

Seizure alerting behaviour in dogs owned by people experiencing seizures

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Abstract

Introduction: The unpredictability of epileptic seizures is considered an important threat to the quality of life of a person with epilepsy. Currently, however, there are no tools for seizure prediction that can be applied to the domestic setting. Although the information about seizure alert dogs – dogs that display changes in behaviour before a seizure that are interpreted by the owner as an alert – is mostly anecdotal, living with an alerting dog (AD) has been reported to improve quality of life of the owner by reducing the stress originating from the unpredictability of epileptic seizures and, sometimes, diminishing the seizure frequency.

Aim of the study: To investigate, at an international level, the behaviours displayed by trained and untrained dogs that are able to anticipate seizures and to identify patient- and dog related factors associated with the presence or absence of alerting behaviour.

Methodology: An online questionnaire for dog owners with seizures was designed. Information about the participants (demographics, seizure type, presence of pre-ictal symptoms) and their dogs (demographics, behaviour around the time of seizures) was collected. In addition, two validated scales were included to measure the human-dog relationship (Monash Dog-Owner Relationship) and five different traits of the dogs' personality (Monash Canine Personality Questionnaire Refined).

Results: 227 responses of people experiencing seizures were received from six participant countries: 132 from people with dogs that had started alerting spontaneously, 10 from owners of trained AD, the rest from owners of dogs that did not display any alerting behaviour (NAD). Individuals' gender, age or seizure type did not predict the presence of alerting behaviour in their dogs. People who indicated

36 that they experience pre-ictal symptoms were more likely to have a spontaneously AD. The owner-dog
37 bond was significantly higher with ADs compared with NADs and ADs scored significantly higher
38 than NADs in the personality traits “Amicability”, “Motivation” and “Training focus”.

39 Conclusion: This study collected a large group of dog owners with seizures reporting behavioural
40 changes in their dogs before their seizures occurred. This was associated with the presence of pre-ictal
41 symptoms. The seizure alerting behaviour of the dog may have a positive influence on the bond
42 between the owner and the dog.

43 Abbreviations: SRD, Seizure Response Dog; AD, alerting dog; NAD, non-alerting dog.

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51 **1. Introduction**

52 More than 30 percent of people with epilepsy never achieve complete seizure control [1]. The average
53 seizure frequency for an adult with refractory epilepsy is 3 episodes per month with a duration of 1-2
54 minutes. However, the burden of epilepsy extends far beyond the occurrence of seizures and it is well
55 known that epilepsy has a negative impact on the individual’s life independent from seizure frequency
56 [2]. The unpredictability of seizures plays a major role in the lower quality of life perceived by
57 patients with drug resistant epilepsy [3–6]. This unpredictability limits the freedom to perform
58 ordinary tasks (such as cooking or crossing the street), prevents them from performing various roles
59 and jobs and restricts overall mobility. Additionally, it gives patients a feeling of loss of control that
60 influences their self-perception and may lead to anxiety and/or depression [2,7,8]. People with
61 epilepsy and their caregivers rate the importance of being able to predict seizures as high or very high
62 [9,10]. Being able to anticipate seizures is believed to have a positive effect on the life of people with
63 epilepsy [11,12].

64 Currently available devices designed to detect seizures – such as accelerometers, other movement
65 sensors, and multimodal detectors – can be used to alert a caregiver, but none provide advanced
66 warning to the individual experiencing the seizure [3]. Devices that aim to predict seizures are usually
67 based on the implantation of EEG registration electrodes and the development of predictive algorithms
68 [13]. However, it is still unclear if they are sufficiently accurate and practical for routine clinical

69 application. In addition, EEG device implantation carries not insignificant risks, and even when
70 deemed a reasonable option, some people may be reluctant to consider them [9].

71 During the past three decades, reports of dogs being of assistance to people with epilepsy have
72 attracted considerable attention. Dogs can be trained to recognize and take action once a seizure has
73 started. These dogs are known as Seizure Response Dogs (SRDs) and they can be taught to notify a
74 caregiver, to help the individual wake up after a seizure and to bring useful items such as a telephone
75 or medication. Some of these SRDs have been reported to spontaneously start anticipating their
76 owner's seizures [14–16], displaying one or more typical behaviours that the owner learns to interpret
77 as an alert. There is no evidence that the dog is trying to keep the owner safe, rather it is regarded as an
78 emotion that the dog is expressing in anticipation of the seizure. Interestingly, the spontaneous onset
79 of behaviour changes prior to a seizure has also been reported in pet dogs, although some authors have
80 suggested that these originate from anticipatory fear of the owner's behaviour during a seizure,
81 whereas in trained SRDs behaviour is generally associated with the expectation of a reward
82 [14,17,18].

83 In 1999, the first formally trained Seizure Alert Dogs emerged from the work of Support Dogs, a UK
84 based assistance dog training organisation [15]. Support Dogs designed a training method based on the
85 hypothesis that the dogs learn to recognize subtle changes in the behaviour of their owner before the
86 onset of a seizure. In addition, it was reported that the frequency of seizures decreased after the
87 patients received their trained dogs, supporting the notion that reduced uncertainty and the perceived
88 increase of control have a positive influence on seizure frequency [19,20].

89 Despite the substantial increase of seizure Alert Dog training and public interest, scientific information
90 is limited. In particular, no further attempts have been made to describe the population of trained and
91 untrained dogs that seem to alert seizures. In addition, no systematic study into the reliability of the
92 behaviour nor into the potentially underlying mechanisms has been performed. Reports of dogs
93 alerting to psychogenic non-epileptic seizures have raised doubts about the ability of the dogs to
94 anticipate true epileptic seizures [21,22]. Assessing to what extent dogs are consistent in anticipating
95 seizures can help to decide if it is justified to rely on them for seizure anticipation. Knowing by which
96 sensory system they detect changes in their owner before a seizure occurs, could allow for a more
97 targeted training process. Both of these issues are investigated in the currently ongoing EPIDOGS
98 project.

99 In the present article, the results of the first work package of the EPIDOGS project are presented. The
100 aim was three-fold: (1) to build an international database of trained and untrained alerting dogs and
101 their owners, for use in the other EPIDOGS work packages, (2) to investigate the behaviours displayed
102 by trained and untrained dogs that are able to anticipate seizures and (3) to identify patient- and dog
103 related factors associated with the presence or absence of anticipatory behaviour.

104 2. Materials and Methods

105 2.1. Questionnaire design.

106 We aimed to collect information from people with epilepsy living with a dog. However, the diagnosis
107 of the epilepsy was self-reported by the participant. Due to nature of the study (international online
108 survey) it was not possible to have a confirmation of the epilepsy diagnosis by a treating neurologist.
109 Therefore we will use the term ‘people with seizures’ throughout this manuscript, instead of ‘people
110 with epilepsy’.

111 To collect information about people that experience seizures and about their dogs, three questionnaires
112 were designed and administered using Survey Monkey: one for people with seizures older than 18, one
113 for parents of children with seizures and one for caregivers of people with seizures with impaired
114 capacity. Inclusion criteria were: having been diagnosed with epilepsy (self-reported diagnosis) and
115 currently living with a dog. Owning a dog displaying alerting behaviour was not a requirement to
116 participate, as we were also interested in examining differences between owners of dogs with and
117 without alerting behaviour.

118 The questionnaires were initially designed in English and then translated by native speakers into
119 Dutch, French, Italian, Spanish and German. A multi-language website (<https://epidogsproject.net>)
120 was set up, containing information about the study and links to access the questionnaires. The survey
121 was first launched in Belgium and then in the following countries: Germany, Italy, Spain, the UK and
122 the US. Countries were selected on the basis of availability of the survey in the national language or,
123 in case of multiple national languages, in at least one of them and on the possibility of obtaining an
124 ethics committee approval.

125 The questionnaires were available online from September 2017 to July 2018. In order to reach
126 participants, support organisations, social media groups and medical centres were contacted and asked
127 to display flyers both physically and via social media. Potential responders were not contacted directly
128 but went to the website on their own initiative, after learning about the study. The participants gave
129 their informed consent online and then completed the questionnaire.

130 The questionnaire consisted of 46 questions (7 multiple-choice questions, 11 open-ended questions
131 and 2 scales).

132 The first part included questions on basic demographic (age, gender, household composition, and
133 country of residence) and clinical information, including the duration, frequency and type of seizures
134 experienced (according to the preservation or loss of consciousness/awareness during the seizure),
135 presence of any pre-ictal symptoms (e.g. symptoms preceding the onset of a seizure as defined by the
136 participants, acknowledging that at least some of those symptoms could represent ictal activity not

137 identified by the participant as such), interval between the pre-ictal symptoms and the seizures, and
138 presence of seizure triggers

139 The second part of the questionnaire contained questions on the demographics of the dog and its
140 behaviour before, during and after the seizures. Questions on the circumstances of the anticipatory
141 behaviour were also included (e.g. location, when did it start, how long before the seizure, etc.).
142 Finally, the Monash Dog-Owner relationship scale (MDORS) and Monash Canine Personality
143 Questionnaire refined (MCPQ-R) were included. MDORS is a validated scale divided in three
144 subscales (“Owner-Dog Interaction”, “Perceived Emotional Closeness” and “Perceived Costs”),
145 developed to measure the bond between the owners and their dogs as perceived by the owner [25].
146 MCPQ-R is a tool to evaluate dog personality differentiating between five different personality traits:
147 Extraversion, Motivation, Training Focus, Amicability and Neuroticism [26–28].

148 The MDORS was back-translated to the 6 different languages. Since we were only interested in the
149 bond established between the person with epilepsy and their dog as perceived by that person, this scale
150 was only included in the questionnaire for adults. A previous translation [29] to French and Dutch of
151 the MCPQ-R was used. Translations for Spanish, German and Italian were not available and therefore
152 the MCPQ-R was not present in the questionnaires translated into those languages. If respondents had
153 more than one dog, they could fill out the dog-related questions, the MDORS and MCPQ-R for each
154 dog, with a maximum of four dogs.

155 *2.2. Data Analysis*

156 Contradictory responses and responses from people that declared experiencing non-epileptic seizures
157 were excluded

158 *2.2.1. Descriptive statistics*

159 Responses were divided into those from owners of dogs that alert (AD) and those from owners of dogs
160 that do not (non-alerting dogs, NADs). The ADs were further categorized into trained and untrained,
161 and the frequency of occurrence of each variable was calculated for each category. This exploratory
162 descriptive analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel 2016.

163 *2.2.2. Predictive and comparative analysis*

164 A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess distribution normality across the numerical part of the
165 data set, and to select appropriate statistical tests. Univariate binary logistic regression models were
166 used to evaluate potential predictors of the presence or absence of anticipatory behaviour in untrained
167 dogs. Breed, reproductive status (females and males, neutered or not) and dog origin were included as
168 dog-related potential predictors. Gender, age, seizure type, presence of pre-ictal symptoms, and
169 presence of triggers were included as human-related predictors. Prior to fitting the regression models,

170 predictors were first tested for multicollinearity to make sure that none of the variables included in the
171 regression were inter-associated. All variables associated with a 0.1 significance level in the univariate
172 regression were entered into a multivariate model and the results were reported as odds ratios.

