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6 **Intranasally administered oxytocin affects how dogs (*Canis familiaris*) react to the**
7 **threatening approach of their owner and an unfamiliar experimenter**

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17
18 **Abstract**

19 Fear and aggression are among the most prominent behavioural problems in dogs. Oxytocin
20 has been shown to play a role in regulating social behaviours in humans including fear and
21 aggression. As intranasal oxytocin has been found to have some analogous effects in dogs and
22 humans, here we investigated the effect of oxytocin on dogs' behaviour in the Threatening
23 Approach Test. Dogs, after having received intranasal administration of oxytocin (OT) or
24 placebo (PL), showed the same reaction to an unfamiliar experimenter, but OT pretreated
25 dogs showed a less friendly first reaction compared to the PL group when the owner was
26 approaching. Individual differences in aggression (measured via questionnaire) also
27 modulated dogs' first reaction. Moreover, subjects that received OT looked back more at the
28 human (owner/experimenter) standing behind them during the threatening approach. These

29 results suggest that oxytocin has an effect on dogs' response to the threatening cues of a
30 human, but this effect is in interaction with other factors such as the identity of the
31 approaching human and the 'baseline' aggression of the dogs.

32

33 **Keywords:**

34 aggression; dog; oxytocin; social behaviour; Threatening Approach Test

35

36 **Highlights**

37 Dogs' behaviour towards a threatening human is influenced by intranasal oxytocin.

38 The familiarity of the threatening human (owner/experimenter) has a modulating role.

39 Owner-rated aggression of the dogs affects their reaction to a threatening human.

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Dogs are the most commonly kept pets in the western world (Hart, 1995) and are present in
43 almost every human society worldwide (Serpell, 2003). Thus dogs pose severe economical
44 expenses to our societies not only through veterinary care and the pet food industry, but also
45 because of problem behaviours. Aggression towards and fear from people are among the most
46 commonly reported dog behavioural problems (Diesel et al., 2008; Stephen and Ledger, 2007;
47 van der Borg et al., 1991), and the two are often interrelated (Guy et al., 2001; Klausz et al.,
48 2014; Landsberg et al., 2003; O'Sullivan et al., 2008).

49 It is plausible to assume that oxytocin might have an effect on behaviours related to fear and
50 aggression as this has already been shown in humans. Evidence suggests that oxytocin
51 reduces fear responses to social stimuli in humans (Kirsch et al., 2005) through the
52 attenuation of amygdala activation (Domes et al., 2007), that encourages social approach and
53 affiliation. Thus the oxytocin induced reduction of social fear may have an impact on

54 aggressive behaviour given the link between anxiety levels and aggression. Decreased levels
55 of oxytocin in the cerebrospinal fluid of adult men and women have indeed been associated
56 with higher levels of reported aggressive behaviour (Lee et al., 2009). Oxytocin is generally
57 thought to promote positive behaviours (e.g. trust – Kosfeld et al. 2005; Baumgartner et al.
58 2008, and generosity – Zak et al. 2007; Barraza et al. 2011) and thus is assumed to reduce
59 agonistic behaviours. However, other studies have found that oxytocin can also increase
60 aggression and competition, especially towards out-group members (De Dreu, 2012; De Dreu
61 et al., 2010; Stallen et al., 2012) and it also might increase anxiety to unpredictable threat
62 (Grillon et al., 2013). Importantly it has also been suggested that oxytocin can have
63 differential effects according to subjects' baseline level of aggressive responding (Alcorn et
64 al., 2014).

65 In case of dogs, however, relatively little is known about the effect of oxytocin on social
66 behaviour. Recent research has found that polymorphisms in the oxytocin receptor (OXTR)
67 gene are related to human directed social behaviours in dogs (Kis et al., 2014a) and that
68 intranasally administered oxytocin promotes positive social behaviours toward both humans
69 and conspecifics (Romero et al., 2014). It has also been reported that intranasally
70 administered oxytocin induces positive expectations about ambivalent stimuli in dogs,
71 especially in a social context (Kis et al., 2015), enhances dogs' use of human pointing
72 gestures (Oliva et al., 2015), and increases gazing behaviour of female dogs to their owners in
73 a neutral situation (Nagasawa et al., 2015). However, no study has yet investigated the effect
74 of intranasal oxytocin on dogs' behaviour in negatively valenced situations.

