

1 **Title:** English hospital episode data analysis (1998 – 2018) reveal that the rise in dog bite hospital
2 admissions is driven by adult cases

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24 **Abstract**

25 **Background:** Dog bites are a global health issue that can lead to severe health outcomes. This study
26 aims to describe the incidence and sociodemographics of patients admitted to English National Health
27 Service (NHS) hospitals for dog bites (1998-2018), and to estimate their annual direct health care costs.

28 **Methods:** An analysis of patient level data utilising hospital episode statistics for NHS England,
29 including: temporal trends in annual incidence of admission, Poisson models of the sociodemographic
30 characteristics of admitted patients, and direct health care cost estimates.

31 **Results:** The incidence of dog bite admissions rose from 6.34 (95%CI 6.12-6.56) in 1998 to 14.99
32 (95%CI 14.67-15.31) admissions per 100,000 population in 2018, with large geographic variation. The
33 increase was driven by a tripling of incidence in adults. Males had the highest rates of admission in
34 childhood. Females had two peaks in admission, childhood and 35-64 years old. Two percent (2.05%,
35 95%CI 0.93-3.17) of emergency department attendances resulted in admission. Direct health care
36 costs increased and peaked in the financial year 2017/2018 (admission costs: £25.1 million, emergency
37 attendance costs: £45.7million).

38 **Conclusions:** Dog bite related hospital admissions have increased solely in adults. Further work
39 exploring human-dog interactions, stratified by demographic factors, is urgently needed to enable the
40 development of appropriate risk reduction intervention strategies.

41 **Keywords:** Dog bite, hospital, England, direct health care cost, demographics, injury, epidemiology,
42 United Kingdom

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47 **Introduction**

48 Dogs have an intrinsic place in modern society with numerous working, health and societal benefits[1–
49 4]. However, as with all animals, they pose an injury risk to humans. Dog bites have been recognised
50 as a global public health issue [5,6], which can have severe physical [7,8], infectious [9] and mental
51 health consequences for humans [10], and even result in death [11]. They are costly to society in terms
52 of direct [12–14] (e.g. health care) and indirect [9,15] (e.g. worker loss, legal and kennelling costs)
53 costs.

54 The World Health Organisation estimate that dog bites globally lead to ‘tens of millions of injuries’[5].
55 This is a very crude estimate as no global incidence figures have been calculated, and most countries
56 are lacking incidence data. There has been debate about what the incidence of dog bites in England
57 truly is [6,16], with claims that medical literature exaggerates the risk [17]. A recent United Kingdom
58 (UK) population-based survey estimated that 25% of individuals have been bitten in their lifetime [16].
59 A third of those bites required medical treatment, 58.9% of those attended accident and emergency
60 departments (A&E), and only a very small proportion of individuals resulted in hospital admission (1
61 out of 178 bites); though these were based on a small sample size [16]. Only two analyses of national
62 electronic health records describing dog bites in England have been conducted; both published by NHS
63 Digital (formally Health and Social Care Information Centre) [18,19]. They focus on hospital
64 admissions, in all NHS England hospitals, due to a ‘dog bite or strike’ using Hospital Episode Statistics
65 data and presented annual increases in absolute case numbers.

66 The most recent review of hospital admissions figures was based solely on data from the financial year
67 2014-15 [19]. It conducted limited analyses and concluded that the highest incidence of dog injury
68 was found in 0-9 year olds (17.6 admissions per 100,000 population). There was large regional
69 variation, with the highest rates in Merseyside, North-West England, (32.2 admissions per 100,000
70 population) and the lowest rates were in Kent and Medway, South-East England, (7.3 per 100,000).
71 The rate of admission was 2.6 times higher in the most deprived neighbourhoods compared to the

72 least deprived [19]. These results offer only a static cross-sectional view of limited aspects of hospital
73 records and deliver no insight into temporal trends, and no modelling was performed to explore which
74 demographic variables were associated with dog bite incidence. However, based on the absolute
75 numbers published yearly, without regard for the number in the population at risk, it has been inferred
76 that dog related injuries, interpreted as dog bites, are rising in England [20].