173 The age of the participants was classified in 3 groups: younger than 12, between 12 and 18 and older
174 than 18. The presence of seizure triggers was coded as a binomial variable: present or absent. The
175 presence of pre-ictal symptom was recoded to include the frequency with which the symptoms
176 occurred. The categories were “No pre-ictal symptoms”, “Rarely, sometimes or half of the time” and
177 “Most of the time and every time”. The variable “type of seizures” was also recoded to create mutually
178 exclusive groups and to strengthen the model: Group I: “people with only seizures where they fall
179 down unconscious”, Group II: “people with both seizures during which they fall down unconscious
180 and seizures during which they do not fall down but are not able to respond” and Group III: “people
181 with only seizures during which they cannot respond to stimuli but they are not unconscious”. The
182 remaining three people who exclusively experienced seizures during which they could respond to
183 stimuli or seizures that were not noticed by other people were excluded from the model. The different
184 dog breeds were split into 11 groups as identified by the Federation Cynologique Internationale (FCI)
185 [30]. Since the number of “Spitzs and primitive types” was too low to include in the analysis as
186 separate group they were grouped with the “Pinscher and Schnauzer - Molossoid and Swiss Mountain
187 and Cattle dogs” groups.

188 For the cases where the patient experienced pre-ictal symptoms and had a dog that showed
189 anticipatory behaviour, a Mantel-Haenszel test of trend was run to determine whether a linear
190 association existed between the time that usually passed between the pre-ictal symptom and what the
191 respondent identified as the beginning of the seizure and the time that usually passed between an alert
192 and the start of the seizure. Both variables were classified into five categories and scored from 1 (less
193 than one minute) to 5 (more than one hour) in ascending order.

194 The MCPQ-R and MDORS scores were calculated following the procedures described by Ley et al.
195 (2007) [27] and Dwyer et al (2006) [25]. There were not enough trained dogs to compare the scores of
196 trained and untrained dogs, but since we anticipated that the owners’ perception about their dog’s
197 personality and the human-dog bonds could differ between trained and untrained dogs, the 11 trained
198 dogs were excluded from further analysis. The scores of the MCPQ-R and MDORS refer therefore
199 only to untrained dogs.

200 Regarding the MCPQ-R, the scores for the five traits of personalities of AD and NAD were compared
201 using Wilcoxon signed rank tests. Wilcoxon signed rank tests were also used to compare the MDORS
202 scores of ADs and NADs. The total score was compared as well as the three different sub-scales: the
203 “Dog-owner relationship”, the “Perceived Emotional Closeness” and the “Perceived costs”.

204 These statistical analysis were performed using SPSS 25.

205 **3. Results**

206 A total of 238 complete responses to the dog owner questionnaire were received: 33 from Belgium, 10
207 from Germany, 73 from Italy, 70 from the UK, 27 from the US and 14 from Spain. Eleven responses
208 came from countries not included in the study and were dropped, leading to 227 respondents included
209 in the analysis. Since respondents were given the chance of completing the dog-related questions for
210 more than one dog, data from 247 dogs were collected and analysed.

211 *3.1. Information about the owners*

212 Of the 227 respondents, 176 (74%) were adults with self-reported epilepsy, 27 (12%) were parents or
213 guardians of children younger than 12, 15 (15%) were parents of children older than 12 and 9 (4%)
214 were caregivers of people with impaired capacity. The average age of the people with seizures was 31
215 years (range 2-71), 72% of them identified themselves as females, 26% as males and 2% as other. 92%
216 of the owners of AD and 89% of the owners of NAD live together in the same household with at least
217 one adult.

218 Table 1 summarize the seizure-related information collected from the participants according to the
219 capacity of their dogs to alert.

220 Regarding the frequency of the seizures, most of the people that experience seizures with complete
221 loss of consciousness, experienced them less than once a month (57%), 21% experienced them once a
222 week and only a 5% experienced them daily. Seizures without unconsciousness but with impaired
223 responsiveness occurred also less than once a month in a 34% of the participants, 28% of them
224 experienced them once per week and 17% daily. Most of the participants indicated that they
225 experience some type of pre-ictal symptom (82%).

226 From the 227 responses received, 142 (63%) respondents declared to currently live with one or more
227 AD. The percentage of adults living with AD (62%) was similar to the percentage of children (64%).

Type of seizure according to the responsiveness status	Living with AD	Living with NAD	All
Person is completely unconscious and falls down.	77% (109)	82% (109)	79% (179)
Person does not fall down but cannot respond normally to environment	72% (102)	79% (67)	74% (169)
Person is able to respond normally to environment	49% (70)	34% (29)	44% (99)
Seizures that no one else notices	66% (94)	53% (45)	61% (139)
Type of Pre-Ictal Symptom	AD	NAD	All
Funny feeling in the head	51% (73)	39% (33)	47% (106)
Funny feeling coming from the stomach	25% (36)	22% (19)	24% (55)
Tingling sensation	24% (34)	19% (16)	22% (50)
Visual symptoms	29% (41)	15% (13)	24% (54)
Auditory symptoms	11% (16)	13% (11)	12% (27)
Olfactory symptoms	13% (19)	8% (7)	11% (26)
Particular taste	15% (22)	9% (8)	13% (30)
Hunger, stomach sensation	18% (25)	19% (16)	18% (41)
Tiredness	35% (50)	24% (20)	31% (70)
Headache	31% (44)	27% (23)	30% (67)
Memory	35% (50)	33% (28)	34% (78)
Emotional symptoms	35% (50)	25% (21)	31% (71)
Sweating	22% (31)	20% (17)	21% (48)
Difficulty to speak	37% (53)	25% (21)	33% (74)
Problems of concentration	37% (52)	27% (23)	33% (75)
No symptoms	13% (18)	27% (23)	18% (41)
Others	8% (11)	2% (2)	6% (13)
Time between pre-ictal symptom and seizures	AD	NAD	All
Less than 1 minute	47% (54)	41% (24)	45% (78)
1-5 minutes	21% (24)	28% (16)	23% (40)
5-30 minutes	16% (18)	9% (5)	13% (23)
30-60 minutes	12% (14)	10% (6)	11% (20)
More than 1 hour	5% (6)	12% (7)	7% (13)
Seizure Triggers	AD	NAD	All
Lack of sleep	75% (106)	76% (65)	75% (171)
Stress	78% (111)	73% (62)	76% (173)
Alcohol	16% (23)	16% (14)	16% (37)
Menstruation	39% (39)	28% (18)	35% (57)
Flashing lights	20% (29)	27% (23)	23% (52)
Missing Medication	57% (81)	52% (44)	55% (125)
Other	22% (31)	24% (20)	22% (51)
None	3% (4)	6% (5)	4% (9)

228

229 **Table 1:** Summary of the seizure-related information received, expressed as the percentage (and total number) of
230 participants from each group that indicated each one of the non-mutually exclusive options. **AD:** alerting dog;
231 **NAD:** non alerting dog; **All:** all participants.

232 *3.2. Information about the dogs with anticipatory behaviour*

233 In total, 160 dogs (65%) were described to display alerting behaviour. 10 dogs had been trained as AD
234 and one had been trained as SRD but did not display alerting behaviour. 21 respondents filled in the
235 dog-related part of the questionnaire for more than one dog. Of those, two people have two trained
236 ADs each, 7 respondents live with two untrained ADs, 10 respondents have at least one AD and one or
237 more NADs, and 2 have more than one NAD and no AD.

238 *3.2.1. Trained dogs*

239 A summary of the information obtained regarding the location and time when the alerting behaviours
240 usually happen can be found in table 2. 30% of ADs whose owners always experience pre-ictal
241 symptoms had displayed the behaviours when they were in a different room than the owner or while
242 the owner was sleeping. This rose to more than 60% of ADs belonging to owners that never
243 experience pre-ictal symptoms.

244 The most frequent alerting behaviours described (Figure 1) were licking the owner – most frequently
245 the hands – and staying close to the owner. Both of these behaviours were described for 70% of the
246 trained dogs. Staring at the owner was also a frequent behaviour with 60% of the trained dogs
247 displaying it before a seizure. Other behaviours described were sitting next to the owner (30%) and
248 touching the owner with a paw or the head (20%). One dog had additionally been trained to perform
249 special behaviours like fetching the phone and attracting the caregiver's attention.

250 *3.2.2. Untrained dogs*

251 Regarding the location of the alerting behaviour, most of the dogs had alerted when they were in the
252 same room as the owner while alerting in the other situations described was less frequent (Table 2).

253 According to their owners, 36% of the untrained dogs started spontaneously anticipating the seizures
254 from the first time they witnessed a seizure. 14% started during the first month and 14% between the
255 first and the sixth month of living together. Another 36% started after one year or more.

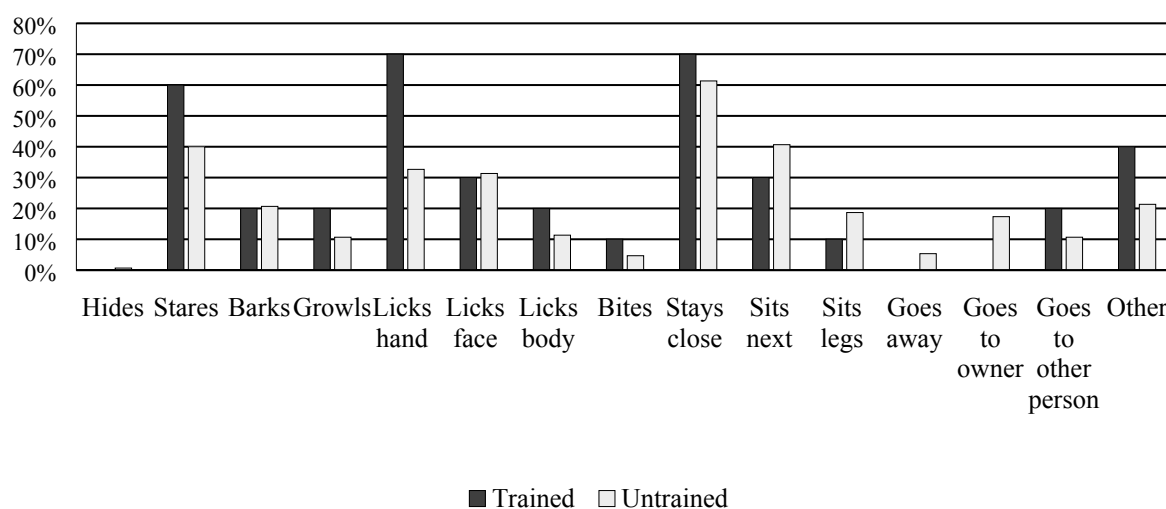
	Location of the alert	Trained	Untrained
256			
257	At home in the same room as the participant	89% (8)	89% (8)
	At home in different rooms	89% (8)	33% (49)
258	The owner was sleeping	78% (7)	32% (48)
	In the street	100% (9)	22% (33)
259	In a shop/supermarket/ another public building	100% (9)	7% (11)
	In other people's house	89% (8)	13% (20)
260	In a place with many other people	89% (8)	17% (25)
	In a place with few or no people	89% (8)	25% (37)
261	Other	0% (0)	8% (12)
262	Anticipation time	Trained	Untrained
	0-1 minutes	0% (0)	27% (35)
263	1-10 minutes	0% (0)	36% (47)
	10-30 minutes	37% (3)	14% (18)
264	30-60 minutes	63% (5)	11% (14)
	More than 60 minutes	0% (0)	11% (15)
265			

266 **Table 2.** Summary of the information received about the circumstances surrounding the alerting behaviours, expressed as the
267 percentage (and total number) of participants from each group with trained or untrained dogs that indicated each one of the
268 options.

