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Hot dogs: Thermography in the assessment of stress in dogs (Canis familiaris)-A pilot study

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*Original*

Hot dogs: Thermography in the assessment of stress in dogs (Canis familiaris)-A pilot study / Travain, Tiziano; Colombo, Elisa Silvia; Heinzl, Eugenio; Bellucci, Danilo; Prato Previde, Emanuela; Valsecchi, Paola Maria. - In: JOURNAL OF VETERINARY BEHAVIOR. - ISSN 1558-7878. - 10:1(2015), pp. 17-23. [10.1016/j.jveb.2014.11.003]

*Availability:*

This version is available at: 11381/2798927 since: 2015-12-16T15:19:12Z

*Publisher:*

Elsevier USA

*Published*

DOI:10.1016/j.jveb.2014.11.003

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note finali coverpage

(Article begins on next page)

Elsevier Editorial System(tm) for Journal of Veterinary Behavior: Clinical Applications  
and Research

Manuscript Draft

Manuscript Number:

Title: Hot dogs: thermography in the assessment of stress in dogs (Canis familiaris) - A pilot study

Article Type: Original Research Papers (Regular Paper)

Keywords: Dog; Stress; Veterinary practice; Behavior; Infrared thermography

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*Highlights*

- We applied IRT technique to measure stress response in dogs.
- Eye temperature and rectal temperature positively correlate in dogs.
- IRT detects eye temperature changes in dogs during stress situations.



**UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI  
DI PARMA**

**DIPARTIMENTO DI NEUROSCIENZE  
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Prof. Karen Overall  
School of Medicine  
University of Pennsylvania  
Glen Mills, PA  
USA

May 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2014

Dear prof. Overall,

on behalf of myself and all co-authors, please find enclosed our manuscript entitled “Hot dogs: thermography in the assessment of stress in dogs (*Canis familiaris*) – A pilot study”. This study represents the first application in dogs of a non-invasive technique (infrared thermographic camera) to assess eye temperature during a stressful situation and it is of potential interest for researchers involved in developing experimental protocols aimed at enhancing animal welfare.

We would like to submit it to the Journal of Veterinary Behavior: Clinical Applications and Research for publication. The manuscript has not been submitted elsewhere and guidelines for use of animals in research have been followed.

Thank you for your kind attention.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Tiziano Travain'.

Tiziano Travain

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1 **Hot dogs: thermography in the assessment of stress in dogs (*Canis familiaris*) – A pilot study**

2

3

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23 **Abstract**

24 Infrared thermography (IRT) represents a novel, non-invasive method to investigate stress responses in  
25 animals. Despite the large existing bibliography about stress responses in dogs, the potential use of IRT in  
26 assessing dogs' stress reactions has not been investigated so far. This study evaluates the usefulness of IRT to  
27 assess dogs' emotional responses to an unpleasant and stressful event. Following a preliminary test, aimed to  
28 evaluate the correlation between eye-temperature and rectal temperature in dogs in a stressful situation, a sample  
29 of 14 adult healthy dogs was observed during a standardised veterinary examination, carried out by an unfamiliar  
30 veterinarian in the presence of their owner. Dogs' behavior and eye temperature were recorded before the start of  
31 the veterinary visit, during and after the clinical examination. Dogs' level of activity and stress related behaviors  
32 varied across the different phases of the visit; interestingly, dogs showed an increase in eye temperature during  
33 the examination phase, compared to both pre-examination and post examination phases, despite they had a  
34 significant decrease in their level of activity. However, it also emerged that the thermographic camera, although  
35 remote and non-invasive, was at some extent disturbing for dogs, as they showed avoidance behaviors, averting  
36 gaze and/or turning their head, exclusively when the thermographic camera was oriented to them. Overall results  
37 suggest that IRT may represent a useful tool to investigate emotional psychogenic stress in dogs. Nevertheless  
38 further research is needed to establish the specificity and sensivity of IRT in this context and to assess  
39 how different dogs' characteristics, breed, previous experience and the nature and severity of the  
40 stressor could influence the magnitude and type of the stress response.

41  
42 *Keywords:* Dog; Stress; Veterinary practice; Behavior; Infrared thermography

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Infrared thermography (IRT) is a passive, remote and non-invasive method that measures surface temperature,  
45 detecting infrared radiation emitted by a subject and providing a pictorial representation of body temperature in  
46 animals (Speakman and Ward, 1998; Stewart et al., 2005). Several studies have shown that IRT provides  
47 information on an animal's health: it allows detecting inflammatory conditions and infections (Berry et al., 2003;  
48 Fonseca et al., 2006; Schwartzkopf-Genswein and Stookey, 1997) and represents a useful method to assess acute  
49 and chronic stress in laboratory (e.g. Ludwig et al., 2007) and farm animals (e.g. Stewart et al., 2007, 2008). In  
50 fact, there is evidence of a close relationship between stress and the metabolic system: when an animal becomes  
51 stressed the HPA axis is activated and, as a result of increases in catecholamines and cortisol levels as well as  
52 blood flow responses, it will produce changes in the animal's heat production and loss (Schaefer et al., 2002). A  
53 condition known as "stress-induced hyperthermia" (SIH), or a relative short-lasting rise in core body temperature  
54 induced by stress, have been reported in rodents, baboons, sheep, impalas, chimpanzees and humans (Cook et  
55 al., 2001; Groenink et al., 1994; Olivier et al., 2003; Vinkers et al., 2010).