75 Based on these previous results our aim in the current study was to investigate the effect of
76 intranasal oxytocin on dogs' response to human behaviour cues of threat. In order to do that
77 we applied the Threatening Approach Test (validated by Vas et al., 2008, 2005) previously
78 used to test coping styles in police dogs (Horváth et al., 2007), aggression in shelter dogs (Kis

79 et al., 2014c) and to assess the dogs' ability to use the owner as a secure base (Gácsi et al.,
80 2013). We also aimed to test the effect of group-belonging (familiarity of the interactants),
81 thus dog were approached threateningly by both the owner (in-group partner) and an
82 unfamiliar experimenter (out-group partner). Subjects' baseline aggressiveness towards
83 people was assessed by means of a questionnaire (Jones, 2008).

84

85 **2. Subjects and methods**

86 *2.1. Ethical statement*

87 Research was done in accordance with the Hungarian regulations on animal experimentation
88 and the Guidelines for the use of animals in research described by the Association for the
89 Study Animal Behaviour (ASAB). Ethical approval was obtained from the National Animal
90 Experimentation Ethics Committee (Ref No. XIV-I-001/531-4-2012).

91 *2.2. Subjects*

92 Thirty-six pet dogs (older than a year, mean age \pm SD: 4.7 \pm 2.6 years; 12 intact & 8 neutered
93 males, 6 intact and 10 spayed females) from various breeds (16 mongrels and 20 purebreds
94 from 14 different breeds: Belgian Shepherd, Black Russian Terrier, Border Collie, Boxer,
95 Bulldog, Central Asian Shepherd Dog, Golden Retriever, Norwich Terrier, Nova Scotia
96 Duck Tolling Retriever, Schnauzer, Shipperke, Scottish Terrier, Siberian Husky, Stafforsihre
97 Terrier) participated in the study. Subjects participated in two study occasions 1–13 days apart
98 receiving oxytocin and placebo pretreatments in a balanced order (N=18 dogs starting with
99 each of the two treatments). On the first occasion the Threatening Approach Test (see later)
100 was performed by an unfamiliar female experimenter (E), on the second occasion the same
101 test was performed by the owner (O), 33 of the 36 owners were females.

102 *2.3. Pretreatment*

103 The pretreatment was performed according to a protocol previously validated by confirming
104 the physiological effect of oxytocin on electrocardiogram (ECG) measures (Kis et al., 2014b);
105 please note that other studies (Nagasawa et al., 2015; Oliva et al., 2015) have used slightly
106 different intranasal oxytocin administration methods. Subjects received 3 puffs, 12 IU
107 (International Unit) oxytocin (Syntocinon, Novartis) or placebo (0.7% NaCl solution) in a
108 within-subject design. Nasal spray was administered by an unfamiliar female (who had no
109 other role in the experiment) while the dogs were gently held by the owner. This was
110 followed by a 40 minute waiting period (that is presumed to be necessary for the central
111 oxytocin levels to reach a plateau based on the vasopressin measurements of Born et al.,
112 2002). During this time dogs spent the first 30 minutes with an on-leash walk at the
113 University Campus (avoiding any contact with other dogs or humans) during which the
114 experimenter ensured that the owner did not make any social contact with the dog either (e.g.
115 did not pet it, did not talk to it) and kept the length as well as the speed of the walk as
116 standard as possible. Dogs spent the remaining 10 minutes resting in a quiet room with their
117 passive owners present. During this last phase owners were asked to fill in an aggression
118 questionnaire, the *Aggression towards people* scale form Jones (2008). The questionnaire
119 (Table 1) consisted of six items and composed of one single factor (1–5 scale).

120 2.4. Behaviour testing

121 Subjects participated in the *Threatening Approach* Test developed by Vas et al. (2005) (figure
122 1.; supplementary video). During the first test occasion an unfamiliar female experimenter
123 (one of three experimenters randomly selected for each dog) played the role of the
124 approaching human while the owner stood motionless and silently 0.5 m behind the dog
125 (*'Experimenter Approaching'* condition). During the second test occasion they switched their
126 roles; the owner was the approaching human while the E was standing behind (*'Owner*

127 *Approaching*’ condition). Owners received detailed instructions in order to behave in a way as
128 similar to the experimenters as possible.