269 The most frequent alerting behaviours according to respondents were staying close to the owners
270 (62%) and licking them (48%) (Figure 1). Licking the hands and the face are equally frequent and
271 often happen together. Sitting next to the owner (41%), staring (40%), and vocalizing (32%) i.e.
272 barking, growling, whining, etc. were other frequently reported behaviours.

273 21% of the dogs displayed “other behaviours” different to the ones offered in the questionnaire. Most
274 people described attention seeking behaviours like jumping, trying to get close, etc. Some people
275 described the affective state of the dog using adjectives like “anxious”, “restless” or “desperate” and
276 mentioned behaviours that can be interpreted as related to fear or anxiety related such as whining,
277 trembling, “won’t go near the person with epilepsy”, etc. One dog was described to get “irritable with
278 other dogs” before the seizures and another would get aggressive with people trying to go near the
279 owner.

Alerting behaviours



281 **Figure 1:** Percentage of trained and untrained dogs that displayed particular alerting behaviours.

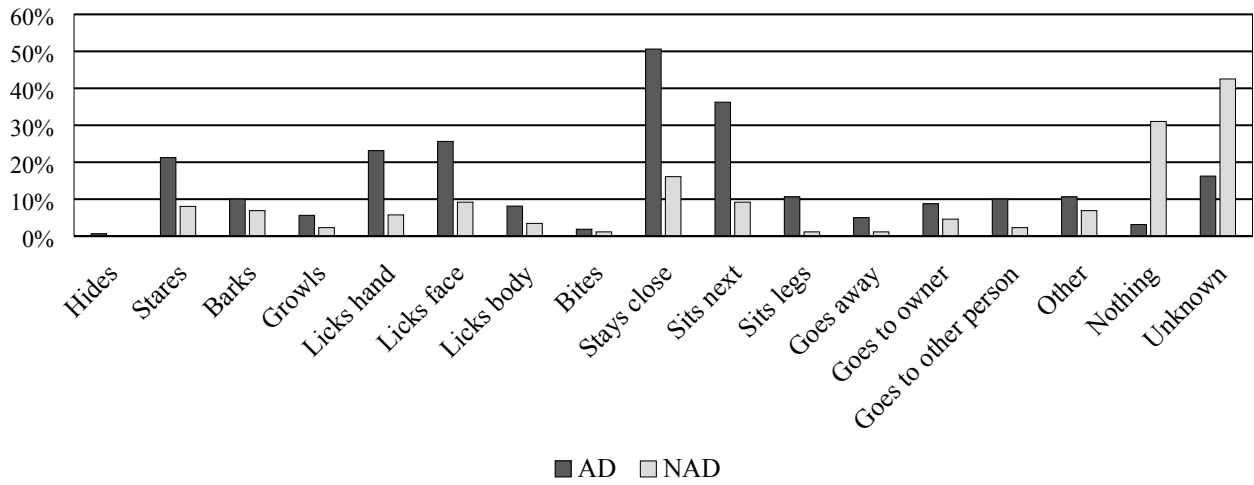
282 3.2.3. Alerting vs Non-Alerting Dogs

283 Figure 2 shows a descriptive comparison of the behaviours during and after the seizures of ADs and
 284 NADs.

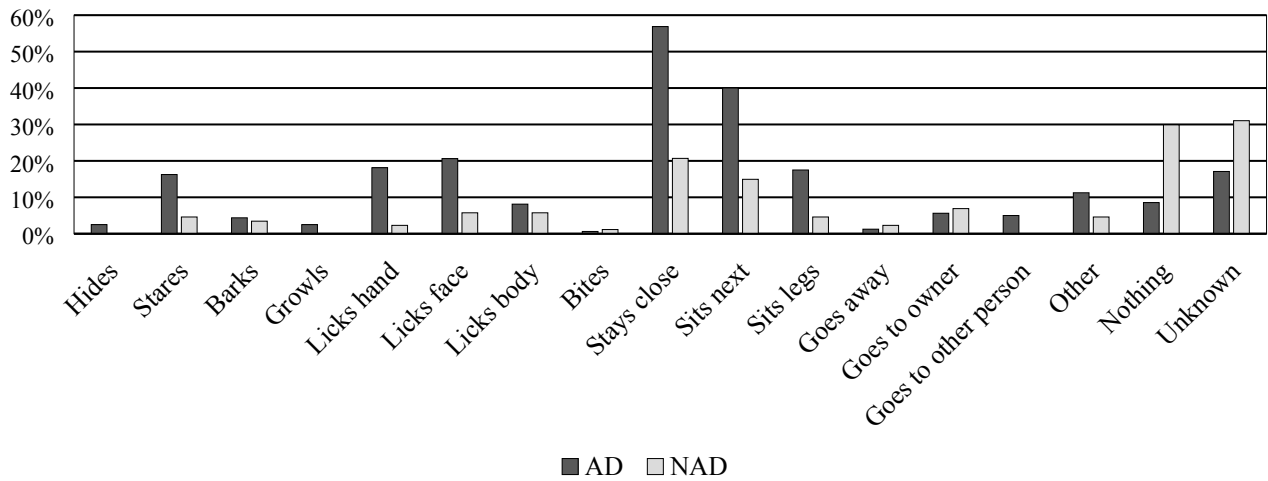
285 During the seizures, most ADs stay close to the owner (51%) or sit next to them (36%), while only
 286 16% of NADs stay close and only 9% sit next to their owner. Licking the hands (23%) and face (26%)
 287 were also frequently described by owners of ADs. For NADs, the most frequently reported behaviour
 288 was no reaction (31%), this was considerably higher than for ADs (3%). 16% of the owners of ADs
 289 indicated that they did not know the behaviour of their dogs, compared to 43% of the owners of
 290 NADs.

291 Similarly, after seizures, respondents indicated that the most common behaviours displayed by ADs
 292 were staying close to the owners (57%) and/or sitting next to them (40%). The percentage of NADs
 293 that displayed those behaviours was considerably lower. Only 21% of NADs were reported as staying
 294 close to the owner and 36% sitting next to them.

Behaviours during the seizures



Behaviours after the seizures



295 **Figure 2.** Percentage of alerting (AD) and non-alerting dogs (NAD) that display each behaviour before, during
 296 and after seizures.

297 *3.3. Predictive statistics*

298 Univariate predictors of the presence of alerting behaviour in untrained dogs are presented in table 3.

Variable	Wald	d.f.	Sig.
Dog Breed	6.907	7	0.439
Dog Age when Arrived	4.278	2	0.041
Dog Reproductive Status	1.274	3	0.735
Owner Gender	0.023	1	0.911
Owner Age	0.400	2	0.819
Pre-Ictal Symptoms	9.501	2	0.009
Triggers	3.059	1	0.080
Type of seizure	1.797	2	0.409

299

300 **Table 3.** Results of the univariate logistic regression for potential predictors of the presence of alerting behaviour.

301 Presence of pre-ictal symptoms, dog age when arriving home and presence of triggers were included
 302 in a multivariable model ($\chi^2(4) = 14.909$; $p = 0.005$). Only the presence of pre-ictal symptoms
 303 remained significant ($p = 0.015$). Pre-ictal symptoms that occurred “most of the time” or “every time”
 304 were associated with the occurrence of anticipatory behaviour (O.R.:3.004; $p = 0.004$).

305 *3.4. Comparative statistics*

306 The Mantel-Haenszel test of trend showed a strong, statistically significant linear association between
 307 time between pre-ictal symptoms and seizures and times between alerting behaviours and seizures
 308 ($\chi^2(16) = 21.36$; $p < 0.001$; $r = 0.445$). Shorter times between pre-ictal symptoms and seizures were
 309 associated with shorter times between alerting behaviours and seizures, and vice-versa.

310 *3.5. Monash Canine Personality Questionnaire refined*

311 Data for a total of 147 dogs were analysed. Significant differences were found between NADs and
 312 spontaneous ADs in the traits of Motivation (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -2.436$; $n = 135$; $p =$
 313 0.015), Training focus (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -2.078$; $n = 117$; $p = 0.032$) and Amicability
 314 (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -2.147$; $n = 134$; $p = 0.032$). The scores for those three traits were
 315 significantly higher in ADs than in NADs. There were no significant differences for Extraversion ($p =$
 316 0.315) and Neuroticism ($p = 0.074$)

317 *3.6. Monash Dog-Owner relationship scales*

318 The total Dog-Owner Relationship Score, calculated using the three sub-scales [25], was significantly
 319 higher for ADs and their owners compared to NADs (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -1.992$; $n = 166$;
 320 $p = 0.046$). Although there were no significant differences in the sub-scales “Emotional-Closeness” (p

321 = 0.131) or “Interaction” ($p = 0,400$), the score for the sub-scale “Costs” was significantly higher for
322 ADs (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -3.088$; $n = 166$; $p = 0.002$)

323 4. Discussion

324 To our knowledge, this is the first study that includes a large, international population of people who
325 report having epilepsy and are living with seizure alerting dogs, thereby expanding and updating
326 previous studies that focused on small, local populations [16,18]. It offers a description of peri-ictal
327 dog behaviours together with some clinical information that helps to build a context around the
328 occurrence of these behaviours. In addition, the use of validated dog personality and human-dog bond
329 scales provides, for the first time, a description of dog personality traits that seem to be strongly
330 related to spontaneously alerting dogs and suggests that the ability to display alerting behaviours may
331 influence the human-dog bond as perceived by the owner. Finally we compared the responses of
332 owners of alerting and non-alerting dogs to identify potential factors that may be associated with the
333 presence of alerting behaviours.

334 4.1 Database of owners of ADs

335 The first aim of the study was to build an international database of people with seizures who own an
336 AD, for future research in the EPIDOGS project. Most of the participants were adults with a self-
337 reported diagnosis of epilepsy.

338 There was a notable difference in participation across countries. Most responses came from Italy and
339 the UK while there was low participation in more populous countries like the USA and Germany. This
340 could be due to a greater difficulty spreading the information about the questionnaire in those
341 countries.

342 Although it was emphasised that having an AD was not necessary to participate, it is likely that people
343 who thought their dogs had alerting abilities were more likely to take part, resulting in an
344 overrepresentation of ADs. Nevertheless, the number of participants with NADs was large enough to
345 make meaningful comparisons with ADs.

346 Considering that there do not seem to be epidemiological differences in the incidence of epilepsy
347 between males and females [31], women seem to be overrepresented in this study, in line with existing
348 evidence indicating that women are more likely to participate in online questionnaires than men
349 [32,33].