56  
57 A number of studies based on IRT have shown that the temperature of the eye is a good indicator of  
58 stress (e.g. Cook et al., 2001, 2006; Pavlidis et al., 2002). In particular, the temperature of small areas around the  
59 posterior border of the eyelid and the lacrimal caruncle, which have rich capillary beds innervated by the  
60 sympathetic system, respond to changes in blood flow (Pavlidis et al, 2002; Stewart, 2008). The lachrymal  
61 caruncle is an anatomical area very sensitive to both pain and stress events affecting an individual, and changes  
62 in its temperature have been attributed both to the sympathetic response of the autonomic nervous system (ANS)  
63 reaction and to HPA activation (Cook et al., 2001; Stewart, 2008; Valera et al., 2012). The sympathetic branch of  
64 the ANS responds rapidly, preparing the individual for the "fight or flight" reaction (Cannon, 1929; Koolhaas et  
65 al., 2010), whereas the parasympathetic system is predominant during passive reactions such as freezing (Alm,  
66 2004; Romero, 2010); the HPA axis activation is more delayed and is particularly sensitive to psychogenic  
67 stressors not producing physical damage (Gabry et al., 2003; Johnson et al., 1996; Toates, 2001). Stewart and  
68 colleagues (2007, 2008) found that in cattle, during the first few seconds of a stressor presentation (acute phase),

69 eye temperature dropped rapidly, likely because of a sympathetic response (peripheral vasoconstriction);  
70 however, if the stressor persists for a longer time, the HPA axis induces a cortisol release, that can be maintained  
71 from minutes to hours (chronic phase), causing several thermogenic reactions in tissue metabolism (Valera et al.,  
72 2012). Therefore, HPA axis response to stressors, along with peripheral vasodilatation due to the  
73 parasympathetic activation that follows the initial sympathetic response, can produce an increase in eye  
74 temperature (Cook et al., 2001; Valera et al., 2012). Recently Johnson and colleagues (2011) found a good  
75 correlation between thermographic eye temperature and rectal temperature in ponies, suggesting that eye  
76 temperature can be a valid index to core body temperature and its variation, and could be useful also to detect  
77 stress-induced-hyperthermia in animals. Similarly, Vianna and Carrive (2005) reported that in fear-conditioned  
78 rats' eye and body temperature increased. There is also some evidence indicating that eye temperature increases  
79 when there is a psychological component of stress, such as in response to the anticipation of catheterization  
80 procedure in cows (Stewart et al., 2007) and lying in humans (Pavlidis et al., 2002).

81

82 Dogs are widespread companion animals that highly depend on humans for both health and care, and  
83 several studies have investigated stress responses in dogs in a variety of situations, using both behavioral and  
84 physiological variables (Beerda et al., 1997, 1998; Fallani et al., 2007; Hennessy et al., 2013; Palestini et al.,  
85 2005). However, as far as we know, IRT has been considered as a diagnostic technique in dogs only recently  
86 (Biondi et al., 2013), and it has never been used to investigate dogs' stress reactions so far. Veterinary  
87 examination has been reported to be stressful for most dogs (Döring et al., 2009), with dogs exhibiting fear  
88 reactions especially during the clinical examination, but also showing anticipatory fear reactions prior to entering  
89 the veterinary clinic for being examined (Stanford, 1981). The aim of the present study was to evaluate the  
90 potentialities of infra-red thermography in the investigation of dogs' psychological stress in veterinary practice.  
91 After a pre-test carried out on a sample of dogs and aimed to evaluate the correlation between eye-temperature  
92 and rectal temperature in dogs, a different sample of dogs was tested during a standardised veterinary  
93 examination, carried out by an unfamiliar veterinarian in the presence of their owner, and their behavior and eye  
94 temperature variations were recorded before the visit, during and after the clinical examination. The examination

95 aim was to induce a negative psychological state in dogs, and thus it consisted of routine and not painful  
96 assessments of dogs' health.

97

## 98 **2. Pre-test**

99 There is evidence of a relationship between thermographic eye temperature and body temperature and its  
100 variation, and it has been suggested that eye temperature could represent an useful tool to assess stress in animals  
101 (Johnson et al., 2011; Vianna and Carrive, 2005): however, to our knowledge, there are not studies on dogs  
102 stress responses based on IRT; thus, in the present pre-test whether a correlation between eye-temperature and  
103 rectal temperature exists also in dogs.

104

### 105 *2.1 Materials and methods*

#### 106 *2.1.1 Subjects*

107 The subjects were 20 healthy dogs (eight females, 12 males) of different breeds and body size, whose  
108 ages ranged from 7 months to 15 years (mean = 9.0 years, SD = 4.67 years). The sample included 16 pure-breed  
109 dogs (one Pinscher toy size, one Pug, two Dachshund miniature size, one West Highland White Terrier, two Jack  
110 Russel Terrier, three Poodles medium size, one Golden Retriever, one Czechoslovakian Wolfdog, one Italian  
111 Pointer, one Cane Corso, one Spanish Galgo, one English Setter) and four medium size mixed-breed dogs. All  
112 the dogs were kept for companionship and lived within the human household. They were accustomed to being  
113 taken to the veterinary; none of them was reported to be aggressive during veterinary examinations. All the  
114 owners were informed about the aims of the study and the procedure, and their informed consent was obtained.  
115 None of these dogs took part in the subsequent test.

