

RVC OPEN ACCESS REPOSITORY – COPYRIGHT NOTICE

This is the peer-reviewed, manuscript version of an article published in *Veterinary Record*. The version of record is available on the journal site. The full details of the published version of the article are as follows:

TITLE: Spatiotemporal patterns and agroecological risk factors for cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (Alabama Rot) in dogs in the UK

AUTHORS: Stevens, K B; Jepson, R; Holm, L; Walker, D; Cardwell, J M

JOURNAL TITLE: *Veterinary Record*

PUBLISHER: BMJ Publishing Group

PUBLICATION DATE: 27 August 2018 (online)

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/vr.104892>

1 **Spatio-temporal patterns and agro-ecological risk factors for cutaneous and renal glomerular**
2 **vasculopathy (Alabama Rot) in dogs in the UK**

3

4 **Kim B Stevens^{a*}, Rosanne Jepson^b, Laura Holm^c, David Walker^c, Jacqueline M Cardwell^a**

5

6

7 *Corresponding author: Kim Stevens (Royal Veterinary College, Hawkshead Lane, North Mymms, Hatfield,
8 Hertfordshire, AL9 7TA; kstevens@rvc.ac.uk

9

10

11

12 ^a Department of Pathobiology and Population Sciences, Royal Veterinary College, Hawkshead Lane, North
13 Mymms, Hatfield, Hertfordshire, AL9 7TA, UK

14 ^b Department of Clinical Science and Services, Royal Veterinary College, Hawkshead Lane, North Mymms,
15 Hatfield, Hertfordshire, AL9 7TA, UK

16 ^c Anderson Moores Veterinary Specialists, Bunstead Barns, Poles Lane, Hursley, Winchester SO21 2LL, UK

17

1 **Abstract**

2 The annual outbreaks of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) reported in UK dogs
3 displays a distinct seasonal pattern (November-May) suggesting possible climatic drivers of the
4 disease. Objectives of this study were to explore disease clustering and identify associations between
5 agro-ecological factors and CRGV occurrence. Kernel-smoothed maps were generated to show the
6 annual reporting distribution of CRGV, Kuldorff's space-time permutation statistic used to identify
7 significant spatio-temporal case clusters and a boosted regression tree model developed to quantify
8 associations between CRGV case locations and a range of agro-ecological factors. The majority of
9 diagnoses (92 %) were reported between November and May while the number of regions reporting
10 the disease increased between 2012 and 2017. Two significant spatio-temporal clusters were
11 identified - one in the New Forest during February and March 2013, and one adjacent to it (April
12 2015-May 2017) - showing significantly higher and lower proportions of cases than the rest of the
13 UK, respectively for the indicated time-periods. A moderately significant high-risk cluster ($p = 0.087$)
14 was also identified in the Manchester area of northern England between February and April 2014.
15 Habitat was the predictor with the highest relative contribution to CRGV distribution (20.3 %). Cases
16 were generally associated with woodlands, increasing mean maximum temperatures in winter, spring
17 and autumn, increasing mean rainfall in winter and spring, and decreasing cattle and sheep density.
18 Understanding of such factors may help develop causal models for CRGV occurrence.

19

20

21

22

23 **Keywords:** *Alabama Rot; boosted regression trees; CRGV; epidemiology; risk factors; space-*
24 *time permutation statistic*

25

26

1 **Introduction**

2 Cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) – also known as ‘Alabama Rot’ - is a disease
3 of unknown aetiology variably associated with clinically relevant acute kidney injury (AKI). CRGV
4 cases present with ulcerated skin lesions, most often affecting the distal limbs, progressing within 1-
5 10 days to the development of AKI in some, but not all cases. Skin lesions have also been found to
6 affect the face, nasal planum, oral cavity, tongue, ventrum and flanks. Additional biochemical and
7 haematological findings commonly reported include mild to moderate hyperbilirubinaemia, anaemia
8 and moderate to severe thrombocytopenia (Holm and others 2015).

9 A study by Holm et al which reported on the renal histopathology of CRGV cases confirmed the
10 lesions to be compatible with a thrombotic microangiopathy (TMA) (Holm and others 2015). In
11 human medicine, TMAs are considered a complex group of diseases which can involve both
12 hereditary and acquired contributing factors to the development of clinical disease (George and Nester
13 2014). Hereditary factors that have been identified include mutations in ADAMTS13 which result in
14 the condition known as thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP), complement factors, metabolic
15 factors (MMACHC; methyl-malonic aciduria and homocystinuria type C protein) and diacylglycerol
16 kinase- ϵ (DKGE) - an abnormality of which results in a prothrombotic state. Autoantibody inhibition
17 of ADAMTS13, shiga-toxin exposure (shiga toxin-haemolytic uraemic syndrome), drug, toxin or
18 complement immune mediated acquired forms of TMA also occur (George and Nester 2014).
19 Preliminary investigations evaluating the existence of underlying infectious or toxic exposure (e.g.
20 shiga-toxin), have so far been unsuccessful (Holm and others 2015).

21 There has been much speculation in the general and non-peer reviewed veterinary press on the
22 possible existence of an association between CRGV occurrence and either specific habitats or weather
23 conditions since the majority of early cases occurred in the New Forest in southeastern England.
24 However, it is unclear whether this apparent connection is simply the result of the coincident locale of
25 the referral veterinary center (LH&DW) that initially raised awareness of CRGV as a disease entity,
26 or a true association. In addition, the UK outbreaks have so far displayed a distinct seasonal pattern
27 with cases generally reported between November and May. Such cyclical occurrence of a disease
28 often signifies the involvement of climatic factors, and the objectives of this study were to therefore
29 explore associations between a range of agro-ecological factors and CRGV locations, as well as map
30 and explore the distribution of cases between 2012 and 2017. The results of this study may help
31 develop causal models for CRGV, assist with validation of current and future proposed pathogenic
32 mechanisms and play a role in identifying the aetiology of the disease.

1 **Materials and methods**

2 All CRGV cases diagnosed between November 2012 and May 2017 were included in the analysis.
3 Although one case was reported from Northern Ireland within this time period, it did not have
4 locational data and was therefore excluded from the spatial, but retained for the temporal analysis.

5 *Identification of cases*

6 Cases were compiled by two investigators (DW & LH) and comprised 70 (68 %) from first-opinion
7 practice and 33 (32 %) from referral centres. A diagnosis of CRGV was based on the presence of
8 compatible clinical signs (including skin lesions), laboratory diagnostics (including AKI +/- oligo-
9 anuria, progression to azotaemia, hyperbilirubinaemia, anaemia and thrombocytopenia) and renal
10 histopathology findings compatible with thrombotic microangiopathy. Renal histopathology was
11 available either in isolation or as part of a full post-mortem examination in all cases, and in most cases
12 dermal pathology was also available.

13 The residential postcode of all CRGV cases was available together with the postcode of where the dog
14 had been recently walked, if markedly different from the residential postcode (e.g. owners had been
15 on holiday in the New Forest area yet normally resided in a different part of the country). Where the
16 residential and walked postcodes differed (n = 5), both postcodes were included in the dataset creating
17 a dataset of 107 postcodes for inclusion in the spatial analysis. Postcodes were converted to Easting
18 and Northing Cartesian coordinates and the British National Grid projection used for all spatial
19 analyses.

20 *Agro-ecological data*

21 As nothing is known about the environmental epidemiology of CRGV a broad general selection of
22 agro-ecological predictors was identified for initial inclusion in the model and the necessary digital
23 spatial data layers sourced as detailed in Table 1. Soil drainage, fertility, habitat and landcover were
24 extracted from the 1:250 000 NATMAP SoilScapes map for England and Wales. There is no such
25 map available for Scotland and therefore the spatial modelling was confined to England and Wales,
26 and all other predictor data were clipped to this extent. Cattle, sheep and pig densities were extracted
27 from Gridded Livestock of the World (<http://www.fao.org/ag/againfo/resources/en/glw/home.html>),
28 and climate data extracted from the United Kingdom's Met Office gridded land surface climate
29 observations (monthly climate variables at 5km resolution) held by the Centre for Environmental Data
30 Analysis (<http://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/87f43af9d02e42f483351d79b3d6162a>).