77 One attempt has been made to estimate the direct health care costs of dog bites in England [21]. The
78 authors used an unrepresentative sample population (the most and least deprived 10% of the
79 population) from the above report [18] to estimate the total hospital admissions in 2013, an average
80 cost of a non-elective inpatient stay was applied. They estimated direct costs of dog bite admissions
81 to be about £10 million in 2013. This figure does not include the whole national dog bite admissions
82 population or that attending accident and emergency departments. It is therefore difficult to know
83 how well it reflects the direct health care costs in a hospital setting of dog bites. If the incidence of
84 dog bites is rising, the calculation of improved cost figures is needed so that injury prevention
85 strategies can be justified, and their success measured.

86 Dog bite prevention strategies have mainly focused on high risk groups, such as children and those
87 that come in contact with dogs through their work (e.g. postal workers) [22]. These interventions are
88 primarily education programmes that focus on interacting with dogs and reading dog body language.
89 The UK government brought the Dangerous Dogs Act 1991 into legislation to order to control dogs
90 that 'pose a serious danger to the public', and place restrictions on certain breeds [23]. Despite this
91 legislation and numerous public initiatives designed to reduce dangerous interactions with dogs, dog
92 bite numbers appear to be rising.

93 Given the belief that dog bites are increasing and have significant public consequences it is critical to
94 derive accurate incidence figures to support this claim, and to understand the demographics of the
95 population affected in order to create effective prevention initiatives. The aim of this study was to
96 analyse English National Health Service (NHS) electronic hospital records to describe the incidence,

97 demographics and flow of dog bite patients in a hospital setting. Using these data, estimates for the
98 annual direct health care cost of dog bites were calculated.

99 **Results**

100 After removing duplicates, 112,962 FCEs (Finished Consultant Episode; see methods) (107,366 unique
101 patients) were identified with 'bitten or struck by a dog' codes, which will now be referred to as 'dog
102 bite' admissions, between 1998 and 2018. Ninety-five percent of patients (n=102,300) were admitted
103 once, 4.3% (n=4,637) twice, 0.3% (n=353) three times, and 0.07% (n=76) more than three times (a
104 maximum of seven times). It is unclear whether these multiple admissions were related to the same
105 dog bite or were multiple bites. The main ICD-10 code given for adults and children was W54.9 (Bitten
106 or struck by a dog - unspecified place; Table 1).

107 ***Demographics***

108 The incidence of dog bite admissions rose from 6.34 (95% CI 6.12-6.56) admissions per 100,000
109 population in 1998 to 14.99 (95% CI 14.67-15.31) in 2018 (Fig 1). Children (14 years or under) made
110 up 25.4% (n=28,652) of the dog bite admissions. Less than one percent of cases were under one year
111 old (0.5%, n=595); 43 of these were babies less than a month old, 86 were between one month and
112 six months old, and 466 were between six months and a year old. The incidence of dog bite admissions
113 in children showed no obvious annual trend. The mean annual incidence was 14.44 (95% CI 13.68-
114 15.22) admissions per 100,000 population, with a minimum incidence of 12.93 (95% CI 12.20-13.67)
115 in 1998 and a maximum of 15.82 (95% CI 15.03-16.63) in 2013. In contrast, the incidence of dog bite
116 admissions in adults rose from 4.76 (95% CI 4.55-4.98) in 1998 to 14.99 (95% CI 14.64-15.43) in 2018.

117 The mean annual local authority incidence was 8.0 (95% CI 1.9-14.0) dog bite admissions per 100,000
118 population per year (Fig 2). The local authorities with the highest average annual incidence were;
119 Knowsley 24.2 (North-West England), Middlesbrough 21.4 (North-East England), Wakefield 20.0
120 (North-Central England), Redcar and Cleveland 19.6 (North-East England), and St Helens 19.5 (North-

121 West England). The local authorities with the lowest incidence were; City of London 1.1, Harrow 2.4
122 (London), Brent 2.7 (London), Barnet 3.0 (London), Isle of Wight 3.1 (South-Central London), and
123 Haringey 3.5 (London).

124 Almost all FCEs, 99.8% (n=112,749), had information available about age and sex, 82.7% (n=93,385)
125 regarding ethnicity, 85.6% (n=96,686) for IMD decile, and 98.9% (n=111,717) for rural-urban status.
126 The resultant univariable Poisson regression (Table 2) showed that all the variables explored had
127 significant differences in incidence rate ratios. There was a significant increasing linear trend with year,
128 such that annual admission rates were increasing by 2%. Compared to the national admissions
129 population, males had a higher rate of dog bite admission than females. Age showed a bimodal
130 distribution with the highest rate of admission in children (1-19 year olds, peaking in the 5-9 age
131 group), and the second peak in 40-49 year olds. All ethnicities showed a reduced admission rate
132 compared to the white population, except those patients of mixed race who showed no significant
133 difference in rate. The IMD (Index of Multiple Deprivation; see methods) showed a declining rate of
134 admission as areas became less deprived. Urban areas had a lower rate of admission compared to
135 rural areas.