350 In our study, the type and frequency of seizures showed a large variability which is in line with
351 population data on seizure epidemiology [34]. Most of the participants reported experiencing different
352 types of seizures, with seizures causing complete loss of consciousness being particularly common, as
353 it has also been previously reported in other population studies [34]. The majority of participants

354 experienced seizures once a month or less. A large percentage of the participants, notably higher than
355 previously reported in the literature [35,36], experience pre-ictal symptoms before what they identify
356 as the onset of the seizures.

357 As stated before, it was not possible to confirm that all participants had indeed been diagnosed with
358 epilepsy. Consequently, our sample could contain participants without any seizures or with
359 psychogenic non-epileptic seizures (PNES), who knowingly or unknowingly provided incorrect
360 information. The former is an issue for any study, like the current one, that uses snowballing and open
361 access to a survey. To attempt to counter this, information on the questionnaire was spread exclusively
362 through epilepsy support associations, epilepsy study groups and medical centres. This will not,
363 unfortunately, keep participants with PNES from participating as they are frequently referred to these
364 centres [37]. Participants in our study with PNES may have provided answers that are determined by
365 their psychological condition [37,38]. Based on the overrepresentation of women in our sample and
366 the correlation cited in literature between the female gender and the higher likelihood to have PNES
367 [38], we could assume to have several participants with PNES. However, the overrepresentation of
368 women may also be due to the fact that they are more likely to fill out online surveys in general
369 [32,33]. In addition, although Krauss [39] suggested that PNES patients may tend to seek the help of
370 an assistance dog more often than other people, most of the dogs in this study were pet dogs or trained
371 dogs from organisations that require an epilepsy diagnosis before a patient can enter the training
372 programme. Nevertheless, for future research based on the currently established database,
373 confirmation of the diagnosis will have to be sought from the treating neurologist.

374 *4.2. Differences between ADs and NADs*

375 *4.2.1. Owner-related factors*

376 The presence of pre-ictal symptoms was a good predictor of alerting behaviour of the dog. In addition,
377 interval between the onset of the symptoms and the seizures as identified by the participants was
378 positively correlated with the time between the presentation of the alerting behaviour and the seizures.
379 One possible explanation for both findings is that the pre-ictal symptoms, directly or indirectly, may
380 trigger the alerting behaviour of the dog. Most of these symptoms happen in the 30 minutes before the
381 observable seizure, and it is likely that at least some of them represented a sensory ictal phenomenon
382 (aura) possibly associated with subtle physiological or behavioural changes to which the dog may be
383 reacting [21,36,40]. This change of behaviour could act as a cue for the dog whether the owners are
384 aware of it or not. Alternatively, it is possible that the owners, when experiencing pre-ictal symptoms,
385 tend to be more attentive to the dogs and/or tend to interpret the behaviour of the dog as an alert.
386 Finally, the finding that pre-ictal symptoms are a predictor of dog alerting behaviour could explain the
387 overrepresentation in the questionnaire of participants that experience pre-ictal symptoms as they more
388 often have alerting dogs and possibly were more likely to participate in the study.

389 Alerting behaviour was unrelated to the gender and age of the owner as reported by Dalziel et al. [18].
390 On the other hand, Kirton et al. found that alerting behaviour is more common in dogs living with
391 children with epilepsy than in dogs living with adults [15].

392 Since it was anticipated that some of the participants may not know the precise medical terms for their
393 specific seizure types, a classification according to awareness and responsiveness status [41] was also
394 offered. We found that, using this classification, seizure type was not a good predictor of dogs' ability
395 to anticipate seizures.

396 According to their owners, a high percentage of non-trained ADs started alerting from the first time
397 they were exposed to a seizure. This finding was also reported in Kirton et al. [16] and could suggest
398 that these dogs reacted to a change that they sensed in the owner before the onset of the first seizure.
399 This would imply that they are not truly anticipating the seizure, as anticipatory behaviour is
400 considered to be the result of a learning process [42,43] where the dog learns, due to repeated
401 exposure, that there is an association between a cue (behavioural, auditive, olfactory or other) that
402 precedes the seizure and the seizure itself. However, we cannot exclude the possibility of recall-bias,
403 as some owners may not accurately remember the exact point in time when the dog started displaying
404 the behaviours.

405 In this study, most people reported that their dog alerts when in the same room. However, similarly to
406 the study by Dalziel et al. [18], dog owners who completed the present questionnaire often described
407 being asleep or in different rooms when their dogs displayed alerting behaviours. In fact, one third of
408 the ADs belonging to participants that always experience pre-ictal symptoms were reported to display
409 alerting behaviours when the owner was sleeping or in a different room. This may further support the
410 theory that some dogs react to an olfactory or auditory cue rather than only relying on the owner's
411 behavioural changes.

412 *4.2.2. Dog-related factors*

413 As previously reported in SRDs that had started alerting [15], standing next to the owner was the most
414 frequent behaviour displayed, together with licking the owner's face or hands and staring. Behaviours
415 potentially dangerous for the owner or suggestive of distress and/or fear in untrained dogs, previously
416 described in the literature [17], were reported with a low frequency.

417 Regarding the behaviours displayed once the seizure had started, ADs that stayed initially next to the
418 owner tended to remain in the same position during and after the seizure. Licking was also frequent in
419 ADs once the seizure had started and until the owner had recovered. Most of NADs were reported not
420 to change behaviour during or after the seizure. Although fear-related behaviours have been previously
421 described in spontaneously alerting dogs [17], the occurrence of those behaviours was low in the

422 questionnaire. It is possible, however, that owners perceiving the behaviour of their dog as negative
423 may have been less like to participate in the questionnaire.

424 Neither the reproductive state, breed nor origin of the dog were predictors of the development of
425 alerting behaviours. This finding has also been reported in the previous studies [16,18]

426 There were differences between ADs and NADs in some of the personality traits explored by the
427 MCPQ-R. ADs scored significantly higher in motivation, amicability and training focus. In contrast,
428 neurotic animals were less likely to alert, although the difference was not statistically significant. This
429 conflicts with the common belief that dogs defined as nervous or anxious start alerting because they
430 tend to be more attentive to their environment. Some training organisations approached for this study,
431 declared that they look for certain personality traits in potential trainee dogs (personal
432 communication), some of which have been associated with the personality traits described by the
433 MCPQ-R, such as self-confidence (low neuroticism), problem solving abilities and play-drive
434 (training focus) etc. [44,45]. However, due to the small number of trained ADs in this study, it was not
435 possible to perform a comparison between the trained and untrained groups.

436 The human-dog bond differed substantially in the “Perceived costs” subscale, with ADs scoring
437 significantly higher than NADs. These costs not only refer to the economic costs of dog ownership but
438 also to other negative aspects such as disruption of normal routines or increased responsibility [25].
439 Owners of ADs gave less importance to these negative effects of owning a dog compared with owners
440 of NADs. However, there were no significant differences in the subscales “Interaction” or “Emotional
441 closeness”. The Total Bond Score, calculated using the three subscales, was also significantly higher
442 for AD owners suggesting that the perceived cost-benefit or value of dog ownership is influenced by
443 the owner’s perception that the animal alerts them.

444 *4.3. Differences between trained and untrained dogs*

445 The number of owners of trained ADs was insufficient for formal comparisons with spontaneously
446 alerting dogs, but signals suggesting differences between trained and untrained dogs emerged. The
447 main difference was in anticipation time, with the interval between the onset of alerting behaviour and
448 the onset of an observable seizure being more consistent (always between 10 and 60 minutes) in
449 trained dogs. These results are similar to the ones presented by Brown and Strong of dogs trained by
450 Support Dogs [20] who reported that their ADs displayed the behaviours between 15 and 45 minutes
451 before the seizure. In contrast, untrained dogs varied between less than 1 minute and 48 hours in
452 advance. This could reflect the fact that trained dogs have all been trained to react to the same cue,
453 selected by the trainers – i.e. changes in behaviour in Support Dogs’ case – that appears during that
454 particular time window. Conversely, untrained dogs could be reacting to different cues that they have
455 come to identify as a sign of an oncoming seizure. The main anticipatory behaviours were similar in

456 both groups, although untrained dogs displayed a wider range of behaviours. Only one participant
457 owned an SRD but it had not developed any alerting behaviour.

458

459 **5. Conclusion**

460 The main objective of this study was to study the population of ADs as perceived by their owners and
461 to find potential differences with NADs. Most of the participants identified behavioural changes in
462 their dogs before their perceived onset of seizures, and this was associated with the presence of pre-
463 ictal symptoms. The presence of seizure alerting behaviour may have a positive influence on the bond
464 between the owner and the dog. The results are largely consistent with existing reports but include a
465 wider international population.

466 Further research is needed to investigate the relationship between pre-ictal symptoms experienced by
467 people with a confirmed epilepsy diagnosis and the spontaneous occurrence of alerting behaviours in
468 their dogs, as well as the mechanisms that trigger the alerting behaviours in both epilepsy and PNES
469 patients.

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- 590

Seizure alerting behaviour in dogs owned by people experiencing seizures

Highlights

- Most of the participants identified behavioural changes in their dogs before their perceived onset of seizures.
- Having an alerting dog was frequently associated with the owners experiencing pre-ictal symptoms.
- Standing next to the owners and licking their faces and wrists were the most frequent alerting behaviours displayed by the dogs.
- According to the respondents, some dog personality traits were more frequent in alerting dogs.
- The presence of seizure alerting behaviour may have a positive influence on the bond between the owner and the dog

1 ***Seizure alerting behaviour in dogs owned by people experiencing***
2 ***seizures***

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14

15 **Keywords:** Epilepsy, Seizure detection, Seizure alert dog, assistance dog

16 **Abstract**

17 Introduction: The unpredictability of epileptic seizures is considered an important threat to the quality
18 of life of a person with epilepsy. Currently, however, there are no tools for seizure prediction that can
19 be applied to the domestic setting. Although the information about seizure alert dogs – dogs that
20 display changes in behaviour before a seizure that are interpreted by the owner as an alert – is mostly
21 anecdotal, living with an alerting dog (AD) has been reported to improve quality of life of the owner
22 by reducing the stress originating from the unpredictability of epileptic seizures and, sometimes,
23 diminishing the seizure frequency.

24 Aim of the study: To investigate, at an international level, the behaviours displayed by trained and
25 untrained dogs that are able to anticipate seizures and to identify patient- and dog related factors
26 associated with the presence or absence of alerting behaviour.

27 Methodology: An online questionnaire for dog owners with seizures was designed. Information about
28 the participants (demographics, seizure type, presence of pre-ictal symptoms) and their dogs
29 (demographics, behaviour around the time of seizures) was collected. In addition, two validated scales
30 were included to measure the human-dog relationship (Monash Dog-Owner Relationship) and five
31 different traits of the dogs' personality (Monash Canine Personality Questionnaire Refined).

32 Results: 227 responses of people experiencing seizures were received from six participant countries:
33 132 from people with dogs that had started alerting spontaneously, 10 from owners of trained AD, the
34 rest from owners of dogs that did not display any alerting behaviour (NAD). Individuals' gender, age
35 or seizure type did not predict the presence of alerting behaviour in their dogs. People who indicated

36 that they experience pre-ictal symptoms were more likely to have a spontaneously AD. The owner-dog
37 bond was significantly higher with ADs compared with NADs and ADs scored significantly higher
38 than NADs in the personality traits “Amicability”, “Motivation” and “Training focus”.