31 For the purpose of analysis, the six soil drainage and 14 habitat categories were retained, but the 12
32 original soil fertility categories were collapsed into six categories as follows: high; moderate-to-high;
33 moderate; low (low + very low); lime-rich (lime rich + lime rich to moderate + lime rich to very low +

1 low to lime rich) and mixed (low to high + low to moderate). The original landcover categories were
2 retained.

3 Climatic variables downloaded included monthly data for mean temperature, maximum temperature,
4 minimum temperature, rainfall, rain-days-1mm, rain-days-10mm, air frost and ground frost. These
5 data were downloaded for the period September 2011 to December 2016 (2017 data was unavailable).
6 Although the first cases were recorded in November 2011, climate data for the preceding two months
7 were included to allow for the creation of the Autumn 2011 variables (September-November),
8 resulting in six years of Autumn data but only five years of data for the remaining seasons. The
9 variables snow-falling and snow-lying would have been included in the analysis but the data were not
10 available post 2011. As reporting of CRGV cases has displayed a strong seasonal pattern with cases
11 occurring primarily in winter and spring, rather than use monthly or annual data, monthly climatic
12 variables were aggregated to create seasonal versions of each variable on the following basis: Spring
13 (March- May), Summer (June-August), Autumn (September-November) and Winter (December-
14 February). For each of the three months comprising a season, the relevant monthly raster maps were
15 summed and divided by 18 (Autumn) or 15 (Spring, Summer, Winter) to create a mean seasonal
16 version of each climatic variable. The final climatic variables included in the model for each season
17 were: mean temperature, mean maximum temperature, mean minimum temperature, mean rainfall,
18 mean number of days with rainfall > 1mm, mean number of days with rainfall > 10mm, mean number
19 of days experiencing ground frost and mean number of days experiencing air frost (Table 1).

20 All layers were resampled to a resolution of 1 km² and clipped to the England-Wales extent. ArcGIS
21 software 10.5.1 was used to extract values of each predictor variable to the case and background data
22 points to create the complete dataset, which was then randomly divided into training, validation and
23 test sub-datasets comprising 60, 20 and 20 % of the data points respectively.

24 *Mapping the spatio-temporal distribution of cases*

25 A heatmap was created using the R tidyverse package (R Development Core Team 2011; Wickham
26 2016) to illustrate the temporal reporting pattern of CRGV cases between 2012 and 2017 by both
27 month and year. Kernel-smoothed maps were generated for individual years and for the study period
28 as a whole to show the spatial distribution of cases. Optimum bandwidth was estimated using the
29 quartic approximation of a true Gaussian kernel function. A bandwidth of 20 km was used for all
30 maps with an output cell size of 1 km². All maps were produced using ArcGIS 10.5.1.

31 *Cluster detection*

32 Kuldorff's space-time permutation statistic (implemented in SaTScan v9.5) was used to identify
33 spatio-temporal clusters as this statistic requires only case data (spatial location and time for each
34 case), with no information needed about controls or the population at risk. The number of observed

1 cases in a cluster is compared to what would have been expected if the spatial and temporal locations
2 of all cases were independent of each other so that there is no space-time interaction. That is, there is a
3 cluster in a geographical area if, during a specific time period that area has a higher proportion of its
4 cases in that time period compared to the remaining geographical areas. Cartesian coordinates of all
5 cases were used as the spatial inputs and month of reporting was used to indicate the timing of each
6 case. The data were analysed for the study period as a whole. Clustering and cluster detection tests are
7 viewed as complimentary as they test different hypotheses, and a simulation study by Waller et al.
8 (2006) indicated that it is possible to have a significant cluster, but no overall significant clustering.
9 For this reason, tests for clustering were not run prior to implementing the space-time permutation
10 statistic.

11 *CRGV suitability modelling*

12 The suitability models were generated using boosted regression trees (BRTs), a robust machine
13 learning method with the ability to account for non-linearity and complex relationships between the
14 dependent and predictor variables (Elith and others 2008b). BRTs differ from the traditional regression
15 methods commonly used in epidemiological studies in that rather than producing a single ‘best’ model,
16 they optimize predictive performance by using the technique of boosting to adaptively combine large
17 numbers of relatively simple tree models (Elith and others 2008b). As well as being more easily
18 interpreted than other machine learning methods such as support vector machines or random forest
19 models, BRTs have been shown to generally out-perform more conventional approaches, such as
20 logistic regression, in general species distribution modelling studies (Elith and others 2006).

21 *Background data points*

22 As calibration of the boosted regression tree (BRT) model used to identify associations between agro-
23 ecological risk factors and CRGV distribution required both presence and absence records, 2000
24 background points were randomly generated within the confines of the England/Wales boundary in
25 order to characterize the agro-ecological conditions existing within. The number of background points
26 was a trade-off between adequately characterizing the variability in the environment while
27 maintaining a sufficiently high prevalence so as to not suffer from possible bias linked to artificially-
28 induced prevalence (Barbet-Massin and others 2012).

29 *Calibration and evaluation of the boosted regression tree model*

30 The BRT algorithm was implemented using the gbm package (version 1.6-3) in R 3.3.1 (R
31 Development Core Team 2011) together with the k-fold cross-validation stage-wise function available
32 from (Elith and others 2008b). Pairwise combinations of a range of potential *lr* and *tc* were trialled to
33 determine the best combination for identifying the optimal number of trees (a tree complexity of 4 and
34 learning rate of 0.005). This optimum combination should result in more than 1000 trees (Elith and

1 others 2008b) while allowing the model to converge. A bernoulli error structure was specified and
2 stochasticity was maintained through a bag-fraction of 50 %. As there was considerable collinearity
3 between the two variables habitat and landcover (habitat nested within landcover), models were run
4 with either habitat or landcover (keeping all other predictor variables constant) to determine which of
5 the two predictors had the higher relative contribution to CRGV distribution and this variable was
6 retained in the model while the other was dropped. In order to determine whether any variables were
7 best omitted from the model, variables were removed in turn, starting with those having the smallest
8 relative influence, and average change in predictive deviance calculated. Variables for which this
9 value exceeded the model's original estimated standard error were excluded from the model.

10 Relative influence or contribution of the predictor variables to the response was calculated using
11 formulae developed by (Friedman 2001) and implemented in the gbm package. These measures are
12 based on the number of times a variable is selected for splitting, weighted by the squared
13 improvement to the model as a result of each split, and averaged over all trees. The relative
14 contribution of each variable was scaled so that together they summed to 100 with higher numbers
15 indicating a stronger contribution to the response. Partial dependence plots describing relative
16 probability of CRGV presence in relation to the range of values of each predictor variable were
17 generated after accounting for the average effects of all other variables in the model. The predictive
18 power of the model was evaluated using the test dataset and area under the ROC curve (AUC)
19 computed for the binary classifier.

20 **Results**

21 *Temporal pattern of CRGV case reporting*

22 The first known cases of CRGV were reported in 2012 (November/December: 4 %; n = 4) with a
23 slight increase the following year (7 %; n = 7). Number of reported cases peaked in 2014 with a third
24 of all cases reported in this year (33 %; n = 35) and decreased gradually thereafter (2017 January-
25 May: 17 %; n = 18) (Figure 1). Seasonally, CRGV cases were reported largely between December
26 and May (Winter/Spring) with a third of all cases diagnosed in the first three months of the year
27 (January-March). Only 7 % of cases (n = 7) were reported in the summer months (June-August) with
28 no cases reported in October (Figure 1).