129 Dogs were tethered on a 1.5 m long leash tied to a hook fixed to the floor. The approaching
130 human (AH) entered the testing room and stood 3 m away from the dog and, if necessary,
131 made some noise to get the dog’s attention. When the dog looked at the AH, she/he began to
132 approach it. The AH was moving slowly and haltingly (one step in every 4 s) with slightly
133 bent upper body and she was looking steadily into the eyes of the dog without any verbal
134 communication with the hands behind his/her back.

135 The behaviour of the AH was determined and standardized across subjects according to the
136 following ‘If ...then...’ rules:

137 1) If the dog kept looking at the AH, then he/she continued to approach the dog
138 until reaching the dog.

139 2) If the dog interrupted the eye contact with the AH (moving away and/or turning
140 head away), she/he stopped and waited motionless for about 4 s and then tried to
141 attract the dog’s attention by making some noise (e.g. coughing or scratching the
142 ground with the foot). If the dog continued to avert its gaze the AH attempted to
143 call the dog’s attention two more times (with 2 s in between attempts). Whenever
144 the dog looked at her/him again, the AH continued the approach. If, however, the
145 dog did not look at her/him after the third attempt, the Threatening Approach was
146 terminated.

147 3) If the dog showed active avoidance, that is, it moved away to the back of the
148 owner/experimenter from the AH while keeping eye contact, she/he stopped and
149 the Threatening Approach was terminated.

150 4) If the dog showed signs of aggression or fear, e.g. barked repeatedly or growled
151 continuously (more than 4 s) and/or tried to attack the AH (moving ahead and
152 stretching the leash), the Threatening Approach was terminated.

153 After terminating the Threatening Approach the AH stepped back, crouched down and started
154 calling the dog in a friendly voice. At the same time the dog was released and encouraged to
155 go to the AH who petted it.

156 2.5. Data analysis

157 Behaviour coding was based on Vas et al. (2008, 2005). The *First reaction* of the subjects
158 was coded on an ordinary scale from the moment of looking at the approaching human, until
159 the end of the first step. Dogs received *score 1 – Friendly* if they approached the human in a
160 friendly way (with the tail wagging, ears up and no signs of aggression and/or fear), *score 2 –*
161 *Approach* if they approached or gazed at the human without tail wagging or wagging the tail
162 between the legs and/or with the ears down, *score 3 – Neutral* if they behaved neutrally (e.g.
163 standing still or sniffing around), *score 4 – Avoid* if they avoided the human (retreating,
164 stepping back) and *score 5 – Threatening* if they moved towards the human in an unfriendly
165 way (barking or growling without any signs of play – e.g. play bow).

166 Additionally the number of times the dog looked back at the human standing behind it was
167 also coded.

168 Inter-rater reliability was calculated by double coding of 10 dogs (28% of the sample) and
169 resulted in a substantial agreement (0.61 – 0.80 according to the categorization of Landis and
170 Koch, 1977) for both *First reaction* ($\kappa=0.73$), and *Looking back* ($\kappa=0.78$).

171 Generalized Linear Mixed Models were used to analyse the data with multinomial logistic in
172 case of the *First reaction* variable, and negative binomial identity function in case of the
173 *Looking back* variable. In case of both dependent variables we tested the main effect of two
174 factors: pretreatment (OT/PL), identity of the approaching human (O/E), and one covariate:

175 aggression questionnaire score; as well as the two- and three-way interactions. In case of the
176 *First reaction* variable two separate follow-up models (GLMMs) were run for the
177 experimenter approaching and the owner approaching conditions. In case of the *Looking back*
178 variable separate models could not be run (as only one placebo pretreated dog looked back at
179 the experimenter when approached by the owner), thus we applied pairwise post hoc
180 comparisons (SPSS 22 default option) in the original model in order to confirm the OT/PL
181 effect. SPSS 22 was used for all data analysis.