39 Conclusion: This study collected a large group of dog owners with seizures reporting behavioural
40 changes in their dogs before their seizures occurred. This was associated with the presence of pre-ictal
41 symptoms. The seizure alerting behaviour of the dog may have a positive influence on the bond
42 between the owner and the dog.

43 Abbreviations: SRD, Seizure Response Dog; AD, alerting dog; NAD, non-alerting dog.

44 Declarations of interest: none

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46 *This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of Ghent University Hospital, the Ethical*
47 *Committee of the Fondazione IRCCS Policlinico San Matteo and the Committee for the protection of*
48 *Humans Subjects of Dartmouth-Hitchcock Medical Center. After consulting with local authorities, no*
49 *further approvals were needed for the other participating countries.*

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51 **1. Introduction**

52 More than 30 percent of people with epilepsy never achieve complete seizure control [1]. The average
53 seizure frequency for an adult with refractory epilepsy is 3 episodes per month with a duration of 1-2
54 minutes. However, the burden of epilepsy extends far beyond the occurrence of seizures and it is well
55 known that epilepsy has a negative impact on the individual’s life independent from seizure frequency
56 [2]. The unpredictability of seizures plays a major role in the lower quality of life perceived by
57 patients with drug resistant epilepsy [3–6]. This unpredictability limits the freedom to perform
58 ordinary tasks (such as cooking or crossing the street), prevents them from performing various roles
59 and jobs and restricts overall mobility. Additionally, it gives patients a feeling of loss of control that
60 influences their self-perception and may lead to anxiety and/or depression [2,7,8]. People with
61 epilepsy and their caregivers rate the importance of being able to predict seizures as high or very high
62 [9,10]. Being able to anticipate seizures is believed to have a positive effect on the life of people with
63 epilepsy [11,12].

64 Currently available devices designed to detect seizures – such as accelerometers, other movement
65 sensors, and multimodal detectors – can be used to alert a caregiver, but none provide advanced
66 warning to the individual experiencing the seizure [3]. Devices that aim to predict seizures are usually
67 based on the implantation of EEG registration electrodes and the development of predictive algorithms
68 [13]. However, it is still unclear if they are sufficiently accurate and practical for routine clinical

69 application. In addition, EEG device implantation carries not insignificant risks, and even when
70 deemed a reasonable option, some people may be reluctant to consider them [9].

71 During the past three decades, reports of dogs being of assistance to people with epilepsy have
72 attracted considerable attention. Dogs can be trained to recognize and take action once a seizure has
73 started. These dogs are known as Seizure Response Dogs (SRDs) and they can be taught to notify a
74 caregiver, to help the individual wake up after a seizure and to bring useful items such as a telephone
75 or medication. Some of these SRDs have been reported to spontaneously start anticipating their
76 owner's seizures [14–16], displaying one or more typical behaviours that the owner learns to interpret
77 as an alert. There is no evidence that the dog is trying to keep the owner safe, rather it is regarded as an
78 emotion that the dog is expressing in anticipation of the seizure. Interestingly, the spontaneous onset
79 of behaviour changes prior to a seizure has also been reported in pet dogs, although some authors have
80 suggested that these originate from anticipatory fear of the owner's behaviour during a seizure,
81 whereas in trained SRDs behaviour is generally associated with the expectation of a reward
82 [14,17,18].

83 In 1999, the first formally trained Seizure Alert Dogs emerged from the work of Support Dogs, a UK
84 based assistance dog training organisation [15]. Support Dogs designed a training method based on the
85 hypothesis that the dogs learn to recognize subtle changes in the behaviour of their owner before the
86 onset of a seizure. In addition, it was reported that the frequency of seizures decreased after the
87 patients received their trained dogs, supporting the notion that reduced uncertainty and the perceived
88 increase of control have a positive influence on seizure frequency [19,20].

89 Despite the substantial increase of seizure Alert Dog training and public interest, scientific information
90 is limited. In particular, no further attempts have been made to describe the population of trained and
91 untrained dogs that seem to alert seizures. In addition, no systematic study into the reliability of the
92 behaviour nor into the potentially underlying mechanisms has been performed. Reports of dogs
93 alerting to psychogenic non-epileptic seizures have raised doubts about the ability of the dogs to
94 anticipate true epileptic seizures [21,22]. Assessing to what extent dogs are consistent in anticipating
95 seizures can help to decide if it is justified to rely on them for seizure anticipation. Knowing by which
96 sensory system they detect changes in their owner before a seizure occurs, could allow for a more
97 targeted training process. Both of these issues are investigated in the currently ongoing EPIDOGS
98 project.

99 In the present article, the results of the first work package of the EPIDOGS project are presented. The
100 aim was three-fold: (1) to build an international database of trained and untrained alerting dogs and
101 their owners, for use in the other EPIDOGS work packages, (2) to investigate the behaviours displayed
102 by trained and untrained dogs that are able to anticipate seizures and (3) to identify patient- and dog
103 related factors associated with the presence or absence of anticipatory behaviour.

104 **2. Materials and Methods**

105 *2.1. Questionnaire design.*

106 We aimed to collect information from people with epilepsy living with a dog. However, the diagnosis
107 of the epilepsy was self-reported by the participant. Due to nature of the study (international online
108 survey) it was not possible to have a confirmation of the epilepsy diagnosis by a treating neurologist.
109 Therefore we will use the term ‘people with seizures’ throughout this manuscript, instead of ‘people
110 with epilepsy’.

111 To collect information about people that experience seizures and about their dogs, three questionnaires
112 were designed and administered using Survey Monkey: one for people with seizures older than 18, one
113 for parents of children with seizures and one for caregivers of people with seizures with impaired
114 capacity. Inclusion criteria were: having been diagnosed with epilepsy (self-reported diagnosis) and
115 currently living with a dog. Owning a dog displaying alerting behaviour was not a requirement to
116 participate, as we were also interested in examining differences between owners of dogs with and
117 without alerting behaviour.

118 The questionnaires were initially designed in English and then translated by native speakers into
119 Dutch, French, Italian, Spanish and German. A multi-language website (<https://epidogsproject.net>)
120 was set up, containing information about the study and links to access the questionnaires. The survey
121 was first launched in Belgium and then in the following countries: Germany, Italy, Spain, the UK and
122 the US. Countries were selected on the basis of availability of the survey in the national language or,
123 in case of multiple national languages, in at least one of them and on the possibility of obtaining an
124 ethics committee approval.

125 The questionnaires were available online from September 2017 to July 2018. In order to reach
126 participants, support organisations, social media groups and medical centres were contacted and asked
127 to display flyers both physically and via social media. Potential responders were not contacted directly
128 but went to the website on their own initiative, after learning about the study. The participants gave
129 their informed consent online and then completed the questionnaire.

130 The questionnaire consisted of 46 questions (7 multiple-choice questions, 11 open-ended questions
131 and 2 scales).

132 The first part included questions on basic demographic (age, gender, household composition, and
133 country of residence) and clinical information, including the duration, frequency and type of seizures
134 experienced (according to the preservation or loss of consciousness/awareness during the seizure),
135 presence of any pre-ictal symptoms (e.g. symptoms preceding the onset of a seizure as defined by the
136 participants, acknowledging that at least some of those symptoms could represent ictal activity not

137 identified by the participant as such), interval between the pre-ictal symptoms and the seizures, and
138 presence of seizure triggers

139 The second part of the questionnaire contained questions on the demographics of the dog and its
140 behaviour before, during and after the seizures. Questions on the circumstances of the anticipatory
141 behaviour were also included (e.g. location, when did it start, how long before the seizure, etc.).
142 Finally, the Monash Dog-Owner relationship scale (MDORS) and Monash Canine Personality
143 Questionnaire refined (MCPQ-R) were included. MDORS is a validated scale divided in three
144 subscales (“Owner-Dog Interaction”, “Perceived Emotional Closeness” and “Perceived Costs”),
145 developed to measure the bond between the owners and their dogs as perceived by the owner [25].
146 MCPQ-R is a tool to evaluate dog personality differentiating between five different personality traits:
147 Extraversion, Motivation, Training Focus, Amicability and Neuroticism [26–28].

148 The MDORS was back-translated to the 6 different languages. Since we were only interested in the
149 bond established between the person with epilepsy and their dog as perceived by that person, this scale
150 was only included in the questionnaire for adults. A previous translation [29] to French and Dutch of
151 the MCPQ-R was used. Translations for Spanish, German and Italian were not available and therefore
152 the MCPQ-R was not present in the questionnaires translated into those languages. If respondents had
153 more than one dog, they could fill out the dog-related questions, the MDORS and MCPQ-R for each
154 dog, with a maximum of four dogs.

155 *2.2. Data Analysis*

156 Contradictory responses and responses from people that declared experiencing non-epileptic seizures
157 were excluded

158 *2.2.1. Descriptive statistics*

159 Responses were divided into those from owners of dogs that alert (AD) and those from owners of dogs
160 that do not (non-alerting dogs, NADs). The ADs were further categorized into trained and untrained,
161 and the frequency of occurrence of each variable was calculated for each category. This exploratory
162 descriptive analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel 2016.

163 *2.2.2. Predictive and comparative analysis*

164 A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess distribution normality across the numerical part of the
165 data set, and to select appropriate statistical tests. Univariate binary logistic regression models were
166 used to evaluate potential predictors of the presence or absence of anticipatory behaviour in untrained
167 dogs. Breed, reproductive status (females and males, neutered or not) and dog origin were included as
168 dog-related potential predictors. Gender, age, seizure type, presence of pre-ictal symptoms, and
169 presence of triggers were included as human-related predictors. Prior to fitting the regression models,

170 predictors were first tested for multicollinearity to make sure that none of the variables included in the
171 regression were inter-associated. All variables associated with a 0.1 significance level in the univariate
172 regression were entered into a multivariate model and the results were reported as odds ratios.

173 The age of the participants was classified in 3 groups: younger than 12, between 12 and 18 and older
174 than 18. The presence of seizure triggers was coded as a binomial variable: present or absent. The
175 presence of pre-ictal symptom was recoded to include the frequency with which the symptoms
176 occurred. The categories were “No pre-ictal symptoms”, “Rarely, sometimes or half of the time” and
177 “Most of the time and every time”. The variable “type of seizures” was also recoded to create mutually
178 exclusive groups and to strengthen the model: Group I: “people with only seizures where they fall
179 down unconscious”, Group II: “people with both seizures during which they fall down unconscious
180 and seizures during which they do not fall down but are not able to respond” and Group III: “people
181 with only seizures during which they cannot respond to stimuli but they are not unconscious”. The
182 remaining three people who exclusively experienced seizures during which they could respond to
183 stimuli or seizures that were not noticed by other people were excluded from the model. The different
184 dog breeds were split into 11 groups as identified by the Federation Cynologique Internationale (FCI)
185 [30]. Since the number of “Spitzs and primitive types” was too low to include in the analysis as
186 separate group they were grouped with the “Pinscher and Schnauzer - Molossoid and Swiss Mountain
187 and Cattle dogs” groups.