29 *Spatial distribution of CRGV cases*

30 The kernel density maps in Figure 2 show the density of CRGV cases (cases/km²) with darker brown
31 areas exhibiting a higher reporting density of cases and lighter brown areas a lower (or no) reporting
32 density of cases. Although the four initial cases of CRGV in 2012 were distributed randomly
33 throughout England, in subsequent years reporting of the disease showed a tendency to cluster in
34 certain areas (Figure 2). In 2013, cases were located around the New Forest on the southern coast of

1 England and 2014 saw the expansion of this CRGV hotspot of reporting together with the
2 development of a second area of high reporting density in the Manchester region of northern England.
3 These two main high-density reporting areas (New Forest and Manchester) persisted through to 2017
4 although the New Forest hotspot was not apparent in 2016, replaced instead by an area of high
5 reporting density around Greater London and a smaller area of activity on the south coast of Wales. In
6 2017, distribution of cases was the most diffuse of all five years. In all years, the areas with a high
7 reporting density of cases were generally accompanied by a few localised cases of CRGV scattered
8 throughout England (Figure 2).

9 A map of the reporting density (cases/km²) of all cases aggregated over the five-year period shows
10 the north-east of England and the New Forest region of south England to have the highest five-year
11 density of CRGV cases (Figure 3). A diffuse triangular area covering a large part of south-central
12 England showed a medium-high reporting density of cases.

13 Kuldorff's spatio-temporal permutation statistic identified three spatio-temporal clusters. The cluster
14 locations are shown in Figure 3 and details of each is provided in (Table 2). The most likely cluster
15 occurred between April 2015 and May 2017 and included the area immediately to the right of the
16 New Forest. This region reported a significantly ($p = 0.002$) lower proportion of CRGV cases than the
17 rest of the UK (Figure 3). Between February and March 2013, the New Forest region on the south
18 coast of England exhibited a significantly ($p = 0.004$) higher proportion of cases than the rest of the
19 UK while between January and April 2014 the area around Manchester reported a moderately
20 significantly ($p = 0.087$) higher proportion of cases than the rest of the UK (Figure 3).

21 *Agro-ecological factors associated with CRGV distribution*

22 As habitat explained a greater proportion of the variability in CRGV distribution than landcover (20.3
23 vs 16 %), it was retained in the final model. The final predictive model contrasting CRGV case
24 locations with background points had a good accuracy, with an area under curve (AUC) of 0.903
25 when evaluated against the model calibration data set and an AUC of 0.884 ± 0.022 when evaluated
26 with cross-validation as implemented by (Elith and others 2008). The suitability map (Figure 4)
27 highlights areas of predicted high suitability for CRGV case occurrence and resembles the aggregated
28 kernel-density map of CRGV case distribution for 2012-2017 (Figure 3). Areas with the highest
29 predicted suitability for CRGV occurrence include West Sussex, southern Dorset and southern
30 Hampshire in the south of England, and central greater Manchester in the north of England, together
31 with the eastern regions of South Glamorgan and western Gwent in Wales. In addition, there are small
32 localised areas of high suitability dotted throughout England, specifically in the counties of Somerset,
33 West Midlands and Nottinghamshire. Most of southern England, apart from south-west England, is
34 classified as moderately suitable. Broad regions of low suitability include North and Central Wales,

1 East Anglia, most of East Midlands, North Yorkshire, North East England, and the northern half of
2 North West England (Figure 4).

3 Four variables (AirFrostDays_Su, SoilDrain, RainDays10_Su and GrndFrostDays_Su) were removed
4 from the model upon simplification leaving 34 variables. The relative contribution of each of these
5 predictor variables is presented in (Figure 5) and can be divided into roughly four groups based on
6 their relative influence on CRGV distribution: important, moderate, low and negligible contributors.
7 Habitat was the only important predictor in the model accounting for 20.3 % of the variation in
8 CRGV distribution. AvMaxTemp_Wi (8.8 %), AvRain_Wi (6.4 %), SheepDens (6.3 %), CattleDens
9 (6.1), AvTemp_Sp (5.5 %) were moderate contributors together accounting for an additional 33.1 %
10 of the variation in disease distribution. These variables together with AvRain_Sp (4.9 %),
11 AvMaxTemp_Sp (4.0 %), AvMaxTemp_Au (3.8 %) and PigDens (2.5 %) accounted for 68.4 % of the
12 variation in CRGV distribution. Predictors with a negligible impact on CRGV distribution included
13 soil fertility, number of days of ground (Au,Wi/Sp) or air frost (Wi/Sp) and number of days with >1
14 (Wi/Sp) or >10mm of rain (Au/Wi/Sp) (Figure 5).

15 Dependency profiles for the first ten predictors are shown in Figure 6. The dependency profile for the
16 predictor of primary importance (Habitat) shows that four habitat types are specifically associated
17 with CRGV distribution (in decreasing order of importance): *'mostly lowland dry heath communities'*,
18 *'wet acid meadows and woodland'*, *'wet flood meadows with wet carr woodlands in old river*
19 *meanders'* and *'acid dry pastures; acid deciduous and coniferous woodland; potential for lowland*
20 *heath'*. Woodland was a common descriptor in all but the most important habitat (*'mostly lowland dry*
21 *heath communities'*). Habitat types least likely to be associated with CRGV occurrence included
22 *'base-rich pastures and classic chalky boulder clay ancient woodlands; some wetter areas and lime-*
23 *rich flush vegetation'*, *'base-rich pastures and deciduous woodlands'*, *'steep acid upland pastures dry*
24 *heath and moor; bracken gorse and oak woodlands'* and *'wet brackish coastal flood meadows'*.
25 Pasture was a common descriptor in all these apart from the *'wet brackish coastal flood meadows'*
26 habitat. Dependency profiles for the remaining nine predictors showed that, in addition to associations
27 with specific habitat types, increasing relative probability of CRGV presence was associated with
28 increasing mean maximum temperatures in winter, spring and autumn, increasing mean rainfall in
29 winter and spring, increasing mean temperature in spring, decreasing cattle and sheep density, and
30 variable pig density.

31 There was a mild interaction (strength: 10) between the variables Habitat and AvMaxtemp_Wi with
32 increased probability of CRGV occurrence in three Habitats – *'mostly lowland dry heath*
33 *communities'*, *'wet acid meadows and woodland'*, and *'wet flood meadows with wet carr woodlands*
34 *in old river meanders'* – associated with increasing mean maximum winter temperatures (Figure 7).

35

1 **Discussion**

2 The first known cases of CRGV in UK dogs were reported in 2012 and although initial numbers were
3 very low (2012: n=3) annual frequency of reported cases showed a general increase, albeit exhibiting
4 occasional year-on-year variation. Diseases that “*have newly appeared in a population or have existed
5 previously but are rapidly increasing in incidence or geographic range*” are defined as ‘emerging’
6 (Morens and others 2004), and can be further divided into those that are ‘newly emerging’ (i.e. not
7 previously recognized) or ‘re-emerging/resurging’ (i.e. diseases that were major a problem before
8 declining dramatically, and then increasing again). The outbreak pattern of CRGV in the UK accords
9 with the definition of a newly emerging disease as no cases were reported prior to 2012. However,
10 that does not mean that the disease was completely unknown in the country as it may simply not have
11 been recognized owing to a very low incidence in the population prior to 2012. A thorough search of
12 practice records is needed to definitely rule out the absence of potential CRGV diagnoses in UK dogs
13 pre-2012.