116

#### 117 *2.1.2 Procedure*

118 The study was conducted in a veterinary clinic in Milan, Italy (D.B. Veterinary Clinic). The dogs were  
119 visited in opening hours, during a routine booster vaccination. The pre-test consisted of a unique phase in which  
120 dogs' rectal and eye temperature were measured.

121

122           The owner and the dog went into the examination room, the veterinarian lifted the dog on the  
123 examination table and measured rectal temperature. Dogs were not physically restrained , so the owner assisted  
124 the vet holding his dog if necessary, preventing it from jumping down from the table and calming it as needed.  
125 The entire examination lasted 2 minutes. The sequence of events was standardised and the examination  
126 circumstances (handling, room-features, equipment used) were always the same.

127

### 128 *2.1.3 Data collection*

129           The thermographic infrared images were captured by a certified technician (E.H.) using a portable IRT  
130 camera (AVIO TVS500® camera, NEC, Japan) with standard optic system, and analyzed with IRTAnalyzer  
131 Software® (Grayess, FL, USA). To calibrate the camera reflectivity temperature, samples were taken and  
132 emissivity was set at 0.97. Several images per dog were collected during each of the 3 phases of the experiment,  
133 to select the images that provided the most optimal operating conditions for analysis (90° angle and 1 m of  
134 distance). A total of 62 (per dog: mean  $\pm$  SE = 3.10  $\pm$  0.18; minimum = 2; maximum = 4) images were analyzed  
135 evaluating the emission of eyes' lachrymal sites. The maximum temperature for each lachrymal site was  
136 determined using an Instantaneous Field of View of 1.68 mm at 1 m of distance, within an oval area traced  
137 around the eye, including the eyeball and approximately 1 cm surrounding the outside of the eyelids. Only  
138 images perfectly on focus were used (Fig. 1). To optimize the accuracy of the thermographic image and to  
139 reduce sources of noise, before every work session the same image of a Lambert surface was taken to define the  
140 radiance emission and to nullify the effect of sunlight or other surface reflections on tested animals. Using this  
141 method, it is possible to control for room temperature and for other external artefacts.

142           Rectal temperature was taken by D.B. with a normal veterinary rectal thermometer.

143

### 144 *2.1.4 Statistical analysis*

145           To assess if there is a correlation between mean rectal temperature and mean eye temperature, given  
146 normal distribution and number of subjects of the sample, Pearson correlation was calculated.

147

148 *2.2 Results*

149 The mean rectal temperature of the sample of dogs was 38.57 °C (SD = 0.43 °C), while the mean eye  
150 temperature was 36.18 °C (SD = 0,68 °C). Pearson correlation between eye and rectal temperature was  $r =$   
151 0.661,  $p = 0.002$ .

152

153 *2.3 Discussion*

154 This test aimed at assessing the existence of a correlation between eye temperature measured with  
155 infrared thermography (IRT) and rectal temperature in dogs. To reach this goal we took infrared pictures while  
156 rectal temperature was taken during a short standardized veterinary visit.

157 Johnson and colleagues (2011) found a correlation between thermographic eye temperature and rectal  
158 temperature in ponies: further evidence that eye temperature can be a valid index to core body temperature and  
159 its variation comes from Schaefer et al.'s study (2007), showing that infrared thermography was able to identify  
160 calves at early stages of illness, and from Dunbar et al.'s work (2009), reporting no significant differences in  
161 body temperature and eye temperatures of well-focused thermograms in mule deers.

162 Our data are in line with previous findings in the literature, and indicate that eye temperature is a good  
163 indicator of internal temperature also in dogs: therefore we used it for the following test.

164

165 **3. Test**

166

167 *3.1 Subjects*

168 The subjects were 14 adult and clinically healthy dogs (nine females, five males) of different body size,  
169 whose ages ranged from 1.5 to 11 years (mean = 5.8 years, SD = 2.54 years). The sample included nine pure-  
170 breed dogs (one Poodle toy size, two Fox Terrier, two Jack Russell Terrier, one Dachshund miniature size, one  
171 Golden Retriever, one Bergamasco Shepherd and one Great Anglo-French Hound) and five mixed-breed (two  
172 small-medium, one medium, one Alaskan Malamute mix and one Siberian Husky mix). All the dogs were kept

173 for companionship and lived within the human household. All dogs had previous experience of being taken to  
174 the veterinary and, as reported by their owners, they clearly disliked this kind of situation; however, none of  
175 them was reported to be aggressive during veterinary examinations. All the owners were informed about the  
176 aims of the study and the procedure, and their informed consent was obtained.

177

### 178 *3.2 Procedure*

179 The study was conducted in the same location and under the same condition as the pre-test. The  
180 procedure consisted of three consecutive phases in which dogs' behavior was recorded and eye temperature was  
181 measured.

182

183 Phase 1, *pre-examination*. After the dog and the owner entered the veterinary clinic waiting room, the  
184 owner was asked to sit quietly keeping the dog on leash next to him for 10 minutes, pretending to wait his turn.

185

186 Phase 2, *examination*. This phase was a standardised general examination. The owner and the dog went  
187 into the examination room, the veterinarian lifted the dog on the examination table and performed the following  
188 checks: conjunctiva, ears and oral mucosa, palpation of the dog's abdomen, examination of lymph nodes and  
189 heart auscultation with a stethoscope. Dogs were not physically restrained, but the owner assisted the vet holding  
190 the dog if necessary, thus preventing his/her dog from jumping down the table and calming it. The entire  
191 examination lasted between 4 to 5 minutes (average duration = 262.22 s ± 17.86 SE). During this phase the  
192 sequence of events was standardised and the examination circumstances (handling, room-features, equipment  
193 used) were always the same.