182

183 **3. Results**

184 *3.1. First reaction*

185 Dogs showed a *Friendly* first reaction in 32% of the cases, an *Approach* reaction in 25% of
186 the cases, a *Neutral* reaction in 22% of the cases, an *Avoid* reaction in 10% of the cases and a
187 *Threatening* reaction in 11% of the cases. The GLMM model showed no significant main
188 effect of oxytocin/placebo (OT/PL) pretreatment ($F=2.977$, $p=0.087$) or identity of the human
189 (O/E) approaching ($F=0.673$, $p=0.413$) on dogs' first reaction. The main effect of the
190 questionnaire aggression score was, however, significant ($F=4.049$, $p=0.046$) with dogs that
191 were rated more aggressive by their owner, receiving higher scores for their first reaction.
192 Also there was a significant pretreatment (OT/PL) \times identity (O/E) interaction ($F=7.938$,
193 $p=0.006$; figure 2). The pretreatment (OT/PL) \times questionnaire score ($F=3.289$, $p=0.072$) and
194 the identity (O/E) \times questionnaire score ($F=0.088$, $p=0.767$) interactions were non-significant.
195 The three-way interaction (pretreatment \times identity \times questionnaire score) was significant
196 ($F=7.979$, $p=0.005$; figure 3.).

197 Our follow-up analysis showed that in case of the *Experimenter Approaching* condition there
198 was no significant effect of OT/PL pretreatment ($F=0.698$, $p=0.406$) or questionnaire score
199 ($F=2.886$, $p=0.094$, with a tendency for the questionnaire score to be positively related to the

200 first reaction score) and their interaction was also non-significant ($F=0.627$, $p=0.431$). In case
201 of the *Owner Approaching* condition there was a significant OT/PL pretreatment effect
202 ($F=7.426$, $p=0.009$) with OT pretreated dogs showing a less friendly first reaction. The main
203 effect of the questionnaire score was not significant ($F=1.130$, $p=0.293$), but there was a
204 significant pretreatment \times questionnaire score interaction ($F=7.550$, $p=0.008$).

205

206 *3.2. Looking back at Human (Owner/Experimenter)*

207 The looking behaviour of dogs was influenced by both the pretreatment (OT/PL, $F=5.007$,
208 $p=0.029$) and the identity of the human standing behind the dog during the threatening
209 approach (O/E, $F=6.152$, $p=0.016$, figure 4). Pairwise post hoc analysis confirmed that OT
210 pretreated dogs looked more at the human standing behind them compared to PL pretreated
211 dogs ($p<0.001$), and dogs looked back more at their owner (i.e. when the experimenter was
212 approaching) compared to the reversed condition ($p<0.001$). Dogs' baseline aggression
213 (questionnaire score) had no effect ($F=2.451$, $p=0.122$) and all interactions were non-
214 significant ($p>0.05$).

215

216 **4. Discussion**

217 We have found evidence that oxytocin has the potential to modulate dogs' behaviour in a
218 situation involving threatening behaviour signals by a human. Importantly, however this
219 effect is in interaction with other factors such as the identity of the humans involved in the
220 situation (owner or a stranger) and the baseline aggression of the dogs. This is in line with
221 previous results (Kis et al., 2014a) showing that two OXTR polymorphisms (rs8679684 and
222 19131AG) affect dogs' Friendliness, a behavioural score mainly composed of their reaction to
223 a threatening stranger. Our results are also in line with human studies that indicate a
224 modulating role of baseline aggression on the effect of oxytocin (Alcorn et al., 2014) and

225 others showing differential effects of oxytocin on conflict behaviour towards in-group versus
226 out-group partners (De Dreu, 2012; De Dreu et al., 2010). However, as in our study dogs were
227 tested in a fixed order (first in the *Stranger Approaching* and then in the *Owner Approaching*
228 conditions) we cannot exclude the possibility of order effect (though previous research has
229 shown that dogs' reaction in the Threatening Approach Test is consistent across test occasions
230 except for immediate re-testing – Klausz et al., 2014; Vas et al., 2008).