14 Newly emerging infections are often the result of microbial, host and environmental factors
15 interacting to create opportunities for infectious agents to evolve into new ecological niches. Factors
16 that can contribute to this emergence/re-emergence include changing ecosystems, climate and
17 weather, and microbial adaptation and change (Morens and others 2004). Our BRT model identified
18 the highest relative probability of CRGV occurrence to be associated with a range of agro-ecological
19 factors specifically, woodland and heath habitats, decreasing cattle and sheep densities, increasing
20 maximum temperatures in winter and to a lesser extent spring and autumn, and higher mean rainfall in
21 winter and spring.

22 Habitat, in particular woodlands and lowland dry heath communities, was the variable identified by
23 the BRT model to have the highest relative contribution to CRGV occurrence (20.3 %). However, UK
24 woodlands are not a unified entity. Ranging from the ancient trees and woodland pasture of the New
25 Forest’s old hunting grounds where CRGV clustered in 2013, to the ash woodland of the Derbyshire
26 Dales and Peak District, the lime woods of the East Midlands and the beech woods in the Wye Valley,
27 Cotswolds, and Chilterns, the woodlands of the UK are highly diverse, each characterised by different
28 types of trees largely influenced by geology, soils, climate and history
29 ([https://www.woodlandtrust.org.uk/visiting-woods/trees-woods-and-wildlife/woodland-
30 habitats/exploring-woodland-habitats/](https://www.woodlandtrust.org.uk/visiting-woods/trees-woods-and-wildlife/woodland-habitats/exploring-woodland-habitats/); accessed 14/01/2017). They also provide a rich habitat for a
31 wide range of wildlife, plants and fungi and this diversity makes it very difficult to isolate a single
32 pathogen that might be the cause of CRGV. Lowland heath communities are also highly varied.
33 Pastures were the habitat least associated with CRGV occurrence which, combined with the
34 decreasing domestic livestock densities, suggests it is unlikely CRGV is the result of a livestock-
35 related pathogen to which dogs are exposed while walking across pastures, either from contact with

1 the livestock themselves or their excretions, or from the practice of applying slurry to pastures
2 (Rankin and Taylor 1969). The lack of an association with pasture habitats is supported by the
3 decreasing relative probability of CRGV presence with increasing sheep and cattle densities.

4 Although habitat was the main contributor to the BRT model, a range of climatic variables were
5 identified to be of moderate importance in CRGV occurrence. CRGV cases were more likely to be
6 diagnosed under milder (increasing AvMaxTemp_Wi/Sp/Au), wetter (increasing AvRain_Wi/Sp)
7 conditions in the colder months as typified by the south and west of the country. However, the fact
8 that Wales and most of south-west England (the most extreme of these) were two of the regions
9 predicted to be the least suitable for CRGV occurrence as illustrated in the risk map (Figure 4)
10 suggests that appropriate climatic conditions on their own are insufficient; the concomitant presence
11 of suitable habitats appears to be essential for CRGV occurrence (Wales and most of south-west
12 England are dominated by pastures). This hypothesis is supported by the interaction identified by the
13 BRT model between habitat and AvMaxTemp_Wi. Similarly, those years in which the disease was
14 not reported in the New Forest region may have lacked the necessary climatic conditions (e.g. colder
15 winters) despite the habitat being suitable. By the same token, it is possible that the low-risk cluster
16 adjacent to the New Forest area lacks either optimal climatic conditions or suitable habitat for disease
17 occurrence.

18 It is interesting to note that disease distribution was associated with maximum seasonal temperatures
19 (Autumn, Winter and Spring) while the effect of minimum seasonal temperatures on CRGV
20 distribution was negligible. A study of changing climate extremes associated with warming has shown
21 that daily minimum and maximum temperatures have both been increasing globally, although the
22 former more than the latter (Alexander and others 2006). Climate is mostly a factor in diseases caused
23 by pathogens that spend part of their lifecycle outside the host, exposed to the environment (Baylis
24 2017). Increasing maximum temperatures during the colder months in GB may have provided a
25 favourable habitat for an evolving organism or a new ecological niche for a pathogen that had always
26 been present in the environment but was previously unable to flourish in the comparatively cooler
27 conditions of previous decades. Isolating those climatic factors that might have played a role in the
28 emergence of the disease (pre-2012) may assist in the development of causal models for CRGV and
29 help identify the aetiology of the disease.

30 *Limitations*

31 CRGV was initially reported largely in the New Forest area of England resulting in an increased
32 interest and awareness of the disease in this region which may have biased the habitat results towards
33 woodland. However, since its inception in 2012, CRGV has been reported in other parts of the UK. In
34 addition, the disease has been widely publicised in national and local media so that increased
35 awareness may no longer be confined to the New Forest area and therefore any potential habitat-

1 related biases arising from the regional focus is likely to have been mitigated over time. Only five (5
2 %) of the 103 cases provided a walking postcode that differed substantially from their residential
3 postcode as a result of the affected dogs having accompanied their owners on holiday to, for example,
4 the New Forest region. However, the walking postcodes of other animals may also differ from their
5 residential postcode, especially in terms of habitat. However, this bias will have been mitigated to
6 some extent as the resolution of all agro-ecological variables used in this study was 1 km² and
7 therefore, provided dogs were walked within 1 km of their residential postcode there would have been
8 no difference between the values of their residential and walking postcodes. However, for dogs
9 walked greater than 1 km² from their residential postcode, there may have been a difference and
10 therefore for future studies of ecological risk factors it is important to obtain both the walking and
11 residential postcodes.

12 Cluster detection tests typically require some estimate of the population at risk in order to allow for
13 identification of areas with a higher risk of disease while simultaneously compensating for the uneven
14 distribution of the population. As this study lacked control or population-at-risk data, Kuldorff's
15 space-time permutation statistic was implemented instead of the more commonly used space-time
16 scan statistic. While the traditional scan statistic seeks to identify significant excess of cases within a
17 specific space-time window and provides a measure of how unlikely it would be to encounter the
18 observed excess of cases in a larger comparison region, the permutation statistic on the other hand,
19 seeks to identify areas with a higher proportion of cases compared to the remaining geographical
20 regions of the study area. However, an important limitation of the permutation statistic is that without
21 population-at-risk-data it is not possible to determine whether identified clusters are due to an
22 increased risk of disease, or to different geographical population distributions at different times (e.g.
23 an influx of tourists and their pets to coastal resorts during the summer months), especially when the
24 study covers more than a single year. However, CRGV cases have generally been reported during the
25 colder months when tourism generally falls off, mitigating the effect of this limitation to some extent
26 and making it more likely that the identified clusters are due to increased disease risk rather than
27 different geographical population distributions.

28 As the two clusters identified in southeastern England were reasonably close to the southern boundary
29 of the study area as defined by the physical barrier of the sea, it is necessary to acknowledge the
30 possible existence of edge-effects. Although edge effects may be negligible when dealing with large-
31 scale effects, they can be considerable when estimating small-scale effects close to the boundary.
32 Edge effects are usually dealt with either by using a weighting system that gives less weight to those
33 observations near the boundary, or through the use of guard areas (Pfeiffer et al. 2008). Unfortunately,
34 Kuldorff's space-time permutation statistic (as implemented in SaTScan v9.5) does not allow for the
35 use of a weighting system. However, as none of the identified clusters intersects with a coastal

1 boundary, and are in fact some distance inland, it is unlikely that edge-effects will have substantially
2 distorted the estimates of the space-time permutation technique in this instance.