136 As age and sex often interact with each other, two multivariable models were created, one for each
137 sex. This additionally provides clear sex-aggregated data, as encouraged by the World Health
138 Organisation. The male model only used male admissions for the denominator, and the female model
139 only used female admissions. Both models showed a significant increase of admission rate, 4%
140 annually. In the male model, the highest rates of admission were in children and young adults (1-19
141 year olds) and reached their peak in 10-14 years old. From 25 years onwards, the rate of dog bite
142 admission declined with age. All ethnicities had a significantly lower rate of dog bite admission
143 compared to those who identified with being white. Both models showed similar trends in IMD and
144 rural-urban status to that shown in univariable analysis. However, the female model showed a larger
145 difference in admission rate between rural and urban areas. Females showed the same trends in all

146 variables except age. The results showed two female age groups with high rates, one between the
147 ages of 1-19, and a second between 35 and 64; the first group peaked with 5-9 year olds and the
148 second at 45-49. After 65-69 years old the rate of admission declined. The age groups with the lowest
149 rates of admission for both male and females were the less than one year olds and the greater than
150 85s. Both models showed small residual differences and proved to have good model fits; both had
151 $p=1$. Due to this, no further model diagnostic evaluation was performed.

152 ***Accident and Emergency Attendance Estimates***

153 In the A&E dataset only 11 hospitals supplied data, 6.5% of all English NHS hospitals (Acute Trusts,
154 $n=168$ [24]), which contained dog bite codes. Only 5,772 patients were coded with a dog bite between
155 2008 and 2017. A weighted A&E admission rate of 2.05% (95% CI 0.93-3.17) was calculated. Through
156 triangulation with the more robust admissions data, the weighted rate was used to estimate the
157 overall number of A&E attendances for a dog bite in England. In the admissions data, a total of 89,158
158 patients were recorded as being admitted through A&E; if 2.05% of patients who attend A&E for dog
159 bites get admitted then 4,349,171 (95% CI 2,812,555-9,586,882) A&E attendances may have occurred
160 in England between 1998 and 2018. This represents an average of 207,103 (95% 133,931-456,518)
161 A&E attendances per year.

162 ***Direct Health Care Cost Estimates***

163 Between the financial years 2009/2010 and 2017/2018 the total estimated direct costs of dog bite
164 admissions were £174,188,443. There was a significant rise in costs ($p<0.001$, adjusted $r^2=0.96$), the
165 lowest year being 2009-2010 (£13,450,820) and the highest being 2017/18 (£25,114,772) (Fig 3).
166 Confidence intervals could not be calculated as both component parts of the cost estimate, case
167 numbers and unit costs, did not have population parameters associated with them.

168 Between the financial years 2012/2013 and 2017/2018 the total estimated direct costs of dog bite
169 A&E attendances were £222,041,073 (95% CI £143,591,230 - £489,445,376). There was a significant

170 rise in costs ($p < 0.001$, adjusted $r^2 = 0.96$), the lowest year being 2012/2013 (£27,970,244; 95% CI
171 £18,088,013 - £61,654,839) and the highest being 2017/2018 (£45,713,171; 95% CI £29,562,145 -
172 £100,765,591).

173 **Discussion**

174 Dog bites are a growing public health problem which is costly to society. This work has identified an
175 increase in the incidence of hospital admissions in England due to dog bites and a doubling of incidence
176 over twenty years. This is the first study to identify that this rise has been driven by an increasing
177 number of adults being admitted, whilst rates in children have remained relatively static. Males had
178 higher admission rates, whilst the age groups with the highest relative rates of admission were
179 children between the ages of 1 and 19, and women between the ages of 35 and 64. Admission rates
180 were significantly higher in those of white ethnicity, and in rural areas compared to urban areas. The
181 most deprived neighbourhoods in the country had the highest incidence of bites. The map produced
182 is the highest resolution of dog bite data to date and shows large geographical variation between local
183 authorities. Recorded deaths equated to roughly four dog bite related deaths a year, likely an
184 underestimate as it only includes individuals who have died at hospital. The number of children under
185 one year of age, and in particular under one month of age ($n = 43$), that were bitten is highly concerning.
186 In the financial year 2017/2018, dog bite hospital attendance and admissions may have cost the NHS
187 £70,827,943.