194

195 Phase 3, *post examination*: the veterinarian put the dog down to the ground and sat at his desk with the  
196 owner, talking about the dog for 5 minutes. Then the dog and the owner left the examination room and the clinic.

197

### 198 *3.3 Data collection*

199 The thermographic infrared images were captured following the same procedures used in the pre-test  
200 (Fig. 1). A total of 546 (per dog: mean  $\pm$  SE = 39.00  $\pm$  4.20; minimum = 17; maximum = 66) images were  
201 analyzed evaluating the emission of eyes' lachrymal sites.

202 Dogs' behavior during the three different phases was recorded using a camcorder (Leica Dicomar,  
203 Panasonic, Japan) placed on tripod and behavioral data were scored from videos using Solomon Coder beta®  
204 12.09.04 (ELTE TTK, Hungary). The ethogram consisted of two main categories of mutually exclusive  
205 behaviors, and in particular we focused on: 1) dogs' level of activity, namely whether the subject was engaged in  
206 observable physical activity, like walking, jumping or being agitated while standing on the table (dynamic), or  
207 was sitting, standing or lying down and, therefore, movement was almost absent or very limited, i.e. head or ears  
208 movements (static); 2) stress/fear related signals which included: shake off, yawning, nose/lip-licking, paw-lift,  
209 mouth opening/closing, panting, posture change, freezing and avoidance (see Table 1 for a description) (Beerda  
210 et al., 1997, 1998). In addition, to evaluate whether the mere fact of directing the thermographic camera  
211 towards the dogs' muzzle could affect their stress displays, during coding each behavioral element was  
212 accompanied by a marker indicating the presence of the thermographic camera. The dogs' behavior was coded  
213 from videos by one of the authors (E.S.C) whereas a second independent coder (T.T.) analyzed 20% of the data:  
214 Spearman correlations were calculated for the main behaviors (dynamic:  $r = 1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; freezing:  $r = 1$ ,  $P <$   
215  $0.001$ ; panting:  $r < 1$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ; avoidance:  $r = 0.95$ ,  $P = 0.004$ ; stress/fear signals:  $r = 0.986$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; as  
216 pointed out in Table 1, stress/fear signals were pooled for purpose of analysis).

217

#### 218 *2.4 Statistical analysis*

219 Differences in dogs' degree of activity, stress/fear related behaviors and eye temperature in the three  
220 phases were evaluated using non-parametric and two-tailed statistical tests, setting alpha at 0.05. Stress/fear  
221 signals reported in Table 1 were pooled due to their low occurrence, with the exception of avoidance, which  
222 occurred only when the thermographic camera was oriented to the dogs' muzzle, and of panting and freezing,  
223 which were measured as duration. Friedman's ANOVA for ranks with the minimum difference post hoc tests  
224 (Siegel and Castellan, 1988) were run to detect differences among phases in dogs' eye temperature and to

225 evaluate differences among phases in behavior and stress/fear related signals. Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used  
226 to evaluate whether the presence of the thermographic camera affected dogs' behavior. All the statistical  
227 analyses were carried out with SPSS Statistics 21 (IBM, NY, USA).

228

## 229 **4. Results**

### 230 *4.1 Thermographic data*

231 Dogs' eye temperature increased during the examination phase and decreased to pre-examination values  
232 in the post examination phase (Fig. 2). The Friedman's ANOVA showed that the variation in eye temperature  
233 was significant ( $\chi^2 = 8.714$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $P = 0.013$ ), and the post-hoc test revealed a significant difference between  
234 pre-examination and examination phase (minimum  $D = 0.726$ ;  $D = 0.929$ ,  $P = 0.05$ ), and between examination  
235 and post examination phase (minimum  $D = 0.968$ ,  $D = 1.000$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ).

236

### 237 *4.2 Behavioral data*

238

#### 239 *4.2.1 Comparison of the three phases*

240 Considering the level of activity, there was a significant difference among the three different phases in  
241 the duration of dynamic behavior (Friedman:  $\chi^2 = 16.000$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ): in particular, dogs' activity  
242 significantly decreased in the examination phase (pre examination vs. examination: minimum  $D = 0.968$ ,  $D =$   
243  $1.143$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ; examination vs. post examination: minimum  $D = 0.968$ ,  $D = 1.429$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ; Fig. 2). Dogs  
244 showed stress/fear signals during the whole test (on average 2.40 stress/fear signal per min), with some signals  
245 occurring more than others (Table 2).

246

247 The highest frequency of stress signals, apart from freezing, was observed in Phase 3 (post examination:  
248 2.78 signals/min), whereas the lowest one during Phase 2 (examination phase: 1.68 signals/min). Overall mouth  
249 opening/closing was the most frequent signal of stress (0.78 times/min during the whole test), whereas yawning  
250 and shaking off were the two less frequent signals (both 0.10 times/min). Differences in stress/fear signals

251 frequency across phases were not statistically significant (Friedman:  $\chi^2 = 4.000$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $P = 0.135$ ), except for  
252 avoidance behavior which varied significantly among phases: it dropped during the examination phase,  
253 increasing again in the post examination phase (Friedman:  $\chi^2 = 7.091$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $P = 0.029$ ). Nine dogs (64.3%)  
254 showed panting during the procedure and this behavior occurred for 22.2% of the overall time, being present in  
255 Phases 1, 2 and 3 on average for 23.8%, 14.1% and 26.1% of the time respectively. Although panting decreased  
256 during the examination phase, differences in this behavior among phases were not significant (Friedman:  $\chi^2 =$   
257  $5.314$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $P = 0.07$ ). Freezing behavior was found exclusively during the examination phase, and seven of  
258 the 14 dogs (50% of the subjects) exhibited this behavior: this may explain why during the examination phase  
259 there was the lowest frequency of stress/fear signals and the lowest duration of panting and dynamic behavior.