3 Similarly, calibration of the BRT model also requires both disease presence and absence data.
4 However, when lacking absence data for species distribution modelling alternatives exist in the form
5 of pseudoabsence or background data. Background data are sampled from the whole study area in
6 order to characterize the environmental conditions existing within it (Peterson and others 2011). It can
7 be argued that the use of background data has advantages over that of disease absence data as the
8 latter can be problematic making it difficult to distinguish between absence of disease and lack of
9 observation or reporting of disease events in an area. Alternatively, the disease species may be absent,
10 even though the habitat is suitable for its occurrence, due to a geographical or man-made barrier
11 preventing its spread into the area (Hirzel and others 2002). These situations can be considered ‘false
12 absences’, biasing study results. Lobo and others (2010) identified three types of absence data
13 typically occurring in primary datasets – environmental, contingent and methodological – and insisted
14 that to optimize prediction from species distribution models all absences should ideally be
15 environmental ones; contingent and methodological absences being deemed ‘noise’. The use of
16 background data to characterise the environment of the study area therefore largely removes the
17 biases associated with false absences and mimics the environmental absences required to optimize
18 prediction from species distribution models.

19 In this study, we used fixed seasons although it could be argued that such an approach is not
20 appropriate if, as reported, spring and autumn are becoming shorter in duration (Jones and others
21 2013). However, the data in this study covers a five year period making it difficult to account for the
22 official start of each season each year. Furthermore, the start of each season will occur over a period
23 of weeks across the country and therefore a fixed approach in defining the seasons gives a benchmark
24 for a unified analysis of data from different regions and different years.

25 *Conclusion*

26 The results of this study provide owners with broad overview of when and where their dogs are likely
27 to be most at risk of developing CRGV in the UK. Outbreaks displayed a distinct seasonal pattern
28 with > 90 % of cases reported between November and May while the area from which cases have
29 been reported has expanded since 2012 to encompass most of the western and southern regions of
30 England. The eastern parts of the country – East Anglia in particular – appear to have a decreased risk
31 of disease. These factors, together with the association identified between disease occurrence and
32 specific habitats (CRGV occurrence was most frequently associated with woodlands and lowland dry
33 heath and least associated with pastures) provide dog owners with an indication of when to be most
34 vigilant for symptoms of the disease, as early identification and treatment is critical. Further research
35 into factors differentiating high and low risk regions – especially the adjacent high and low risk

1 clusters identified in southeastern England – has the potential to provide further information central to
2 the epidemiology of this disease.

3 **Acknowledgements**

4 This research was generously funded by the Alabama Rot Research Fund (ARRF) and New Forest
5 Dog Owners Group (NFDog).

6

7 **Conflict of interest**

8 The authors are not aware of any conflicts of interest.

9

10 **Author contributions**

11 KS performed all analyses and wrote the first draft of the paper; LH & DW compiled the case dataset;
12 all authors contributed substantially to the interpretation of data, drafting of the final manuscript,
13 and critical revision for important intellectual content. All authors approved the final version
14 of the manuscript for submission.

1 **References**

- 2 1 ALEXANDER, L. V., ZHANG, X., PETERSON, T. C., CAESAR, J., GLEASON, B., KLEIN
3 TANK, A. M. G., HAYLOCK, M., COLLINS, D., TREWIN, B., RAHIMZADEH, F.,
4 TAGIPOUR, A., RUPA KUMAR, K., REVADEKAR, J., GRIFFITHS, G., VINCENT, L.,
5 STEPHENSON, D. B., BURN, J., AGUILAR, E., BRUNET, M., TAYLOR, M., NEW, M.,
6 ZHAI, P., RUSTICUCCI, M. & VAZQUEZ-AGUIRRE, J. L. (2006) Global observed changes
7 in daily climate extremes of temperature and precipitation. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
8 *Atmospheres* 111, n/a-n/a
- 9 2 BARBET-MASSIN, M., JIGUET, F., ALBERT, C. H. & THUILLER, W. (2012) Selecting
10 pseudo-absences for species distribution models: how, where and how many? *Methods in*
11 *Ecology and Evolution* 3, 327-338
- 12 3 BAYLIS, M. (2017) Potential impact of climate change on emerging vector-borne and other
13 infections in the UK. *Environmental Health* 16, 112
- 14 4 ELITH, J., GRAHAM, C., ANDERSON, R., DUDIĆ, M., FERRIER, S., GUISAN, A.,
15 HIJMANS, R., HUETTMAN, F., LEATHWICK, J. & LEHMANN, A. (2006) Novel methods
16 improve prediction of species' distributions from occurrence data. *Ecography* 29, 129 - 151
- 17 5 ELITH, J., LEATHWICK, J. & HASTIE, T. (2008a) A working guide to boosted regression
18 trees. *J Anim Ecol* 77, 802 - 813
- 19 6 ELITH, J., LEATHWICK, J. R. & HASTIE, T. (2008b) A working guide to boosted regression
20 trees. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 77, 802-813
- 21 7 FRIEDMAN, J. (2001) Greedy function approximation: a gradient boosting machine. *Ann Stat*
22 29, 1189 - 1232
- 23 8 HIRZEL, A., HAUSSER, J., CHESSEL, D. & PERRIN, N. (2002) Ecological-niche factor
24 analysis: How to compute habitat-suitability maps without absence data? *Ecology* 83, 2027-2036
- 25 9 HOLM, L. P., HAWKINS, I., ROBIN, C., NEWTON, R. J., JEPSON, R., STANZANI, G.,
26 MCMAHON, L. A., PESAVENTO, P., CARR, T., COGAN, T., COUTO, C. G., CIANCIOLO,
27 R. & WALKER, D. J. (2015) Cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy as a cause of acute
28 kidney injury in dogs in the UK. *The Veterinary Record* 176, 384-384

- 1 10 JONES, M. R., FOWLER, H. J., KILSBY, C. G. & BLENKINSOP, S. (2013) An assessment of
2 changes in seasonal and annual extreme rainfall in the UK between 1961 and 2009. *International*
3 *Journal of Climatology* 33, 1178-1194
- 4 11 LOBO, J. M., JIMÉNEZ-VALVERDE, A. & HORTAL, J. (2010) The uncertain nature of
5 absences and their importance in species distribution modelling. *Ecography* 33, 103-114
- 6 12 MORENS, D. M., FOLKERS, G. K. & FAUCI, A. S. (2004) The challenge of emerging and re-
7 emerging infectious diseases. *Nature* 430, 242-249
- 8 13 PETERSON, A. T., SOBERÓN, J., PEARSON, R. G., ANDERSON, R. P., MARTÍNEZ-
9 MEYER, E., NAKAMURA, M. & ARAÚJO, M. B. (2011) Species' Occurrence Data. In
10 *Ecological Niches and Geographic Distributions*. Eds S. A. LEVIN, H. S. HORN. Princeton and
11 Oxford, Princeton University Press
- 12 14 PFEIFFER, D.U., ROBINSON, T.P., STEVENSON, M., STEVENS, K.B., ROGERS, D.J., &
13 CLEMENTS, A.C.A (2008). Spatial data. In: *Spatial Analysis in Epidemiology*. Oxford
14 University Press, Oxford, pg 15.
- 15 15 R DEVELOPMENT CORE TEAM (2011) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical
16 Computing. Vienna, Austria, R Foundation for Statistical Computing
- 17 16 RANKIN, J. D. & TAYLOR, R. J. (1969) A study of some disease hazards which could be
18 associated with the system of applying cattle slurry to pasture. *Veterinary Record* 85, 578-581
- 19 17 WALLER, L.A., HILL, E.G. & RUDD, R.A. (2006) The geography of power: statistical
20 performance of tests of clusters and clustering in heterogeneous populations. *Statistics in*
21 *Medicine*. 25:853–886.
- 22 18 WICKHAM, H. (2016) *ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*, Springer-Verlag New York
23

1 **Table 1: Descriptors of the spatial agro-ecological predictor variables selected to model the distribution of cases of**
 2 **cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy in dogs in the United Kingdom**

Predictor name	Descriptor	Data source
CattleDens	Density of cattle (heads/km ²)	Gridded Livestock of the World
SheepDens	Density of sheep (heads/km ²)	http://www.fao.org/ag/againfo/resources/en/glw/home.html)
PigDens	Density of pigs (heads/km ²)	
Habitat		NATMAP SoilScapes map for England and Wales (1:250 000).
Landcover		http://www.landis.org.uk/data/nmsoilscapes.cfm)
SoilDrain	Soil drainage characteristics	
SoilFert	Soil fertility characteristics	
AvTemp	Mean temperature of the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (°C).	United Kingdom Met Office 5 km × 5 km gridded data sets
AvMaxTemp	Mean maximum temperature of the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (°C).	https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/climate/climate-monitoring/ukcp09/register)
AvMinTemp	Mean minimum temperature of the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (°C).	
AvRain	Mean rainfall of the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (mm).	
AvRainDays1	Mean number of days with a rainfall of >1 mm in the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (days)	
AvRainDays10	Mean number of days with a rainfall of >10 mm in the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (days).	
GrndFrostDays	Mean number of days with ground frost in the spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (days).	
AirFrostDays	Mean number of days with air frost in the Spring (Sp), Summer (Su), Autumn (Au) and Winter (Wi) months (days).	