188 ***Strengths of study***

189 This is the first longitudinal analysis of UK dog bites. Trends have been identified that were unknown
190 due to the cross-sectional nature of prior research, principally, the incidence of adult bites has tripled
191 in twenty years and that of children has stayed stable but high. The time scale and size of these data
192 enable greater confidence in describing the demographics of dog bite victims who present to
193 hospitals. The patient management data provides a detailed classification of the resultant injuries
194 from dog bites and their severity (Supplementary Material). This is the first time that dog bite costing

195 estimates have been calculated for consecutive years for both hospital admissions and A&E
196 attendance.

197 **Limitations**

198 The accuracy of studies based on HES are reliant on two things: the specific ICD-10 codes used to build
199 case definitions and the quality of the clinical coding performed by the hospitals providing the data.
200 The validity and quality of clinical coding in HES has been much discussed and there is inherent
201 variability in coding standards between individual coders and hospitals [25,26]. The degree and the
202 direction in which this bias the results is unknown. HES coding is based on the patients written
203 discharge summary and coders therefore rely on the quality and level of details in this summary for
204 their choice of subsequent codes [27]. No consensus has been reached over the degree of coding
205 accuracy and improvement, but there are suggestions that financial incentives may have improved
206 coding quality in recent years. In terms of geographical recording, data is based on the patient's home
207 address. Therefore, a degree of error in mapping incidence may occur if the patient is bitten away
208 from their household, such as a delivery worker. However, we believe that this error is likely to be
209 small as the majority of bites are recorded as occurring in the patient's home. The ICD-10 codes used
210 in this study produce another problem as they are defined as 'bitten or struck by dog'. These results
211 will overestimate the number of dog bites as they include any dog-related injury [6]. Despite this, we
212 have confidence that the results presented here are largely representative of dog bite patients due to
213 the stratification of the patients by their injury type (Supplementary material, Table S1). Non-bite dog-
214 related injuries in children predominately present as abrasions, lacerations and fractures [28], and a
215 maximum of 4.15% of children injured by dogs fell into these injury type classifications. Dog bite
216 injuries to adults predominately describe lacerations, open wounds and superficial injuries [7,29–31],
217 which make up 77.5% of the injuries in these data, so they are again likely to represent bites. Some of
218 the remaining injuries, such as traumatic amputation (2.9%) are highly likely to be associated with dog
219 bites, whilst others, fractures (13.2%), could be a result of any type of dog-related injury. However,

220 without accessing the written medical notes of each patient there is no way of knowing what type of
221 dog-related injury has occurred.

222 The second limitation concerns direct cost estimations. The ICD-10 codes used to identify dog bite
223 admissions do not have an associated NHS direct health care cost. They are all 'causal' codes rather
224 than 'diagnostic' or 'procedural' for which costs are available. This meant that we had to use a proxy
225 unit cost. For admitted patients we used the average unit cost of a 'Non-elective inpatient admission';
226 for the financial year 2017/2018 this equated to £3,117 per admission. Unfortunately, as discussed
227 above, no confidence intervals could be calculated so we could only present single point estimates.
228 Caution must therefore be taken interpreting our crude costs as we do not know the limits of the
229 range in which the true cost lies. Secondly, the unit cost is based on the average unit cost of a type of
230 admission that contains a huge variety of clinical presentations or procedures. In 2017/18 a unit cost
231 ranged from £75 to £129,802 [32]. As dog bites have a variety of clinical manifestations, and with no
232 dog bite specific unit cost, it is difficult to know how representative this average cost is for dog bite
233 injuries. Considering that many severe dog bites require extensive reconstructive or orthopaedic
234 surgery [7,13,33], we believe that it is likely that these costs underestimate the true cost. A full cost
235 assessment of each case is needed to be able to provide more accurate direct healthcare costs of dog
236 bite admissions.