188 For the cases where the patient experienced pre-ictal symptoms and had a dog that showed
189 anticipatory behaviour, a Mantel-Haenszel test of trend was run to determine whether a linear
190 association existed between the time that usually passed between the pre-ictal symptom and what the
191 respondent identified as the beginning of the seizure and the time that usually passed between an alert
192 and the start of the seizure. Both variables were classified into five categories and scored from 1 (less
193 than one minute) to 5 (more than one hour) in ascending order.

194 The MCPQ-R and MDORS scores were calculated following the procedures described by Ley et al.
195 (2007) [27] and Dwyer et al (2006) [25]. There were not enough trained dogs to compare the scores of
196 trained and untrained dogs, but since we anticipated that the owners’ perception about their dog’s
197 personality and the human-dog bonds could differ between trained and untrained dogs, the 11 trained
198 dogs were excluded from further analysis. The scores of the MCPQ-R and MDORS refer therefore
199 only to untrained dogs.

200 Regarding the MCPQ-R, the scores for the five traits of personalities of AD and NAD were compared
201 using Wilcoxon signed rank tests. Wilcoxon signed rank tests were also used to compare the MDORS
202 scores of ADs and NADs. The total score was compared as well as the three different sub-scales: the
203 “Dog-owner relationship”, the “Perceived Emotional Closeness” and the “Perceived costs”.

204 These statistical analysis were performed using SPSS 25.

205 **3. Results**

206 A total of 238 complete responses to the dog owner questionnaire were received: 33 from Belgium, 10
207 from Germany, 73 from Italy, 70 from the UK, 27 from the US and 14 from Spain. Eleven responses
208 came from countries not included in the study and were dropped, leading to 227 respondents included
209 in the analysis. Since respondents were given the chance of completing the dog-related questions for
210 more than one dog, data from 247 dogs were collected and analysed.

211 *3.1. Information about the owners*

212 Of the 227 respondents, 176 (74%) were adults with self-reported epilepsy, 27 (12%) were parents or
213 guardians of children younger than 12, 15 (15%) were parents of children older than 12 and 9 (4%)
214 were caregivers of people with impaired capacity. The average age of the people with seizures was 31
215 years (range 2-71), 72% of them identified themselves as females, 26% as males and 2% as other. 92%
216 of the owners of AD and 89% of the owners of NAD live together in the same household with at least
217 one adult.

218 Table 1 summarize the seizure-related information collected from the participants according to the
219 capacity of their dogs to alert.

220 Regarding the frequency of the seizures, most of the people that experience seizures with complete
221 loss of consciousness, experienced them less than once a month (57%), 21% experienced them once a
222 week and only a 5% experienced them daily. Seizures without unconsciousness but with impaired
223 responsiveness occurred also less than once a month in a 34% of the participants, 28% of them
224 experienced them once per week and 17% daily. Most of the participants indicated that they
225 experience some type of pre-ictal symptom (82%).

226 From the 227 responses received, 142 (63%) respondents declared to currently live with one or more
227 AD. The percentage of adults living with AD (62%) was similar to the percentage of children (64%).

Type of seizure according to the responsiveness status	Living with AD	Living with NAD	All
Person is completely unconscious and falls down,	77% (109)	82% (109)	79% (179)
Person does not fall down but cannot respond normally to environment	72% (102)	79% (67)	74% (169)
Person is able to respond normally to environment	49% (70)	34% (29)	44% (99)
Seizures that no one else notices	66% (94)	53% (45)	61% (139)
Type of Pre-Ictal Symptom	AD	NAD	All
Funny feeling in the head	51% (73)	39% (33)	47% (106)
Funny feeling coming from the stomach	25% (36)	22% (19)	24% (55)
Tingling sensation	24% (34)	19% (16)	22% (50)
Visual symptoms	29% (41)	15% (13)	24% (54)
Auditory symptoms	11% (16)	13% (11)	12% (27)
Olfactory symptoms	13% (19)	8% (7)	11% (26)
Particular taste	15% (22)	9% (8)	13% (30)
Hunger, stomach sensation	18% (25)	19% (16)	18% (41)
Tiredness	35% (50)	24% (20)	31% (70)
Headache	31% (44)	27% (23)	30% (67)
Memory	35% (50)	33% (28)	34% (78)
Emotional symptoms	35% (50)	25% (21)	31% (71)
Sweating	22% (31)	20% (17)	21% (48)
Difficulty to speak	37% (53)	25% (21)	33% (74)
Problems of concentration	37% (52)	27% (23)	33% (75)
No symptoms	13% (18)	27% (23)	18% (41)
Others	8% (11)	2% (2)	6% (13)
Time between pre-ictal symptom and seizures	AD	NAD	All
Less than 1 minute	47% (54)	41% (24)	45% (78)
1-5 minutes	21% (24)	28% (16)	23% (40)
5-30 minutes	16% (18)	9% (5)	13% (23)
30-60 minutes	12% (14)	10% (6)	11% (20)
More than 1 hour	5% (6)	12% (7)	7% (13)
Seizure Triggers	AD	NAD	All
Lack of sleep	75% (106)	76% (65)	75% (171)
Stress	78% (111)	73% (62)	76% (173)
Alcohol	16% (23)	16% (14)	16% (37)
Menstruation	39% (39)	28% (18)	35% (57)
Flashing lights	20% (29)	27% (23)	23% (52)
Missing Medication	57% (81)	52% (44)	55% (125)
Other	22% (31)	24% (20)	22% (51)
None	3% (4)	6% (5)	4% (9)

228

229 **Table 1:** Summary of the seizure-related information received, expressed as the percentage (and total number) of
230 participants from each group that indicated each one of the non-mutually exclusive options. **AD:** alerting dog;
231 **NAD:** non alerting dog; **All:** all participants.

232 *3.2. Information about the dogs with anticipatory behaviour*

233 In total, 160 dogs (65%) were described to display alerting behaviour. 10 dogs had been trained as AD
234 and one had been trained as SRD but did not display alerting behaviour. 21 respondents filled in the
235 dog-related part of the questionnaire for more than one dog. Of those, two people have two trained
236 ADs each, 7 respondents live with two untrained ADs, 10 respondents have at least one AD and one or
237 more NADs, and 2 have more than one NAD and no AD.

238 *3.2.1. Trained dogs*

239 A summary of the information obtained regarding the location and time when the alerting behaviours
240 usually happen can be found in table 2. 30% of ADs whose owners always experience pre-ictal
241 symptoms had displayed the behaviours when they were in a different room than the owner or while
242 the owner was sleeping. This rose to more than 60% of ADs belonging to owners that never
243 experience pre-ictal symptoms.

244 The most frequent alerting behaviours described (Figure 1) were licking the owner – most frequently
245 the hands – and staying close to the owner. Both of these behaviours were described for 70% of the
246 trained dogs. Staring at the owner was also a frequent behaviour with 60% of the trained dogs
247 displaying it before a seizure. Other behaviours described were sitting next to the owner (30%) and
248 touching the owner with a paw or the head (20%). One dog had additionally been trained to perform
249 special behaviours like fetching the phone and attracting the caregiver's attention.

250 *3.2.2. Untrained dogs*

251 Regarding the location of the alerting behaviour, most of the dogs had alerted when they were in the
252 same room as the owner while alerting in the other situations described was less frequent (Table 2).

253 According to their owners, 36% of the untrained dogs started spontaneously anticipating the seizures
254 from the first time they witnessed a seizure. 14% started during the first month and 14% between the
255 first and the sixth month of living together. Another 36% started after one year or more.

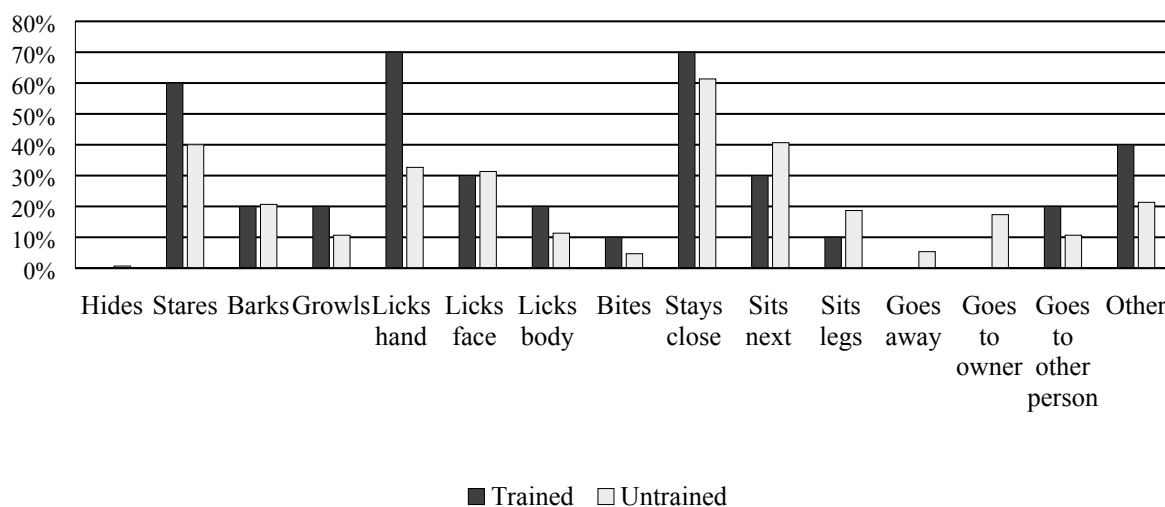
	Location of the alert	Trained	Untrained
256			
257	At home in the same room as the participant	89% (8)	89% (8)
	At home in different rooms	89% (8)	33% (49)
258	The owner was sleeping	78% (7)	32% (48)
	In the street	100% (9)	22% (33)
259	In a shop/supermarket/ another public building	100% (9)	7% (11)
	In other people's house	89% (8)	13% (20)
260	In a place with many other people	89% (8)	17% (25)
	In a place with few or no people	89% (8)	25% (37)
261	Other	0% (0)	8% (12)
262	Anticipation time	Trained	Untrained
	0-1 minutes	0% (0)	27% (35)
263	1-10 minutes	0% (0)	36% (47)
	10-30 minutes	37% (3)	14% (18)
264	30-60 minutes	63% (5)	11% (14)
	More than 60 minutes	0% (0)	11% (15)
265			

266 **Table 2.** Summary of the information received about the circumstances surrounding the alerting behaviours, expressed as the
267 percentage (and total number) of participants from each group with trained or untrained dogs that indicated each one of the
268 options.

269 The most frequent alerting behaviours according to respondents were staying close to the owners
270 (62%) and licking them (48%) (Figure 1). Licking the hands and the face are equally frequent and
271 often happen together. Sitting next to the owner (41%), staring (40%), and vocalizing (32%) i.e.
272 barking, growling, whining, etc. were other frequently reported behaviours.

273 21% of the dogs displayed “other behaviours” different to the ones offered in the questionnaire. Most
274 people described attention seeking behaviours like jumping, trying to get close, etc. Some people
275 described the affective state of the dog using adjectives like “anxious”, “restless” or “desperate” and
276 mentioned behaviours that can be interpreted as related to fear or anxiety related such as whining,
277 trembling, “won’t go near the person with epilepsy”, etc. One dog was described to get “irritable with
278 other dogs” before the seizures and another would get aggressive with people trying to go near the
279 owner.