3

4

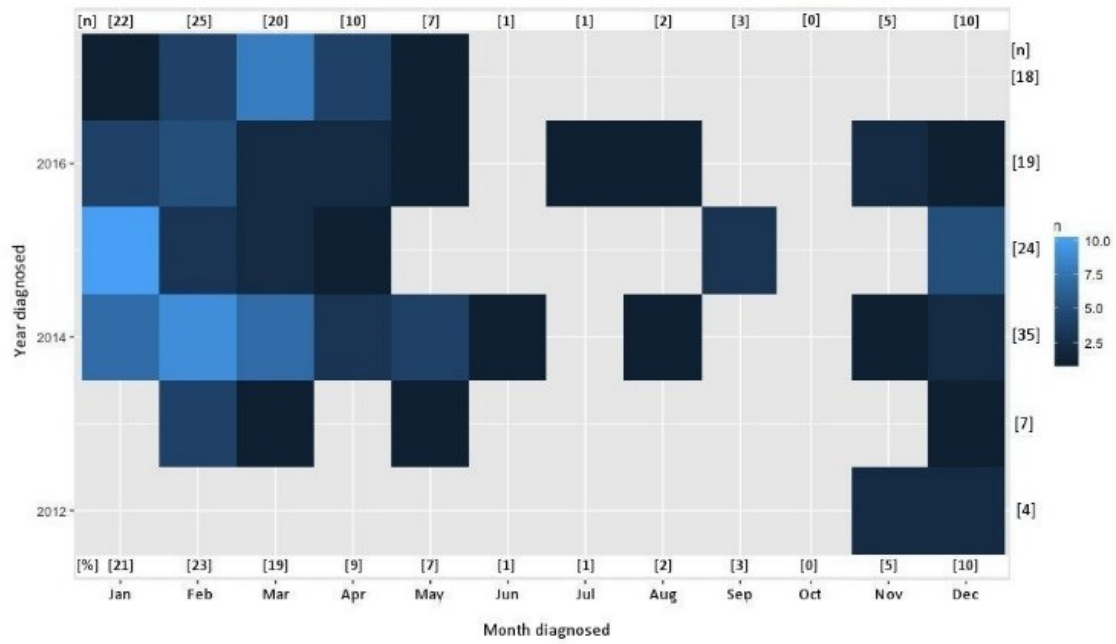
5

6

7 **Table 2: Characteristics of the high and low risk clusters of cases of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV)**
 8 **in dogs in the United Kingdom (January 2012 – May 2017) as identified by Kuldorff's space-time permutation statistic.**

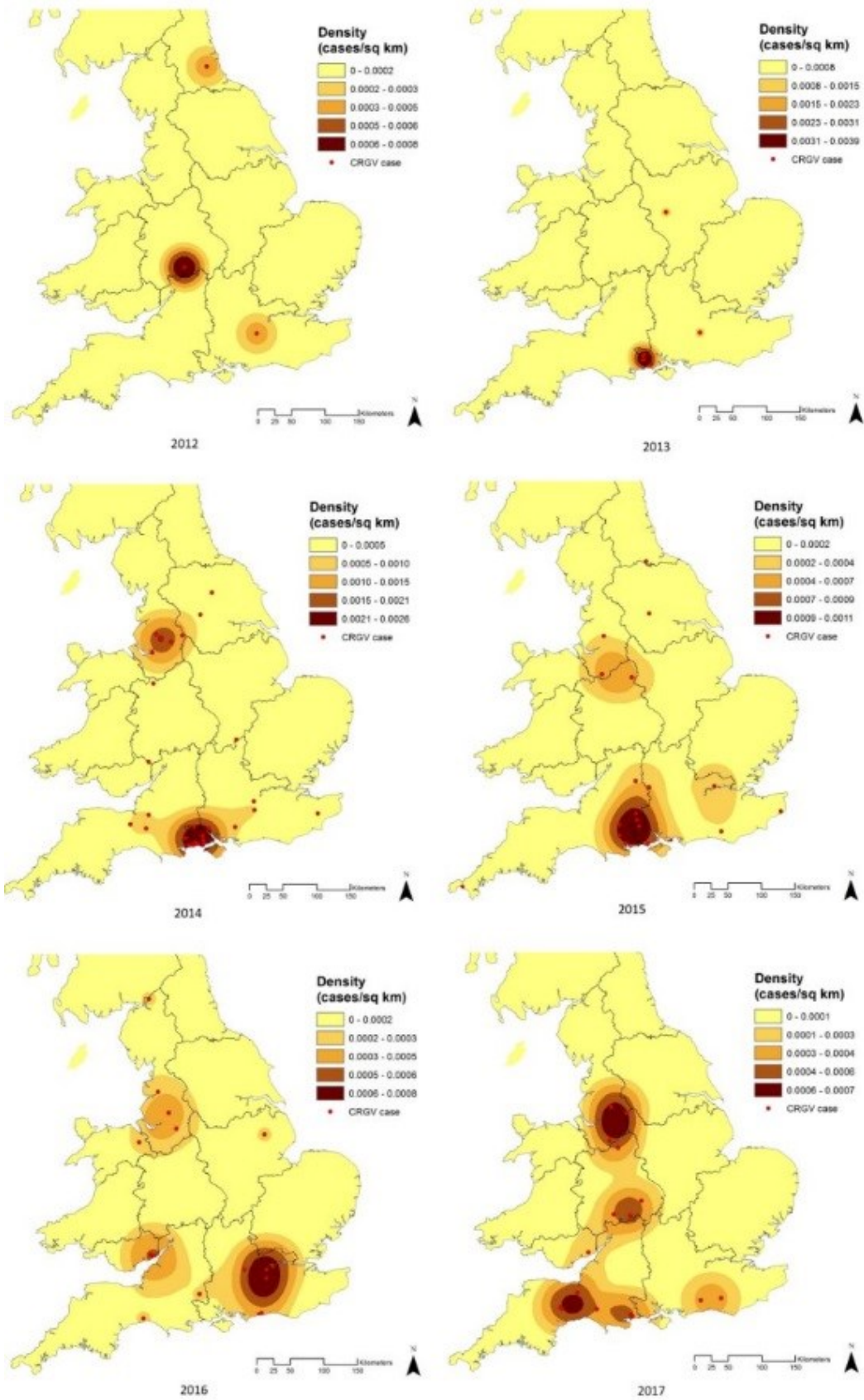
Cluster ID	Risk level	Date	Expected cases	Observed cases	P-value
1	Low	1/4/2015 – 31/5/2017	10	0	0.002
2	High	1/2/2013 – 31/3/2013	0	4	0.004
3	High	31/1/2014 – 30/4/2014	1	5	0.087

9



1
2
3
4
5
6
7

Figure 1: Heat map illustrating the temporal distribution of 107 cases of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) in dogs in the United Kingdom, divided by month and year (November 2012 – May 2017, inclusive). Months are shown on the x-axis and years on the y-axis. The shading of the blue blocks represents the frequency of CRGV cases reported that month (lighter shading = higher frequency). The grey background is visible when no cases were reported in a month.