260

#### 261 4.2.2. *Effect of thermographic camera*

262 It emerged that throughout the test dogs showed avoidance behavior, i.e. turning the head and/or looking  
263 away, exclusively when the technician oriented the thermal camera towards the dogs' muzzle to capture images  
264 (Fig. 3). Thus, a further analysis was carried out to assess differences in the frequency of dogs' other stress/fear  
265 signals and the duration of freezing and panting behaviors when the thermographic camera was directed vs. not  
266 directed towards the dogs' muzzle. Results revealed a significant difference in the duration of freezing  
267 (Wilcoxon:  $Z = -2.197$ ;  $P = 0.028$ ), a trend in frequency of stress/fear signals (Wilcoxon:  $Z = -1.726$ ;  $P = 0.084$ )  
268 and no significant difference in the duration of panting (Wilcoxon:  $Z = -1.244$ ;  $P = 0.214$ ).

269

## 270 5. Discussion

271 In the current study we aimed to assess whether infrared thermography (IRT) would be a useful tool to  
272 assess stress conditions in dogs. As IRT has not been previously used on dogs to evaluate stress we first assessed  
273 the relationship between eye and body temperature with a test to verify if there is positive correlation between  
274 them. Results of the pre-test support previous findings (Johnson et al., 2011; Vianna and Carrive, 2005)  
275 indicating a relationship between eye temperature and body temperature in dogs. Then we exposed dogs to a  
276 common stressful situation, i.e. the veterinary visit (Döring et al., 2009), and recorded the behavioral signs of

277 stress showed by all the dogs and their eye temperature (i.e. the temperature of small areas around the posterior  
278 border of the eyelid and the lacrimal caruncle). Thermographic data revealed the presence of a peak in dogs' eye  
279 temperature during the clinical examination phase. Since at the behavioral level this phase was characterized by  
280 a clear drop in dynamic behavior and by the occurrence of freezing behavior in half of the subjects, it is unlikely  
281 that the observed increase in eye temperature simply depended on dogs' activity. Rather, it appears that the  
282 temperature increase was associated to a condition of stress due to the visit itself. In this respect our results  
283 confirm those by Döring and colleagues (2009), who found that veterinary examination is perceived as stressful  
284 by dogs. Our procedure did not involve any physical injury to animals, and thus it likely represented a  
285 psychogenic stressor, due to exposure to a novel and threatening environment, unpredictability and lack of  
286 control over external events (Hennessy, 2013; Toates, 2001). Probably, when faced with the veterinarian, dogs  
287 realized that no active strategy was possible and showed a passive behavior, displaying a more static posture  
288 than in the other conditions or even showed freezing. HPA axis is especially sensitive to this kind of  
289 psychogenic stressor and its effects on metabolism, along with peripheral vasodilatation due to parasympathetic  
290 activation during freezing response (Alm, 2004; Romero, 2010), may explain the increase in eye temperature  
291 detected by thermography when dogs were on the examination table (Cook et al., 2001; Valera et al., 2012).  
292 Moreover, all our dogs had previous experiences with veterinary examinations, so the anticipation of an  
293 unpleasant experience could have played a role in the stress response, supporting studies that have linked a  
294 cognitive component of stress with the increase in eye temperature (Pavlidis, 2002; Stewart et al., 2007; Valera  
295 et al., 2012; Vianna and Carrive, 2005). This is the first study using IRT to assess dogs' responses to an  
296 unpleasant situation and, as there is evidence that factors like breed, age and previous experience could influence  
297 the magnitude and type of the stress responses (Clark et al., 1997; D'Eath et al., 2010; Valera et al., 2012),  
298 further studies should be undertaken to highlight the potential role of these variables on eye temperature and  
299 other stress responses in dogs. In particular, it would be interesting to compare dogs with and without previous  
300 experience with veterinary examinations to investigate to what extent anticipation of an unpleasant experience  
301 could have modulated the dogs' stress response and eye temperature.

302 It is worth noting that dogs also exhibited an avoidance reaction only when the thermographic camera  
303 was directly oriented towards their muzzle. In particular, this reaction decreased during the examination phase  
304 and increased again in the post examination phase, exceeding pre examination phase level. Furthermore, freezing  
305 and other stress/fear signals increased when the thermographic camera was directed toward the dogs, and this  
306 suggests that, although remote and non-invasive, it was to some extent disturbing for dogs and that possibly it  
307 determined a short-term sensitisation effect. It is also possible that dogs' avoidance response depended also, at  
308 least in part, on having an unfamiliar human facing them while holding a strange object. There is evidence that  
309 for most non-human species a direct and prolonged duration of gaze is considered as a threatening behavior  
310 (Emery, 2000), and this has been reported also for wolves and dogs (Bradshaw and Nott, 1995; Schenkel, 1967).  
311 It has also been shown that, in the absence of other accompanying signals, a direct and prolonged gaze puts dogs  
312 in an uncomfortable situation (Gácsi et al., 2013; Hernádi et al., 2012; Vas et al., 2005, 2008). Thus, it is  
313 possible that dogs perceived a prolonged photo framing by a static and silent human as a threat and thus reacted  
314 with avoidance, averting gaze and turning the head.