Alerting behaviours



281 **Figure 1:** Percentage of trained and untrained dogs that displayed particular alerting behaviours.

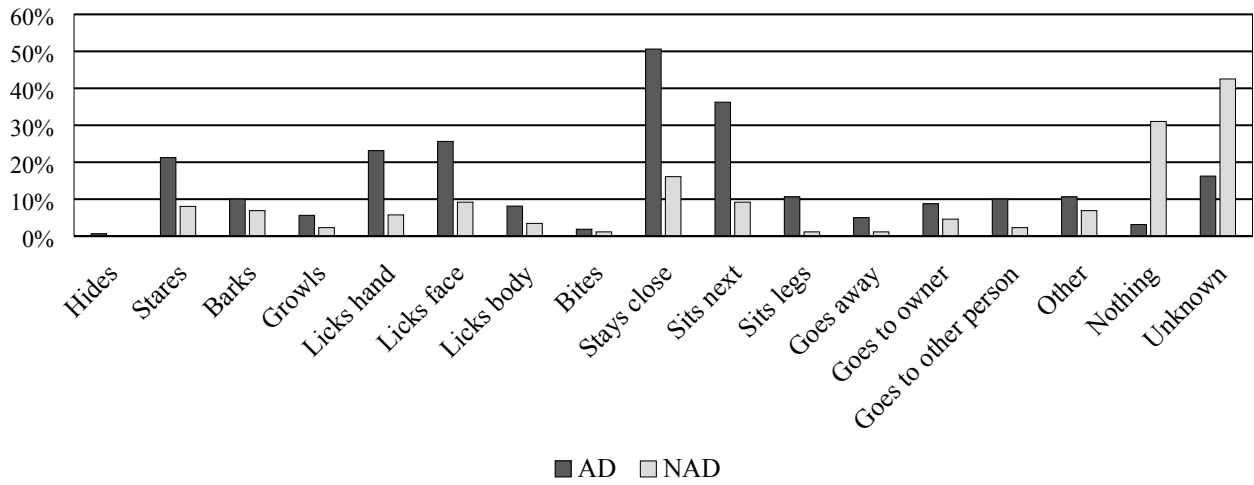
282 3.2.3. Alerting vs Non-Alerting Dogs

283 Figure 2 shows a descriptive comparison of the behaviours during and after the seizures of ADs and
284 NADs.

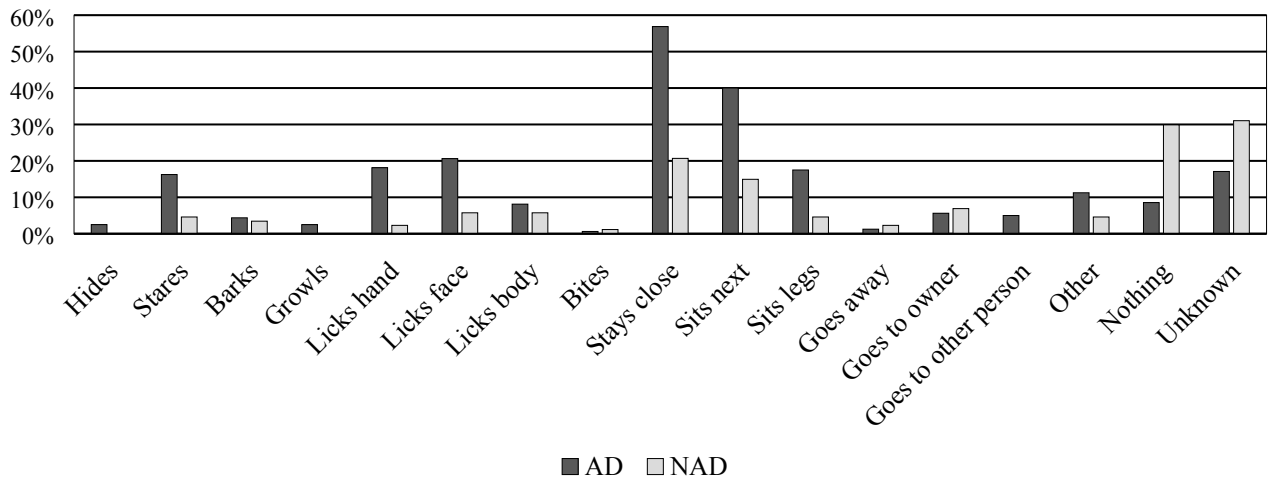
285 During the seizures, most ADs stay close to the owner (51%) or sit next to them (36%), while only
286 16% of NADs stay close and only 9% sit next to their owner. Licking the hands (23%) and face (26%)
287 were also frequently described by owners of ADs. For NADs, the most frequently reported behaviour
288 was no reaction (31%), this was considerably higher than for ADs (3%). 16% of the owners of ADs
289 indicated that they did not know the behaviour of their dogs, compared to 43% of the owners of
290 NADs.

291 Similarly, after seizures, respondents indicated that the most common behaviours displayed by ADs
292 were staying close to the owners (57%) and/or sitting next to them (40%). The percentage of NADs
293 that displayed those behaviours was considerably lower. Only 21% of NADs were reported as staying
294 close to the owner and 36% sitting next to them.

Behaviours during the seizures



Behaviours after the seizures



295 **Figure 2.** Percentage of alerting (AD) and non-alerting dogs (NAD) that display each behaviour before, during
 296 and after seizures.

297 *3.3. Predictive statistics*

298 Univariate predictors of the presence of alerting behaviour in untrained dogs are presented in table 3.

Variable	Wald	d.f.	Sig.
Dog Breed	6.907	7	0.439
Dog Age when Arrived	4.278	2	0.041
Dog Reproductive Status	1.274	3	0.735
Owner Gender	0.023	1	0.911
Owner Age	0.400	2	0.819
Pre-Ictal Symptoms	9.501	2	0.009
Triggers	3.059	1	0.080
Type of seizure	1.797	2	0.409

299

300 **Table 3.** Results of the univariate logistic regression for potential predictors of the presence of alerting behaviour.

301 Presence of pre-ictal symptoms, dog age when arriving home and presence of triggers were included
 302 in a multivariable model ($\chi^2(4) = 14.909$; $p = 0.005$). Only the presence of pre-ictal symptoms
 303 remained significant ($p = 0.015$). Pre-ictal symptoms that occurred “most of the time” or “every time”
 304 were associated with the occurrence of anticipatory behaviour (O.R.:3.004; $p = 0.004$).

305 *3.4. Comparative statistics*

306 The Mantel-Haenszel test of trend showed a strong, statistically significant linear association between
 307 time between pre-ictal symptoms and seizures and times between alerting behaviours and seizures
 308 ($\chi^2(16) = 21.36$; $p < 0.001$; $r = 0.445$). Shorter times between pre-ictal symptoms and seizures were
 309 associated with shorter times between alerting behaviours and seizures, and vice-versa.

310 *3.5. Monash Canine Personality Questionnaire refined*

311 Data for a total of 147 dogs were analysed. Significant differences were found between NADs and
 312 spontaneous ADs in the traits of Motivation (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -2.436$; $n = 135$; $p =$
 313 0.015), Training focus (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -2.078$; $n = 117$; $p = 0.032$) and Amicability
 314 (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -2.147$; $n = 134$; $p = 0.032$). The scores for those three traits were
 315 significantly higher in ADs than in NADs. There were no significant differences for Extraversion ($p =$
 316 0.315) and Neuroticism ($p = 0.074$)

317 *3.6. Monash Dog-Owner relationship scales*

318 The total Dog-Owner Relationship Score, calculated using the three sub-scales [25], was significantly
 319 higher for ADs and their owners compared to NADs (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -1.992$; $n = 166$;
 320 $p = 0.046$). Although there were no significant differences in the sub-scales “Emotional-Closeness” (p

321 = 0.131) or “Interaction” ($p = 0,400$), the score for the sub-scale “Costs” was significantly higher for
322 ADs (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test: $z = -3.088$; $n = 166$; $p = 0.002$)

323 **4. Discussion**

324 To our knowledge, this is the first study that includes a large, international population of people who
325 report having epilepsy and are living with seizure alerting dogs, thereby expanding and updating
326 previous studies that focused on small, local populations [16,18]. It offers a description of peri-ictal
327 dog behaviours together with some clinical information that helps to build a context around the
328 occurrence of these behaviours. In addition, the use of validated dog personality and human-dog bond
329 scales provides, for the first time, a description of dog personality traits that seem to be strongly
330 related to spontaneously alerting dogs and suggests that the ability to display alerting behaviours may
331 influence the human-dog bond as perceived by the owner. Finally we compared the responses of
332 owners of alerting and non-alerting dogs to identify potential factors that may be associated with the
333 presence of alerting behaviours.

334 *4.1 Database of owners of ADs*

335 The first aim of the study was to build an international database of people with seizures who own an
336 AD, for future research in the EPIDOGS project. Most of the participants were adults with a self-
337 reported diagnosis of epilepsy.

338 There was a notable difference in participation across countries. Most responses came from Italy and
339 the UK while there was low participation in more populous countries like the USA and Germany. This
340 could be due to a greater difficulty spreading the information about the questionnaire in those
341 countries.

342 Although it was emphasised that having an AD was not necessary to participate, it is likely that people
343 who thought their dogs had alerting abilities were more likely to take part, resulting in an
344 overrepresentation of ADs. Nevertheless, the number of participants with NADs was large enough to
345 make meaningful comparisons with ADs.

346 Considering that there do not seem to be epidemiological differences in the incidence of epilepsy
347 between males and females [31], women seem to be overrepresented in this study, in line with existing
348 evidence indicating that women are more likely to participate in online questionnaires than men
349 [32,33].

350 In our study, the type and frequency of seizures showed a large variability which is in line with
351 population data on seizure epidemiology [34]. Most of the participants reported experiencing different
352 types of seizures, with seizures causing complete loss of consciousness being particularly common, as
353 it has also been previously reported in other population studies [34]. The majority of participants

354 experienced seizures once a month or less. A large percentage of the participants, notably higher than
355 previously reported in the literature [35,36], experience pre-ictal symptoms before what they identify
356 as the onset of the seizures.

357 As stated before, it was not possible to confirm that all participants had indeed been diagnosed with
358 epilepsy. Consequently, our sample could contain participants without any seizures or with
359 psychogenic non-epileptic seizures (PNES), who knowingly or unknowingly provided incorrect
360 information. The former is an issue for any study, like the current one, that uses snowballing and open
361 access to a survey. To attempt to counter this, information on the questionnaire was spread exclusively
362 through epilepsy support associations, epilepsy study groups and medical centres. This will not,
363 unfortunately, keep participants with PNES from participating as they are frequently referred to these
364 centres [37]. Participants in our study with PNES may have provided answers that are determined by
365 their psychological condition [37,38]. Based on the overrepresentation of women in our sample and
366 the correlation cited in literature between the female gender and the higher likelihood to have PNES
367 [38], we could assume to have several participants with PNES. However, the overrepresentation of
368 women may also be due to the fact that they are more likely to fill out online surveys in general
369 [32,33]. In addition, although Krauss [39] suggested that PNES patients may tend to seek the help of
370 an assistance dog more often than other people, most of the dogs in this study were pet dogs or trained
371 dogs from organisations that require an epilepsy diagnosis before a patient can enter the training
372 programme. Nevertheless, for future research based on the currently established database,
373 confirmation of the diagnosis will have to be sought from the treating neurologist.