231 Our results showed that contrary to our expectations oxytocin did not decrease aggressive
232 responses in dogs, but they showed a less friendly first reaction towards their owners and
233 behaved in the same way towards the experimenter as in the placebo group. This is in line
234 with other recent research suggesting that oxytocin is not a magical “trust elixir”
235 (Mikolajczak et al., 2010), and that despite increasing prosocial behaviours, it does not make
236 people blind to negative social stimuli, but on the contrary in some cases it even increases the
237 salience of negative social stimuli (Theodoridou et al., 2013). But because of these results the
238 direct applied relevance of our findings is questionable, as a “desirable” outcome would be to
239 use a treatment that decreases unwanted aggression. However in case of some working dogs
240 (e.g. police dogs) sensitisation to threatening social stimuli might also be beneficial.

241 Furthermore we find that dogs look back at the human (owner or experimenter) standing
242 behind them during the threatening approach more often after oxytocin pretreatment. This
243 finding is in line with the study of Guastella et al. (2008) showing that oxytocin increases
244 looking towards the eye-region of faces in humans and corresponds with more recent studies
245 (Nagasawa et al., 2015) demonstrating that dogs look more at their owners in a neutral
246 situation after oxytocin administration. Note, however that in our previous study (Kis et al.,
247 2014a) we could not find any effect of OXTR polymorphisms on looking at humans during a
248 problem-solving task in dogs. Thus in a more naturalistic situation when the owner is allowed
249 to communicate with the dog when it looks back at him/her upon detecting a threat (see e.g.

250 Merola et al., 2013, 2011 for social referencing about threatening stimuli) this might make a
251 difference in the controllability of their fear and/or aggression response.

252 It is also important to note that clinical/veterinary practice may not benefit from the research
253 findings on the behavioural effects of a single dose of intranasal oxytocin. Chronic oxytocin
254 treatment has been for example proved to be less effective in improving the symptoms of
255 young patients diagnosed with autism (Guastella et al., 2015) as it could have been expected
256 based on the promising results of single-dose studies.

257 In the present study oxytocin only influenced dogs' first reaction to the owner, but not to the
258 experimenter. This might suggest that the effect of oxytocin is specific and/or more
259 pronounced towards socially more relevant partners (see e.g. Kis et al., 2014b for the
260 modulating role of social task context on the oxytocin effect in a cognitive bias task). An
261 alternative explanation is that similarly to Alcorn et al. (2014), who found that human subjects
262 with low levels of baseline aggressive behaviour showed an increase in aggressive behaviour,
263 but subjects with high baseline aggressive responding did not, our data might merely reflect
264 that the level of aggression towards the owner is lower than to the experimenter.

265 In sum our results provide evidence for the effects of physiological (exogenous oxytocin) and
266 contextual (owner/stranger) factors as well as individual differences (baseline aggression) on
267 dogs' behaviour in the Threatening Approach Test. Clearly, these phenomena deserve further
268 investigation in order to determine the possible applied relevance of these results as well as
269 shed light on the role of other factors such as the gender of the approaching human or training
270 history of the dogs.

271

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275

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378

379 **Figure captions**

380 **Table 1.** Items of the aggression questionnaire. Owners scored their dogs on a 1–5 scale.

381 **Figure 1.** Photograph showing the Threatening Approach Test

382 **Figure 2.** First reaction of the dogs (until the first step of the approaching human) towards
383 their owner and an unfamiliar experimenter after oxytocin or placebo pretreatment; median,
384 quartiles, whiskers and outliers

385 **Figure 3.** Relationship between dogs' baseline aggression (questionnaire score) and their first
386 reaction to the approaching owner or experimenter after oxytocin and placebo pretreatment

387 **Figure 4.** Frequency of looking back at the human (owner/experimenter) in the placebo and
388 oxytocin pretreated groups in the *Owner Approaching* and *Experimenter Approaching*
389 conditions; median, quartiles, whiskers and outliers

390

391 **Table 1.**

Questionnaire item	Multiplier
Dog behaves aggressively towards unfamiliar people.	+1
Dog is friendly towards unfamiliar people.	-1
Dog shows aggression when nervous or fearful.	+1
Dog behaves aggressively in response to perceived threats from people (e.g., being cornered, having collar reached for).	+1
Dog behaves aggressively when restrained or handled (e.g., groomed).	+1

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