315

## 316 **6. Conclusions**

317 This study represents a first step in the validation of infrared thermography as a method for  
318 measuring stress in dogs. Our results indicate that the IRT is a useful tool to detect temperature  
319 variation due to emotional stress in dogs. Further researches are needed to establish whether sensitivity  
320 of IRT is context-dependent, i.e. emotional distress, or is applicable in positive context as well. The  
321 fact that dogs showed avoidance behaviors, looking away or even turning their head, when the  
322 thermographic camera was focused on them, suggests that it could be a mild stressor per se, and this  
323 aspect deserves further investigation. Furthermore, given the small sample size of this pilot study it is  
324 important to assess how different dogs' characteristics, i.e. breed, age, previous experience, and the  
325 nature and severity of the stressor could influence the magnitude and type of the stress response and  
326 consequently the applicability of the IRT. It would be also interesting to compare IRT with other

327 physiological measures of stress, such as heart rate variability, in order to better understand the  
328 physiological mechanisms that cause changes in dogs' eye temperature.

329

### 330 **Acknowledgements**

331 We thank all the dog owners who kindly participated in this study. Tiziano Travain and Elisa Silvia  
332 Colombo were supported by a doctoral grant from the Università di Parma and Università di Milano  
333 respectively. Partial funding was from Università di Parma (FIL 2012 to P.V.).

334

### 335 **Ethics Statement**

336 No special permission for use of animals (dogs) in non-invasive observational studies is required in Italy.  
337 The relevant ethical committee is the Ethical Committee of the Università degli Studi di Milano. All dog owners  
338 were informed about the nature and scope of the study and their written consent was obtained before the study  
339 was initiated.

340

### 341 **Conflict of interest**

342 None of the authors of this paper has a financial, personal or other relationship with other people or  
343 organizations within three years of beginning this work that could inappropriately influence or bias the content  
344 of the paper.

345

### 346 **Authorship Statement**

347 The idea for the paper was conceived by Tiziano Travain, Elisa Silvia Colombo, Emanuela Prato Previde  
348 and Paola Valsecchi.

349 The experiments were designed by Tiziano Travain, Elisa Silvia Colombo, Eugenio Heinzl, Danilo  
350 Bellucci, Emanuela Prato Previde and Paola Valsecchi.

351 The experiments were performed by Tiziano Travain, Elisa Silvia Colombo, Eugenio Heinzl and Danilo  
352 Bellucci.

353 The data were analyzed by Tiziano Travain, Elisa Silvia Colombo and Eugenio Heinzl.  
354 The paper was written by Tiziano Travain, Elisa Silvia Colombo, Eugenio Heinzl, Emanuela Prato  
355 Previde and Paola Valsecchi.

356

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**Table 1**

Description and measure of mutually exclusive stress/fear related behaviors.

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Frequency/Duration</b>
Panting <sup>a</sup>	Rapid breaths in short gasps	D (% on total time)
Freezing <sup>a</sup>	Complete motionless, without noticeable panting	D (% on total time)
Avoidance <sup>a</sup>	Lateral movement of the head and gaze averting	F (event/min)
Nose/lip licking	Rapid extension and flicking of the tongue on the nose or between the lips	F (event/min)
Paw lift	Raise a paw at a time when it is standing or sitting still	F (event/min)
Posture change	Change posture, from lying on the ground to sitting or standing and vice versa	F (event/min)
Mouth opening/closing	Rapid movements of opening/closing mouth	F (event/min)
Shake off	Rapid movements of body shaking	F (event/min)
Yawning	Involuntary intake of breath through a wide open mouth, not for thermal regulation	F (event/min)

<sup>a</sup> Behaviors singly analyzed, all other behaviors were pooled for purpose of analysis.

**Table 2**

Mean and SE of stress/fear related behaviors in the three phases of the experiment (pre examination, examination and post examination).

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Pre examination</b>	<b>Examination</b>	<b>Post examination</b>	<b>P Value</b>
	<b>mean ± SE</b>	<b>mean ± SE</b>	<b>mean ± SE</b>	
Panting <sup>a</sup>	23.8 ± 7.1%	14.1 ± 6.9%	26.1 ± 7.7%	<i>P</i> = 0.07
Freezing <sup>a</sup>	0.0 ± 0.0%	11.3 ± 4.4%	0.0% ± 0.0%	Not analyzed <sup>b</sup>
Avoidance <sup>a</sup>	0.16 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.06	0.60 ± 0.17	<i>P</i> = 0.029
Nose/lips licking	0.68 ± 0.15	0.38 ± 0.15	0.63 ± 0.15	
Paw raising	0.09 ± 0.04	0.37 ± 0.18	0.11 ± 0.09	
Posture change	0.47 ± 0.08	0.12 ± 0.07	0.56 ± 0.16	
Mouth open/close	0.88 ± 0.29	0.70 ± 0.22	0.58 ± 0.22	<i>P</i> = 0.135
Body Shaking	0.09 ± 0.03	0.00 ± 0.00	0.19 ± 0.04	
Yawning	0.14 ± 0.04	0.00 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.05	

<sup>a</sup> Behaviors singly analyzed, all other behaviors were pooled for purpose of analysis.

<sup>b</sup> Freezing behavior was not statistical analyzed because of it occurred only in examination phase.