374 *4.2. Differences between ADs and NADs*

375 *4.2.1. Owner-related factors*

376 The presence of pre-ictal symptoms was a good predictor of alerting behaviour of the dog. In addition,
377 interval between the onset of the symptoms and the seizures as identified by the participants was
378 positively correlated with the time between the presentation of the alerting behaviour and the seizures.
379 One possible explanation for both findings is that the pre-ictal symptoms, directly or indirectly, may
380 trigger the alerting behaviour of the dog. Most of these symptoms happen in the 30 minutes before the
381 observable seizure, and it is likely that at least some of them represented a sensory ictal phenomenon
382 (aura) possibly associated with subtle physiological or behavioural changes to which the dog may be
383 reacting [21,36,40]. This change of behaviour could act as a cue for the dog whether the owners are
384 aware of it or not. Alternatively, it is possible that the owners, when experiencing pre-ictal symptoms,
385 tend to be more attentive to the dogs and/or tend to interpret the behaviour of the dog as an alert.
386 Finally, the finding that pre-ictal symptoms are a predictor of dog alerting behaviour could explain the
387 overrepresentation in the questionnaire of participants that experience pre-ictal symptoms as they more
388 often have alerting dogs and possibly were more likely to participate in the study.

389 Alerting behaviour was unrelated to the gender and age of the owner as reported by Dalziel et al. [18].
390 On the other hand, Kirton et al. found that alerting behaviour is more common in dogs living with
391 children with epilepsy than in dogs living with adults [15].

392 Since it was anticipated that some of the participants may not know the precise medical terms for their
393 specific seizure types, a classification according to awareness and responsiveness status [41] was also
394 offered. We found that, using this classification, seizure type was not a good predictor of dogs' ability
395 to anticipate seizures.

396 According to their owners, a high percentage of non-trained ADs started alerting from the first time
397 they were exposed to a seizure. This finding was also reported in Kirton et al. [16] and could suggest
398 that these dogs reacted to a change that they sensed in the owner before the onset of the first seizure.
399 This would imply that they are not truly anticipating the seizure, as anticipatory behaviour is
400 considered to be the result of a learning process [42,43] where the dog learns, due to repeated
401 exposure, that there is an association between a cue (behavioural, auditive, olfactory or other) that
402 precedes the seizure and the seizure itself. However, we cannot exclude the possibility of recall-bias,
403 as some owners may not accurately remember the exact point in time when the dog started displaying
404 the behaviours.

405 In this study, most people reported that their dog alerts when in the same room. However, similarly to
406 the study by Dalziel et al. [18], dog owners who completed the present questionnaire often described
407 being asleep or in different rooms when their dogs displayed alerting behaviours. In fact, one third of
408 the ADs belonging to participants that always experience pre-ictal symptoms were reported to display
409 alerting behaviours when the owner was sleeping or in a different room. This may further support the
410 theory that some dogs react to an olfactory or auditory cue rather than only relying on the owner's
411 behavioural changes.

412 *4.2.2. Dog-related factors*

413 As previously reported in SRDs that had started alerting [15], standing next to the owner was the most
414 frequent behaviour displayed, together with licking the owner's face or hands and staring. Behaviours
415 potentially dangerous for the owner or suggestive of distress and/or fear in untrained dogs, previously
416 described in the literature [17], were reported with a low frequency.

417 Regarding the behaviours displayed once the seizure had started, ADs that stayed initially next to the
418 owner tended to remain in the same position during and after the seizure. Licking was also frequent in
419 ADs once the seizure had started and until the owner had recovered. Most of NADs were reported not
420 to change behaviour during or after the seizure. Although fear-related behaviours have been previously
421 described in spontaneously alerting dogs [17], the occurrence of those behaviours was low in the

422 questionnaire. It is possible, however, that owners perceiving the behaviour of their dog as negative
423 may have been less like to participate in the questionnaire.

424 Neither the reproductive state, breed nor origin of the dog were predictors of the development of
425 alerting behaviours. This finding has also been reported in the previous studies [16,18]

426 There were differences between ADs and NADs in some of the personality traits explored by the
427 MCPQ-R. ADs scored significantly higher in motivation, amicability and training focus. In contrast,
428 neurotic animals were less likely to alert, although the difference was not statistically significant. This
429 conflicts with the common belief that dogs defined as nervous or anxious start alerting because they
430 tend to be more attentive to their environment. Some training organisations approached for this study,
431 declared that they look for certain personality traits in potential trainee dogs (personal
432 communication), some of which have been associated with the personality traits described by the
433 MCPQ-R, such as self-confidence (low neuroticism), problem solving abilities and play-drive
434 (training focus) etc. [44,45]. However, due to the small number of trained ADs in this study, it was not
435 possible to perform a comparison between the trained and untrained groups.

436 The human-dog bond differed substantially in the “Perceived costs” subscale, with ADs scoring
437 significantly higher than NADs. These costs not only refer to the economic costs of dog ownership but
438 also to other negative aspects such as disruption of normal routines or increased responsibility [25].

439 Owners of ADs gave less importance to these negative effects of owning a dog compared with owners
440 of NADs. However, there were no significant differences in the subscales “Interaction” or “Emotional
441 closeness”. The Total Bond Score, calculated using the three subscales, was also significantly higher
442 for AD owners suggesting that the perceived cost-benefit or value of dog ownership is influenced by
443 the owner’s perception that the animal alerts them.

444 *4.3. Differences between trained and untrained dogs*

445 The number of owners of trained ADs was insufficient for formal comparisons with spontaneously
446 alerting dogs, but signals suggesting differences between trained and untrained dogs emerged. The
447 main difference was in anticipation time, with the interval between the onset of alerting behaviour and
448 the onset of an observable seizure being more consistent (always between 10 and 60 minutes) in
449 trained dogs. These results are similar to the ones presented by Brown and Strong of dogs trained by
450 Support Dogs [20] who reported that their ADs displayed the behaviours between 15 and 45 minutes
451 before the seizure. In contrast, untrained dogs varied between less than 1 minute and 48 hours in
452 advance. This could reflect the fact that trained dogs have all been trained to react to the same cue,
453 selected by the trainers – i.e. changes in behaviour in Support Dogs’ case – that appears during that
454 particular time window. Conversely, untrained dogs could be reacting to different cues that they have
455 come to identify as a sign of an oncoming seizure. The main anticipatory behaviours were similar in

456 both groups, although untrained dogs displayed a wider range of behaviours. Only one participant
457 owned an SRD but it had not developed any alerting behaviour.

458

459 **5. Conclusion**

460 The main objective of this study was to study the population of ADs as perceived by their owners and
461 to find potential differences with NADs. Most of the participants identified behavioural changes in
462 their dogs before their perceived onset of seizures, and this was associated with the presence of pre-
463 ictal symptoms. The presence of seizure alerting behaviour may have a positive influence on the bond
464 between the owner and the dog. The results are largely consistent with existing reports but include a
465 wider international population.

466 Further research is needed to investigate the relationship between pre-ictal symptoms experienced by
467 people with a confirmed epilepsy diagnosis and the spontaneous occurrence of alerting behaviours in
468 their dogs, as well as the mechanisms that trigger the alerting behaviours in both epilepsy and PNES
469 patients.

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- 590

Type of seizure according with the awareness status	Living with AD	Living with NAD	All
Person is completely unconscious and falls down,	77% (109)	82% (109)	79% (179)
Person does not fall down but cannot respond normally to environment	72% (102)	79% (67)	74% (169)
Person is able to respond normally to environment	49% (70)	34% (29)	44% (99)
Seizures that no one else notices	66% (94)	53% (45)	61% (139)
Type of Pre-Ictal Symptom	AD	NAD	All
Funny feeling in the head	51% (73)	39% (33)	47% (106)
Funny feeling coming from the stomach	25% (36)	22% (19)	24% (55)
Tingling sensation	24% (34)	19% (16)	22% (50)
Visual symptoms	29% (41)	15% (13)	24% (54)
Auditory symptoms	11% (16)	13% (11)	12% (27)
Olfactory symptoms	13% (19)	8% (7)	11% (26)
Particular taste	15% (22)	9% (8)	13% (30)
Hunger, stomach sensation	18% (25)	19% (16)	18% (41)
Tiredness	35% (50)	24% (20)	31% (70)
Headache	31% (44)	27% (23)	30% (67)
Memory	35% (50)	33% (28)	34% (78)
Emotional symptoms	35% (50)	25% (21)	31% (71)
Sweating	22% (31)	20% (17)	21% (48)
Difficulty to speak	37% (53)	25% (21)	33% (74)
Problems of concentration	37% (52)	27% (23)	33% (75)
No symptoms	13% (18)	27% (23)	18% (41)
Others	8% (11)	2% (2)	6% (13)
Time between pre-ictal symptom and seizures	AD	NAD	All
Less than 1 minute	47% (54)	41% (24)	45% (78)
1-5 minutes	21% (24)	28% (16)	23% (40)
5-30 minutes	16% (18)	9% (5)	13% (23)
30-60 minutes	12% (14)	10% (6)	11% (20)
More than 1 hour	5% (6)	12% (7)	7% (13)
Seizure Triggers	AD	NAD	All
Lack of sleep	75% (106)	76% (65)	75% (171)
Stress	78% (111)	73% (62)	76% (173)
Alcohol	16% (23)	16% (14)	16% (37)
Menstruation	39% (39)	28% (18)	35% (57)
Flashing lights	20% (29)	27% (23)	23% (52)
Missing Medication	57% (81)	52% (44)	55% (125)
Other	22% (31)	24% (20)	22% (51)
None	3% (4)	6% (5)	4% (9)

Table 1: Summary of the seizure-related information received, expressed as the percentage (and total number) of participants from each group that indicated each one of the non-mutually exclusive options. **AD:** alerting dog; **NAD:** non alerting dog; **All:** all participants.

Location of the alert	Trained	Untrained
At home in the same room as the participant	89% (8)	89% (8)
At home in different rooms	89% (8)	33% (49)
The owner was sleeping	78% (7)	32% (48)
In the street	100% (9)	22% (33)
In a shop/supermarket/ another public building	100% (9)	7% (11)
In other people's house	89% (8)	13% (20)
In a place with many other people	89% (8)	17% (25)
In a place with few or no people	89% (8)	25% (37)
Other	0% (0)	8% (12)
Anticipation time	Trained	Untrained
0-1 minutes	0% (0)	27% (35)
1-10 minutes	0% (0)	36% (47)
10-30 minutes	37% (3)	14% (18)
30-60 minutes	63% (5)	11% (14)
More than 60 minutes	0% (0)	11% (15)

Variable	Wald	d.f.	Sig.
Dog Breed	6.907	7	0.439
Dog Age when Arrived	4.278	2	0.041
Dog Reproductive Status	1.274	3	0.735
Owner Gender	0.023	1	0.911
Owner Age	0.400	2	0.819
Pre-Ictal Symptoms	9.501	2	0.009
Triggers	3.059	1	0.080
Type of seizure	1.797	2	0.409