237 The methodology to estimate the number of cases attending A&E is crude. A&E data quality is
238 notoriously poor in HES [25,26,34,35]; in our study only 6.5% of hospitals provided data. How
239 representative these hospitals are is unknown, and this places bias on our attendance calculations.
240 That our calculated admission rate is similar to other nations' estimates gives credence to our figures
241 [8,36]. Our extrapolative methodology and small sample size results in wide confidence intervals for
242 the subsequent estimate of A&E attendance and associated direct health care costs. The unit cost for
243 these calculations is purely the average cost of an attendance to A&E and does not include any
244 treatment or management costs of the patient, so is likely an underestimate. The confidence intervals

245 are understandably, and necessarily, wide and a high degree of caution must be taken interpreting or
246 implementing actions based solely on these costs. New studies are needed to evaluate the burden
247 that dog bites place on A&E departments, describe the clinical presentations of cases, and to calculate
248 more accurate direct cost estimates of dog bites. The new Emergency Care Data Set has the potential
249 to explore this further [37].

250 There are other healthcare costs that could not be calculated by this research. The outpatient data
251 was exceptionally sparse and so we have no understanding of the burden, demographics or costs
252 associated with hospital outpatient departments, nor in primary care or in other health care settings
253 such as walk-in centres. We have additionally not focused on indirect healthcare costs, such as time-
254 off work, worker replacement, changes in productivity, and long-term morbidity (including mental
255 health issues).

256 ***Comparisons to existing literature***

257 There are striking similarities to previous research; most countries describe children having the highest
258 incidence of dog bites [8,14,30,36,38–40] which was seen here until 2017. Alongside other high-
259 income countries, England has seen an increase in hospital dog bite admission. The current incidence
260 of 14.99 cases per 100,000 in 2018 is higher than many other high income countries (12.39 in Australia
261 [41], 1.5 in the Netherlands [36]), but lower than the USA, which still appears to have the highest
262 incidence (110 cases per 100,000 per year [8]). There are many societal and healthcare differences
263 between these nations, but these data suggest that England is on the higher end of the spectrum
264 concerning the number of annual dog bites. However, the overall number of dog bites in England is
265 likely to be much higher than the level described here. Only the most seriously injured patients will be
266 admitted into hospital, as evidenced by the injuries described in the supplementary material. Those
267 that attend primary care, self-treat, or do nothing will not have been captured by our data. As
268 mentioned, it has been reported that only a small proportion of dog bites result in hospital admission
269 [16]. Other papers acknowledge that hospital data only provide limited information on the wider dog

270 bite public health problem [8,41,42]. Research in a variety of health care and community settings is
271 needed to understand the true extent of the issue.

272 The reasons for the rise in dog bites cannot be ascertained from this data alone but a number of
273 speculations can be made about what might have changed. To the authors' knowledge, only one other
274 paper, describing hospitalisation in Australia, mentions an increase in dog bites admissions being
275 driven by an increase in adult admissions, whilst child admissions remain stable [41]. However,
276 Australian adult incidence never reaches parity to that of children. From these data it is unclear what
277 is driving this increase in adults being bitten by dogs, and why the only adult group showing an increase
278 in admission rate is 35-64 year old women. It could be due to differences in health-seeking behaviour
279 in different age groups and sexes. However, our Poisson models use the entire hospital admissions
280 data as the denominator population and so excludes this as an explanatory reason.

281 One plausible explanation of the increasing number of dog bites is greater exposure due to increasing
282 number of dogs. The estimated UK dog population has risen from 7.9 million in 2010 to 9 million in
283 2018 [43]. There have been changes in pedigree breed preferences which have been theorised to
284 influence dog bites; small breed types have increased in popularity [44]. However, given the specificity
285 of rises in bites to adults, numbers of dogs or breeds owned is unlikely to be a causal factor. Further,
286 there is no clear evidence that bite risk is associated with breed [45,46] despite the continued
287 perception, and legislation [23] suggesting that it does [47].

288 Changes in how dogs are sourced, or how we interact with them, may also be theorised to impact bite
289 incidence. The number of dogs that are moving across borders through the Pet Travel Scheme has
290 increased dramatically from 85,000 in 2011 to over 275,000 in 2016 [48,49]. Many are commercially
291 bred puppies who may miss out on appropriate socialisation and experience the lengthy transport as
292 distressful, which may impact on their behaviour later in life [50–52]. Commercially bred dogs are also
293 more likely to have behavioural issues compared to non-commercial breeders [53,54]. For example,
294 they are three times more likely to show owner-directed aggression, and 1.6 times more likely to show

295 stranger-directed aggression. Dog owners report having an anthropomorphic relationship with their
296 dogs [55], and these relationships are resulting in new expressions of love and care for their pet [56].
297 Unintentionally, these changes may lead to conflict in human-dog interactions, increasing the chances
298 of aggressive behaviours. Currently, 53% of dogs of a given breed do not meet their exercise guidelines
299 [57], and 24% percent of dogs are left alone at home every day for more than five hours [58]. This may
300 deprive them of adequate social contact and also induce frustration. These ideas are all speculative as
301 no study has linked the above potential risk factors to an increase in dog bites. It is unlikely that the
302 rise in dog bites is due to an increased inherent risk of aggression posed by the actual dogs involved
303 (such as socialisation levels or source) as there is not a feasible explanation why this risk would differ
304 so dramatically between ages of the victim.