Figure1  
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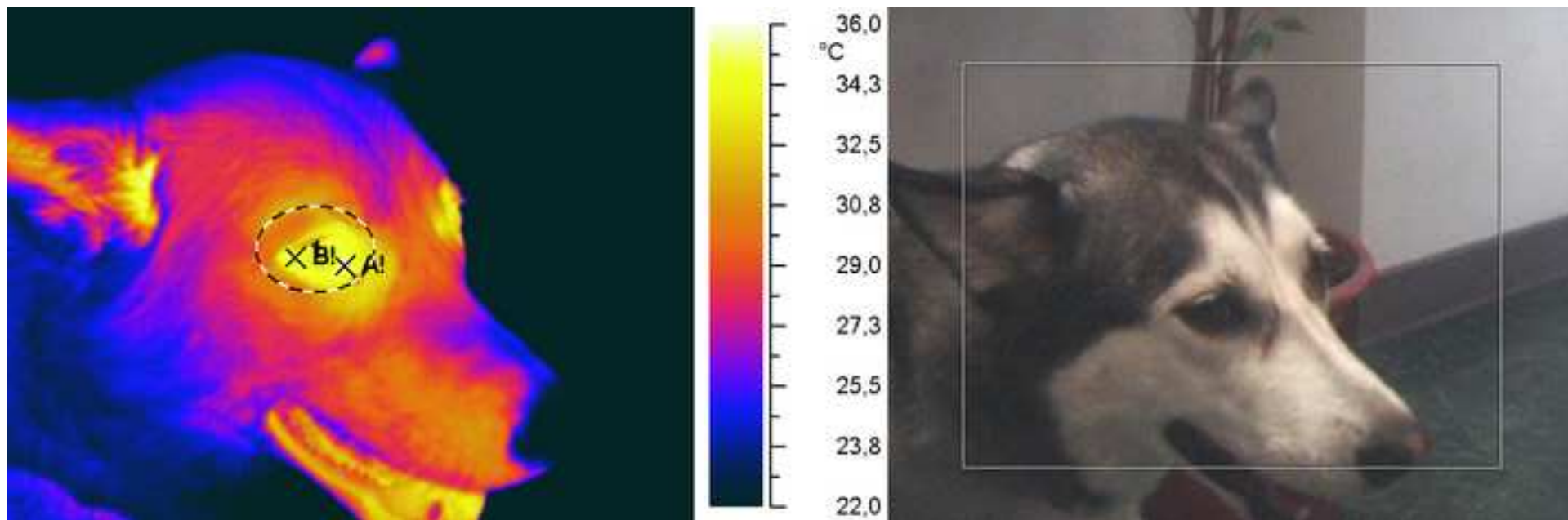