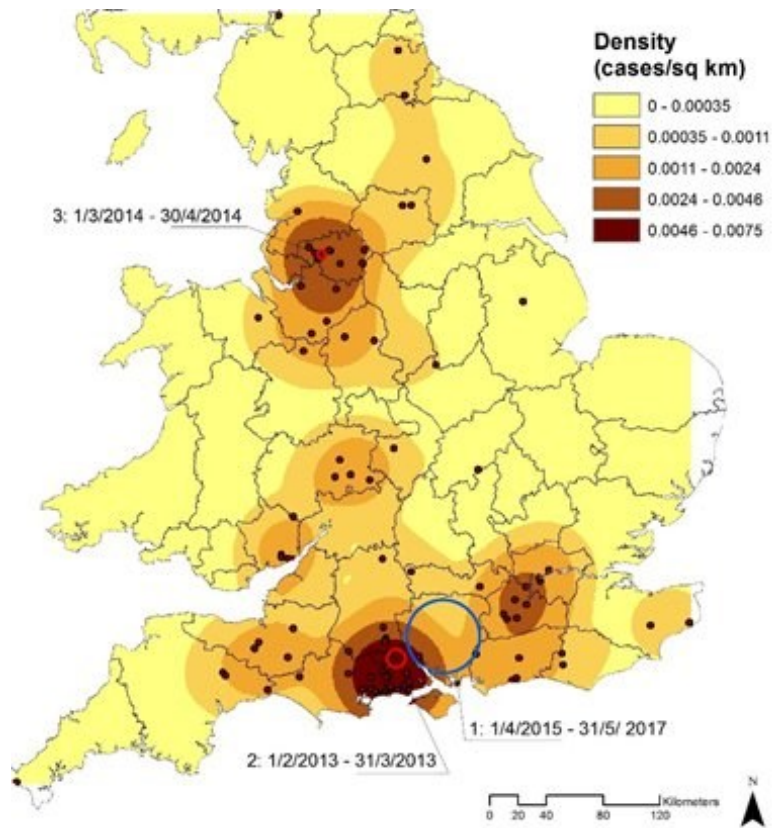


1

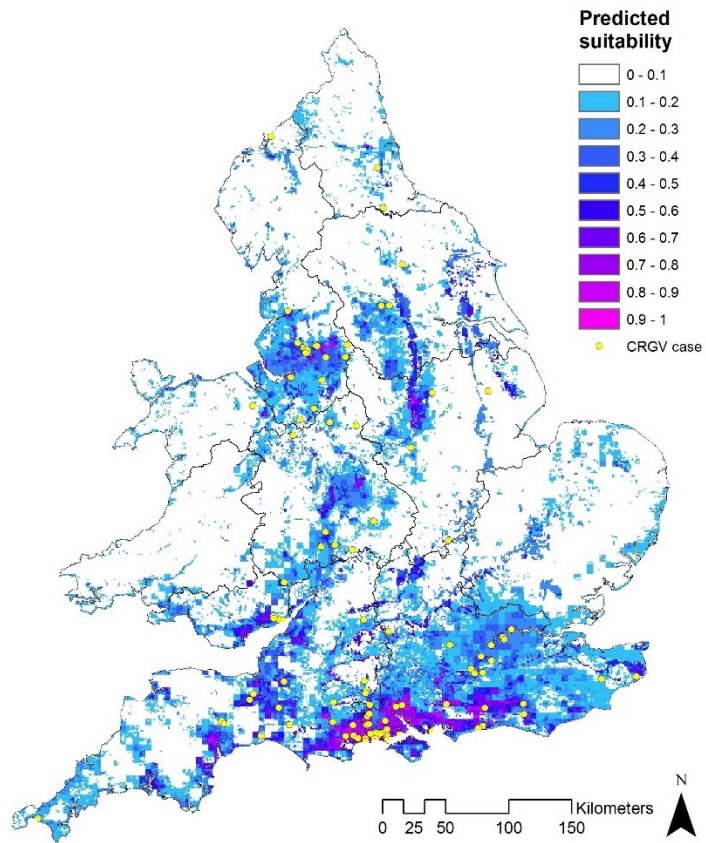
2

Figure 2: Maps showing annual location and kernel-smoothed density of cases of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) in dogs in the United Kingdom between January 2012 and May 2017 (inclusive).

3

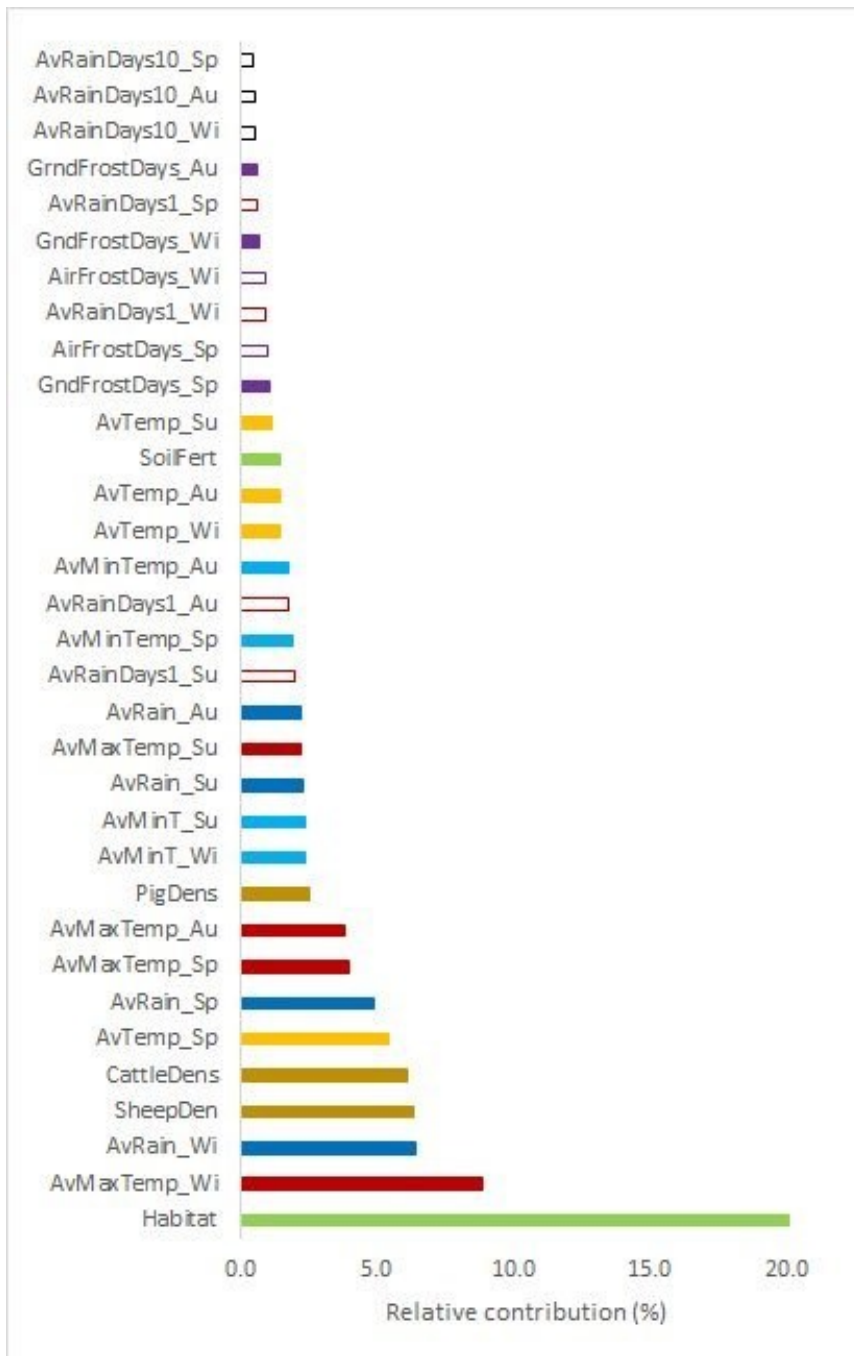


1 **Figure 3: Map showing location and kernel-smoothed density of cases of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy**
 2 **(CRGV) in dogs in the United Kingdom (January 2012 – May 2017) together with the location of two spatio-temporal**
 3 **clusters exhibiting a significantly higher proportion cases (o), and one spatio-temporal cluster exhibiting a significantly**
 4 **lower proportion of cases (o), than the remainder of the UK. Clusters were identified using Kuldrff's space-time**
 5 **permutation statistic.**