305 Further work is needed to define what is driving the increase in dog bites in England, and specifically
306 to adults. Differences in dog ownership patterns could be a possibility; if the increase in dog numbers
307 vary between age strata and household type (i.e. young family, single occupancy, retired couple) then
308 specific populations more at risk may have changed over time. It could be hypothesised that rising dog
309 bites are due to an increase in home postal deliveries. Previous research has shown that delivery
310 workers are more frequently bitten compared to other professionals, but their demographics are
311 predominately middle-aged men [29]. Our data show the majority of bites in adults occur at home
312 (80.2%), and the main demographic with an increase are middle-aged women. It is therefore unlikely
313 that this is the sole explanatory cause for an increase in incidence. A final scenario could be that dog
314 bite intervention programmes, which are predominately aimed at children and those who are exposed
315 to dogs at work [22], have been so successful that they have helped to maintain the incidence of dog
316 bites in these high risk groups despite an overwhelming background increase in incidence. Further
317 research is required to understand the causes of these data patterns, but a potential implication is
318 that future prevention strategies should include older demographics.

319 Many studies describe a predominance of dog bites in men across all age groups [8,16,40,41].
320 Univariable analysis showed a higher admission rate for men than women. In the male multivariable
321 model, the highest rates of admission were in children with a decline in admission rates from 30 years
322 old onwards. Conversely, the female model displayed admission rate trends that appear to be unique.
323 The initial peak in children is similar to previous studies, however we can find no other literature
324 describing a second admission peak in women between the ages of 35 and 64. This demographic needs
325 to be explored to understand whether there are any behaviours or interactions that make
326 predominately middle aged women more susceptible to being bitten and admitted to hospital.

327 Our work is the first to show detailed stratification of dog bite admission based on ethnicity. It is
328 interesting that both male and female models show the same differences between ethnicity and
329 admission rates, with 'white' patients having the highest rates of admission. This may be due to
330 cultural differences in ownership and interactions with dogs. For example, in a Liverpool focused
331 study, the area with the highest incidence of dog bites in England, 'non-white' children were 0.23
332 times less likely to own dogs than 'white' children [59].

333 The geography of patients' resident location is complex and challenging to interpret. The patients
334 neighborhood deprivation status was correlated with a higher incidence of bites, which supports
335 previous cross-sectional analysis of HES [18]. Factors typically correlated with higher levels of
336 deprivation have been found to be better predictors of hospital admissions due to bites than any
337 demographic variable [60]. Some of the areas with the highest incidence of dog bite admission, such
338 as Merseyside (North-West England) and Wakefield (North-Central England), have generally high
339 levels of deprivation. However, there were significant anomalies. Oxfordshire (South-Central England)
340 has some of the highest incidence of dog bite admissions (Aylesbury Vale 17.8 admissions per 100,000
341 per year, West Oxfordshire 17.0) but is one of the least deprived areas, and Greater London has some
342 of the most deprived areas but has some of the lowest incidence of admissions. Differences in dog
343 population do not entirely explain these results as the areas with the largest dog populations, the

344 North-West and South-East of England [43], have some of the highest and lowest incidence of
345 admissions respectively. Rural-urban status, likewise, does not give a logical explanation. Through our
346 Poisson model, we have shown that English dog bite admissions are similar to other nations and are
347 higher in rural areas [40,42]. This challenges previous work that described no differences in English
348 dog bite admission numbers due to rural-urban status [19]. These results highlight that the risk factors
349 associated with dog bite admission geography, rural-urban status, and deprivation is likely to be
350 multifactorial and research is needed to disentangle this.