Figure2

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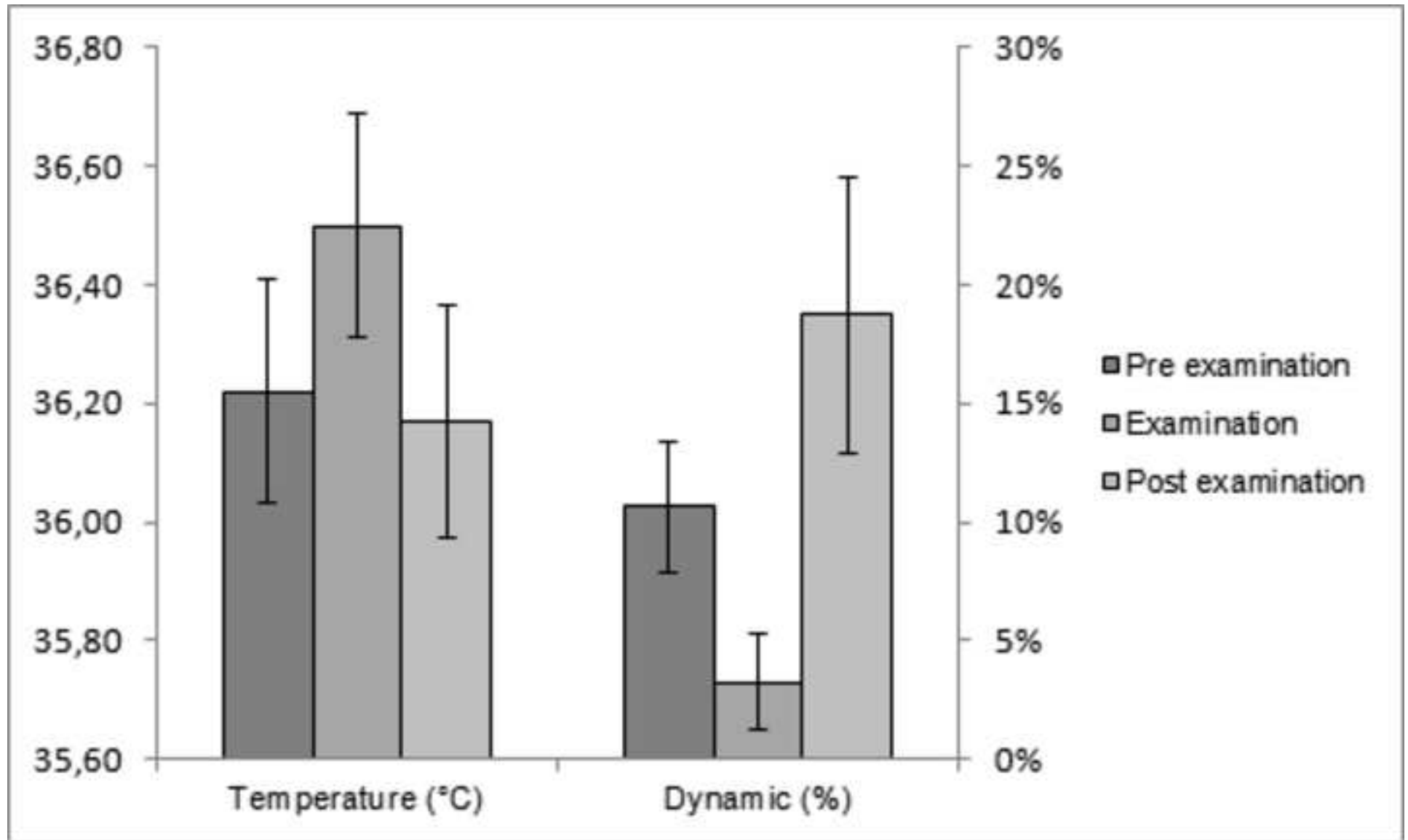
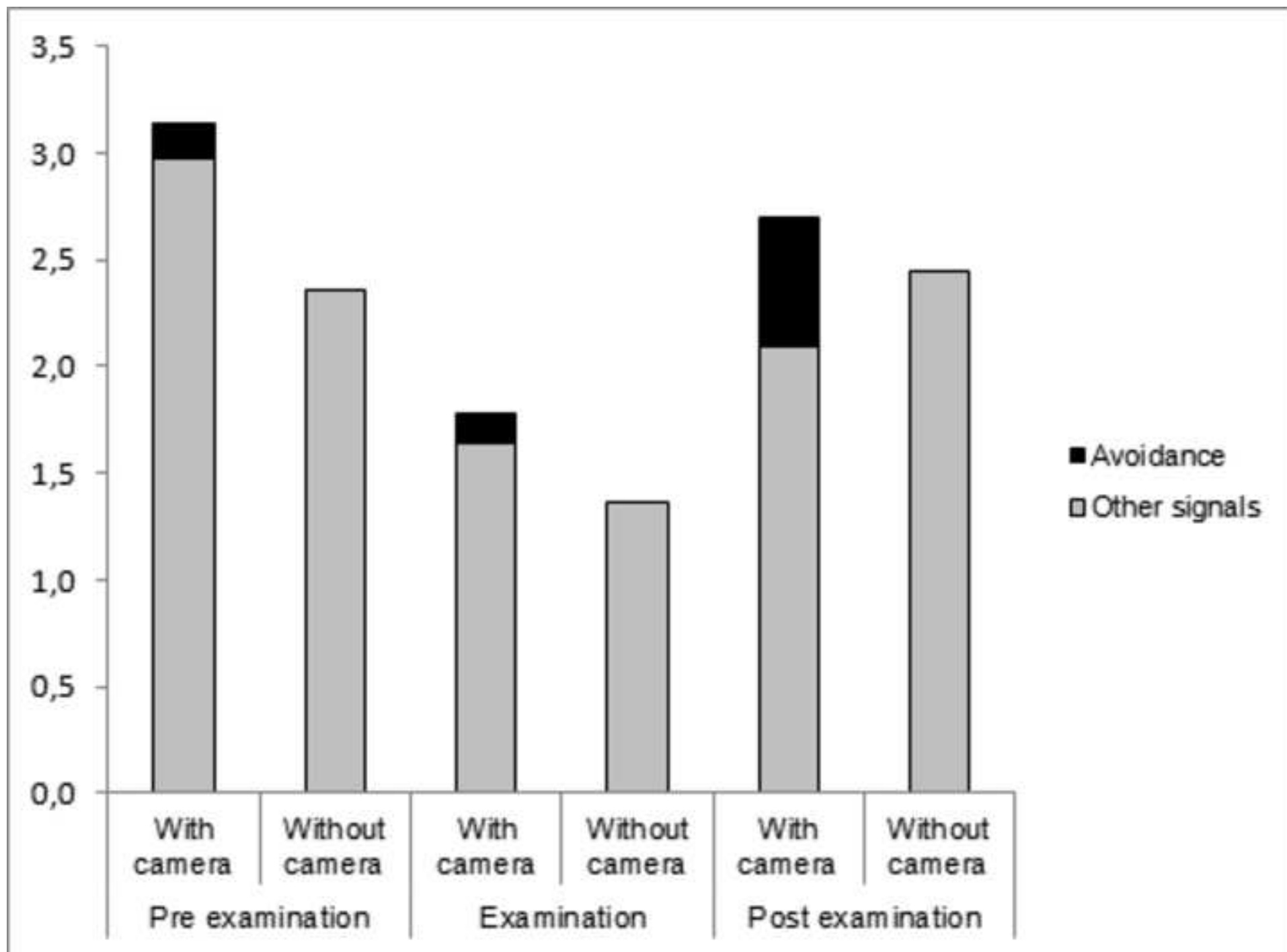


Figure3  
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### Figure captions

Fig. 1. Thermographic image and corresponding picture of Tika, Siberian Husky mix, in the waiting room (Phase 1).

Fig. 2. Eye temperature (°C) and mean percentage of dynamic behavior expressed by the 14 dogs during the three phases of the experiment (pre examination, examination, post examination).

Fig. 3. Mean frequency of avoidance and other stress/fear signals when the thermographic camera was oriented (with camera) or not to the dogs' muzzle (without camera) in the three phases of the experiment (pre examination, examination, post examination).