies. Small sample size frequently limits the power of behavioral studies and
451 collaborative, multi-centre research efforts are a potential solution to this problem. Finally, no
452 one person or research group can necessarily hold all the skills required for effectively
453 executing a multidisciplinary canine behavior project: sharing the responsibilities across
454 groups has the potential to bring out the best from each group and ensure higher quality and
455 timelier research results.

456

457 **4. When a breed is not a breed**

458 Breeds are not always a single standard entity but in reality may be split across space, time
459 and function. Different sub-populations of breeds exist within breeds across different
460 countries and even across different areas within countries; the Labrador Retriever that exists

461 in Australia is not necessarily the same as that which exist in the US. Breeds change over time
462 in response to changing public demands, breeds standards and breeding pressures so that the
463 results of a breed behavioral study completed some years ago may no longer apply to
464 individuals of the current breed. Even breeds that are close in space and time are likely to
465 have subgroups that are bred, socialised and used very differently with consequently very
466 disparate behavioral attributes. For example, pedigree dogs that are retained in the
467 breeding/show world may differ behaviorally to those released into the pet population. The
468 message here is that such variation needs to be recognised and taken into account in study design
469 and interpretation.

470

471 **5. Why we are doing the research**

472 It was apparent from the wide range of speakers at the conference that there are often very
473 different reasons for conducting canine behavioral research. While these differences should in
474 theory not affect the essence of the study results, in reality they may impact greatly on the
475 study design, sample selection, data collected and direction of data analysis. Research can be
476 primarily directed towards improving dog welfare but can also be focused on therapy, basic
477 science or translational medicine. Because of differing target impact areas (e.g. for the dog,
478 for man, for science, for personal gain), studies ostensibly covering similar topics and samples
479 can report quite differently and lead to confusion. It is important to clearly define and state the
480 motivation behind behavioral research and emphasise that the findings should be viewed in
481 this light. The same data may be useful for multiple purposes, and if a study is well designed
482 with these multi-goals in mind, it may be able to increase the number of research questions
483 that can be answered.

484

485 **6. What's in a diagnosis?**

486 High quality clinical behavioral research generally emphasises the importance of acquiring
487 'definitive' diagnoses in canine behavioral cases before proceeding to explore other
488 dimensions within these animals e.g. genetics or other biomarkers to be linked with diagnosis.
489 The "diagnosis" in some cases may be perceived as a subjective label applied by the canine

490 behaviorist, and the underlying emotional state that leads to the behaviors in question (e.g.
491 aggression towards unfamiliar dogs) may vary between dogs. As it is the emotional state, and
492 not the individually exhibited behaviors, that require treatment, diagnoses based on these
493 emotional states are preferable. Further discussion is required to agree upon what constitutes a
494 diagnosis, and whether research based on individual behaviors is appropriate, or whether
495 moves towards ‘endophenotypes’ are more appropriate.

496

497 **7. Estimated breeding value (EBV)**

498 Historically, canine behavioral research projects have largely been carried out on individual
499 disorders in individual animals. However, the results are often applied to populations which
500 are complex composites of genetics and the environment. Such complexity is an essential part
501 of biological existence and should be embraced in study design. The application of EBV can
502 assist in overcoming some of the limitations of missing data on individuals within a study
503 group by proportionately taking information from related individuals into account. EBV
504 additionally can investigate different attributes at the same time. This optimises breeding
505 selection based on multiple characteristics, and hence reduces the risk of unintentionally
506 selecting for other problems when trying to ameliorate the target condition.

507

508 **8. Use appropriate techniques: genetic, statistical**

509 Modern scientific method uses an ever-widening array of techniques and tools to better
510 understand the world around us. Although canine behavioral science is a relatively new
511 science, it is important to develop solid scientific foundations for the methods employed. We
512 can learn much from our medical counterparts who are expert in human psychiatric and
513 neurological disease and may have insights into methods and concepts that will enhance our
514 canine scientific endeavours. It is also important to ‘borrow’ knowledge from other
515 specialities that may not necessarily be behaviorally-focussed by building collegiate links and
516 sharing ideas. These specialities can include geneticists, neurologists, statisticians,
517 epidemiologists and information technologists.

518

519 9. Beware behavioral indices

520 Many behavioral studies collect comprehensive data across a spectrum of clinical features.
521 These data are then subjected to sophisticated data reduction techniques (e.g. principal
522 components analysis (PCA) and factor analysis (FA)) that identify combinations of variables
523 which tend to co-occur within a dataset, and derive indices from these behavior. While these
524 'index' behavioral measures may be statistically sound, given sufficient sample sizes, they
525 often describe contrived behavioral composites that make limited biological 'real-life' sense,
526 relate expressly to the originating study and are difficult to evaluate in clinical practice. We
527 should avoid taking these indices on face value, based on the interpretation of the study
528 authors; new indices should be critically appraised for their content, and compared across
529 populations and to existing measures.