351 The majority cases were admitted through accident and emergency departments. An American study
352 estimated that there were 337,103 dog bite emergency departments attendances annually making up
353 1.1% of all attendances[8]. In comparison, the average annual number of dog bite attendances
354 estimated for England was 206,980, this would equate to 0.8% of all attendances [61]. In the USA,
355 1.7% of dog bite emergency attendances lead to hospital admission [8], 2.7% in the Netherlands [36],
356 whilst in England this was estimated to be 2.1%. The variation in the degree of healthcare privatisation
357 between the USA, the Netherlands and England mean that the estimates calculated here are not
358 completely comparable. However, they do suggest that the estimates calculated within this paper are
359 reasonable and need exploring with a more robust methodology. Our direct health care costings are
360 an improvement on previous research methodologies [21]. Further inspection of hospital records, at
361 a national and individual trust level, is needed to understand how dog bite victims are managed
362 elsewhere within the NHS systems. Further work is needed to calculate and model more accurate
363 direct and indirect health care costs across a variety of different health care settings before we can
364 understand the true cost of dog bites to England.

365 ***Conclusions***

366 The incidence of dog bites in children has stayed consistently high over twenty years, whilst incidence
367 in adults has tripled. Despite sustained education and preventative campaigns across large parts of
368 society, the issue of dog bites continues to grow. Clinicians are at the forefront of this ever-growing

369 problem and have raised concerns that the root of this public health issue has not been addressed.
370 Legislation around breed types[23] is unlikely to solve this issue as dog bite risk has been shown to be
371 complex and multifactorial. Research is required to develop new effective intervention strategies in
372 response to the changing demographics of bite victims, so that the risks of living and working with
373 dogs can be minimised and the benefits fully realised.

374 **Methods**

375 ***Data collection***

376 Hospital Episode Statistics (HES) collates data into datasets that contain information about 1)
377 admissions, 2) A&E attendances and 3) outpatient appointments, in National Health Service (NHS)
378 hospitals in England [62]. These data have been used for the calculation of health care costs and are
379 mainly administrative in nature. Records within A&E and outpatients datasets are often incomplete
380 with inconsistent recording [34]. A preliminary query of the outpatients' dataset only returned 35
381 records for dog bites, and 29 of these were from the same outpatient department. Due to biases
382 inherent in their small numbers and lack of representativeness, outpatients' data were excluded from
383 our analyses. The admissions dataset is the most robust and has been used regularly for
384 epidemiological research [63]; therefore this paper will principally focus on the admissions dataset.

385 Access to the HES database was provided through a data access agreement between Public Health
386 England (PHE) and NHS Digital. Data were provided in a pseudo-anonymised format. We identified
387 finished consultant episodes (FCE) in which patients were coded with a 'dog bite or strike' according
388 to the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision
389 (ICD-10) [64] (Table 1). A finished consultant episode is the analysable unit of HES and refers to the
390 time a patient spends under continuous care from admission to the point of discharge or death. As
391 previously highlighted [6], this definition based on ICD-10 codes does include other dog-related
392 injuries. The proportion directly related to dog bites is unknown and unidentifiable through the
393 analysis of national hospital electronic health records. The impact of this will be discussed.

394 Data were extracted for patients presenting between 1 January 1998 and 31 December 2018 who had
395 a dog bite code in any of the 'external cause' fields in the HES admissions dataset. 'Dog bite' codes are
396 not placed in any of the diagnosis fields of HES. These fields describe the nature of the resultant injury
397 that has occurred and were analysed separately (see Supplementary material) Patient level variables
398 examined included the injury setting (based on the ICD-10 codes in Table 1), sex, age, ethnicity, and
399 the anatomical location and pathology resultant of the injury. Data regarding patient geography was
400 also examined, including; local authority of residence, rural-urban status and the index of multiple
401 deprivation (IMD) decile [65]. The IMD measure the relative levels of deprivation in 32,844 small areas
402 in England; each area contains between 400 and 1200 households. IMD is comprised of seven
403 weighted domains which are combined to give an overall score and subsequent rank [65]. These
404 include: income, employment, health deprivation and disability, education and skills training, crime,
405 barriers to housing and services, and the living environment. For routine HES analysis the IMD ranked
406 areas are then placed into deciles. The first IMD decile contains the 10% most deprived
407 neighbourhoods in England, whilst the tenth decile contains the 10% least deprived. Rural-urban
408 status is defined by the Office of National Statistics, and is applied to the same small area geographies
409 used to define IMD [66]. The definition is based upon both population size and population sparsity in
410 the surrounding geographies. Note these geographical variables all relate to the area of the patient's
411 residence, not that of the hospital.