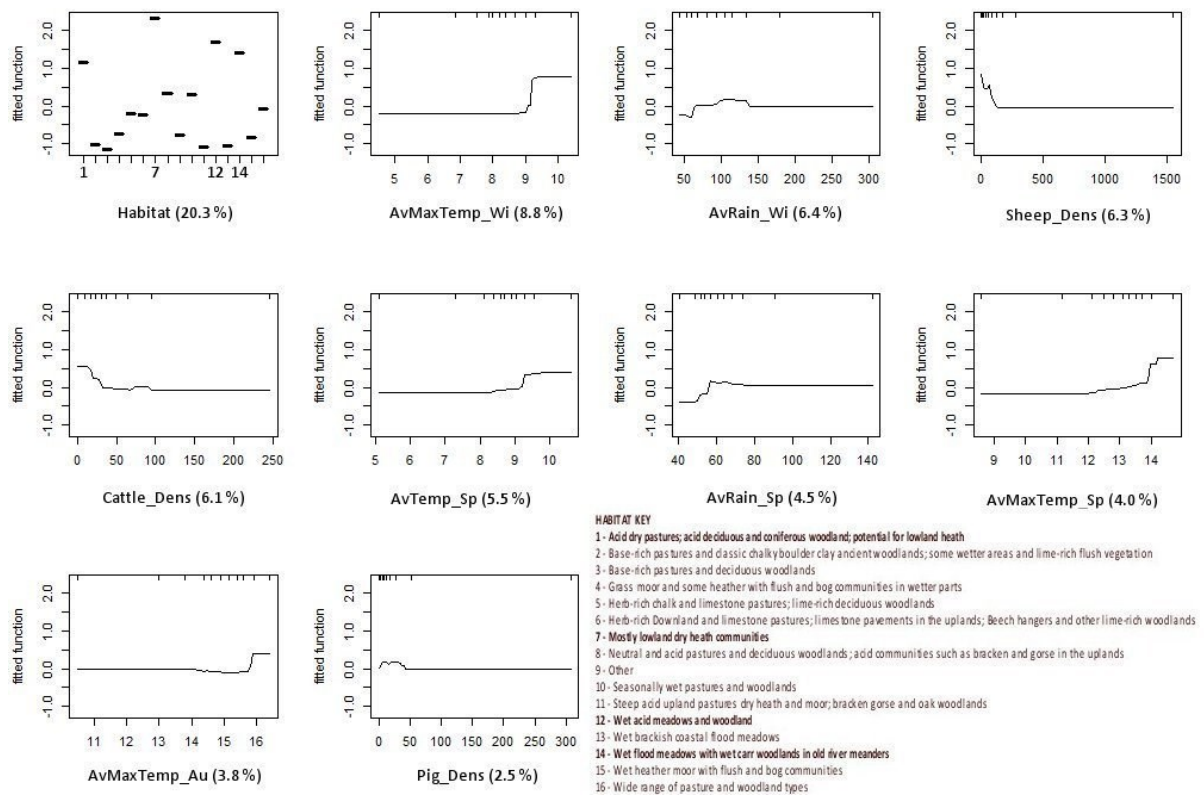


1

2 **Figure 4: Map showing predicted suitability of England and Wales for the occurrence of cases of cutaneous and renal**
3 **glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) in dogs. Yellow dots represent the location of reported CRGV cases (n = 107).**

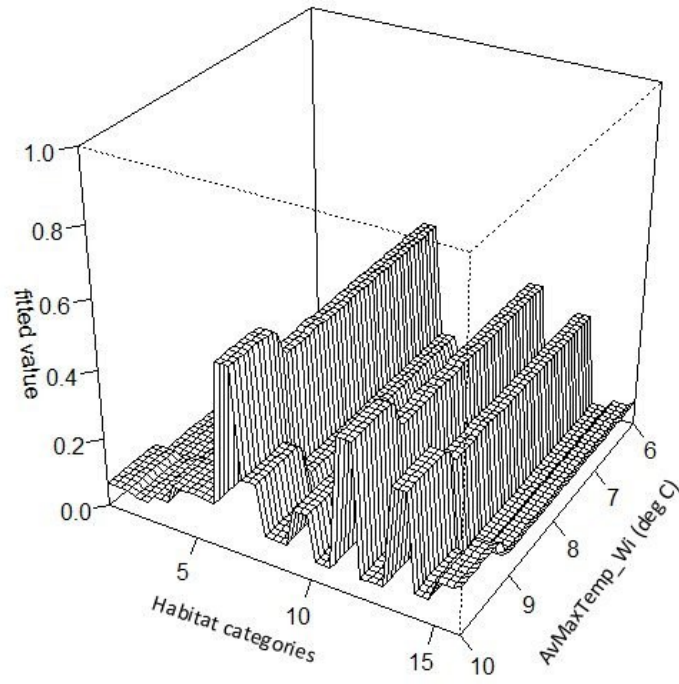


1 **Figure 5: Relative contribution of the 34 predictor variables modelling the spatial distribution of cutaneous and renal**
 2 **glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) in dogs in the UK (2012-2017).** Relative influence (or contribution) of each variable is
 3 scaled so that the sum adds to 100, with higher numbers indicating stronger influence on the model outcome. Colours
 4 refer to category of predictor variable.



1

2 **Figure 6: Partial dependence plots or boosted regression tree (BRT) profiles for the ten top predictor variables modelling**
 3 **the spatial distribution of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) in dogs in the UK (2012-2017).** Partial
 4 dependence plots show the predicted dependence between the dependant variable of the BRT model on the y-axis
 5 (probability of CRGV presence) versus each predictor variable on the x-axis. The top 10 predictor variables were included in
 6 this figure: Habitat, AvMaxtemp_Wi (°C), CattleDens (heads/km²), SheepDens (heads/km²), AvRain_Wi (mm), AvTemp_Sp
 7 (°C), AvRain_Sp (mm), AvMaxTemp_Sp (°C), AvMaxTemp_Au (°C) and PigDens (heads/km²). Relative contribution of each
 8 predictor variable is given in brackets and a key provided for habitat types. Habitat types in bold (1, 7 12, 14) are those
 9 associated with CRGV presence.



1

2 **Figure 7: Interaction between the variables Habitat and AvMaxTemp_Wi in the boosted regression tree (BRT) model for**
 3 **the spatial distribution of cutaneous and renal glomerular vasculopathy (CRGV) in dogs in the UK (2012-2017).**

4 Interaction plots show the predicted dependence between the dependant variable of the BRT model on the y-axis
 5 (probability of CRGV presence) versus the combined effect of each the two interaction predictor variables on the x- and y-
 6 axes. The two predictor variables included in the interaction shown in the plot are Habitat and AvMaxtemp_Wi (°C).