530

531 10. The power of linking data and databases

532 Aristotle has been quoted as saying that 'the whole is greater than the sum of its parts' and he
533 could just as well have been talking about modern databases. While individual datasets may
534 hold substantial depths of information on their caseloads, cross-referencing between datasets
535 enables the powers of matrices to multiply rather than just to sum the data. Such linking of
536 databases vastly increases the power of research to understand complex topics. However,
537 successful database linking requires planning during study design and a collaborative mind-
538 set between research groups. Collection of unique identifiers that are used consistently across
539 studies is essential for linkage; microchip codes may be the most useful here although tattoo
540 codes or kennel club registration numbers are other possibilities.

541

542 11. Need good epidemiology and statistical principles integrated into behavior research 543 programmes

544 Behavioral research offers huge potential for veterinary behaviorists to improve the quality of
545 lives of their patients but effective research projects must also encompass high quality
546 epidemiological and statistical principles. Veterinary epidemiology has progressed
547 enormously over the past twenty years and an experienced epidemiologist and/or statistician

548 should now be a key member of the team in all behavioral research programmes, playing an
549 active role from the project conception to ensure that the research question, study design and
550 planned statistical analysis are appropriate. Seeking epidemiological or statistical assistance
551 for the first time at the point of data analysis may result in missed opportunities at best, or
552 failure of the study at worst.

553

554 **12. Second Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference?**

555 The First Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference brought together wide-ranging opinions,
556 groups and current research, and provided a forum for mapping out the future of veterinary
557 behavioral science. After a requisite period (perhaps two years) for the various actors to
558 assimilate and act upon the novel ideas presented at the conference, a Second Canine
559 Behavior and Genetics Conference to share the results of these novel projects would be highly
560 beneficial. Such a meeting would galvanise collaborations born at the first conference while
561 also giving opportunity to forge new unions.

562

563 **Conclusions**

564 The First Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference brought together wide-ranging opinion
565 and stakeholders in the world of canine behavioral science. It is hoped that this will result in
566 productive collaboration and more effective scientific method and discovery. This paper
567 represents one achieved outcome by synthesising the conference content into some directions
568 for future action by condensing twelve routes towards improving future canine behavioral
569 science and understanding.

570

571

572 **Tables**

573 Table 1. Oral presentations made at the First Canine Behavior and Genetics Conference in
574 London 2015.

575

576

577

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

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583

584 **Conflict of interest statement**

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587

588 **Ethical approval**

589 This paper did not require ethical approval.

590

591 **Authorship**

592 The idea for this paper was conceived by Karen Overall, Andrew Higgins, Dan O'Neill and
593 Rowena Packer. The paper was written by Dan O'Neill and Rowena Packer.

594

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692

693

Table 1

Topic areas and specific presentations	Speaker and country of work
<i>Genetics and genomics</i>	
Dissecting genetic and non-genetic influences on dog personality	Pam Weiner <i>UK</i>
The genetics of complex traits – applying theory to selection on behaviour	Tom Lewis <i>UK</i>
Genetic evaluation of behaviour in dogs	Per Arvelius <i>Sweden</i>
Complex genetics in the domestic dog	Heidi Parker <i>US</i>
Using breed splits to explore the genomics of canine working behaviour	Claire Wade <i>Australia</i>
Canine opioid receptor gene polymorphism and behaviour associations	Enikő Kubinyi <i>Hungary</i>
<i>Sensory processing</i>	
Middle Latency Response testing for auditory cognition in canines	Peter Scheifele <i>US</i>
The genetics of canine olfaction	Francis Galiber <i>France</i>
<i>Evolution</i>	
Domestic dog evolution and genes under selection in the dog genome	Robert Wayne <i>US</i>
Nature and nurture – how different environmental conditions interact with the behaviour of the maturing dog	Erik Wilsson <i>Sweden</i>
<i>Phenotyping</i>	
Measuring working dog performance	Nicola Rooney <i>UK</i>
Performance assessments in dogs - determining 'good' behavioral measures and phenotypes	Bjorn Forkman <i>Germany</i>
Canine anxiety genetics: challenges of phenotyping complex traits	Katriina Tiira <i>Finland</i>
Canine behavioral phenotypes: what makes a crisp phenotype and where does trouble lie?	Karen Overall <i>US</i>
<i>Novel research possibilities</i>	
The contribution of nuclear medicine in the research of canine behaviour disorders	Kathelijne Peremans <i>Belgium</i>
Exploring future possibilities for studies in canine anxiety disorders	Niwako Ogata <i>US</i>
Regional brain activity in awake unrestrained dogs	Peter Cook <i>US</i>