412 ***Incidence and demographic analysis***

413 The annual incidence of dog bite admissions for England was calculated and stratified by child-adult
414 status, using the Office for National Statistics (ONS) mid-year population estimates as the denominator
415 population [67]. Due to the age-bands used by the ONS, a child was defined as being less than or equal
416 to 14 years of age. Cases between 15 and 18 could not be defined as children as they sit within the 15
417 to 19 age band, which contains adults; national denominator data could not be presented at a higher
418 resolution. Alongside the crude annual incidence, an age-standardised incidence was calculated via

419 direct standardisation with the 2013 European Standard Population [68]. The average annual
420 incidence in each local authority was calculated and plotted on a map; this was based on the patient's
421 residence rather than where they were bitten.

422 Using the identified cases and the national HES admissions population as the denominator, we
423 assessed the following variables using Poisson regression; year, sex, age, ethnicity, IMD and rural-
424 urban status. Any variables that were found to be significant with univariable analysis were taken
425 forward for multivariable analysis. The age-band of 20-24 years old was chosen as the reference age
426 band in analysis as this was likely to be representative of the healthy adult population. Goodness-of-
427 fit Chi-squared tests for Poisson models were performed on all multivariable models created to assess
428 overall model performance. If there was a poor model fit, then overdispersion diagnostics would be
429 performed.

430 Methodology and results describing bite setting, resultant injury, and patient management are
431 compiled in the supplementary material.

432 ***Accident and Emergency Attendance Estimates***

433 Data from the HES A&E dataset were extracted where the 'diagnosis' field included a dog bite ICD-10
434 code. HES A&E data has known issues for injury data. To improve speed of coding and reduction of
435 clinical burden, at the time of the study, clinicians were encouraged to code solely for injury type, a
436 broad cause of injury, and anatomical location [62]. A dog bite fits under the injury type of
437 'Bites/Stings'. Clinicians were under no obligation to define it further to a dog bite, we therefore
438 expect large coding gaps in the data. Recently NHS England has adopted a new A&E dataset and coding
439 nomenclature that may resolve these issues. For each department reporting dog bites, the percentage
440 of patients admitted to the hospital was calculated. A weighted mean admittance rate was calculated;
441 weighting was based on the number of patients attending A&E for a dog bite for that hospital. This
442 figure was applied to the total number of patients being admitted to all English hospitals, as recorded
443 by the admissions data, to estimate the total number of attendances to A&E for the study period.

444 **Direct Health Care Cost Estimates**

445 Crude estimates of direct health care costs were calculated by multiplying the annual number of FCEs,
446 in a financial year, by the annual average unit cost of a 'Non-elective inpatient admission.' This is
447 defined as an 'admitted patient care activity which takes place in a hospital setting where the
448 admission was an emergency/non-elective' [32,69]. This unit cost was chosen as the majority of cases
449 were admitted through A&E and would therefore be classified in this admission category. Total costs
450 were only presented for the financial years 2009/2010 through to 2017/2018 as they had consistent
451 cost definitions, unlike the remaining years. To estimate the direct health care cost of dog bites in
452 A&E, the estimated number of A&E attendances for each financial year were multiplied by the annual
453 average unit cost of 'Accident and Emergency Attendance' [32]. Consistent cost definitions were only
454 available for financial years 2012/2013 through to 2017/2018. Trends in cost over time were tested
455 for significance with linear regression.

456 All statistical and spatial analyses were carried out using R language (version 3.2.0) (R Core Team
457 2015). Results were deemed statistically significant where $p < 0.05$.

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628

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633 in research and care.

634 **Author contributions**

635 JT, SOG, KF, RV and CW developed the study concept. JT extracted data and performed data analysis,
636 with assistance from KF and RV. All authors assisted in interpretation of the results and the writing of
637 the paper. All authors approve of the final manuscript. The corresponding author attests that all listed
638 authors meet authorship criteria and that no others meeting the criteria have been omitted. JT is the
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648 ***Competing Interests***

649 All authors declare: no support from any organisation for the submitted work, no financial
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653 Dogs Trust did not fund this research and did not play a part in planning this study, data analysis or
654 writing of the manuscript. Dogs Trust did fund SOG's PhD conducted between 2015-2020.

655 ***Availability of data and materials***

656 The data governance arrangements for the study do not allow us to redistribute HES data to other
657 parties. Researchers interested in accessing HES data can apply for access through NHS Digital's Data
658 Access Request Service (DARS) <https://dataaccessrequest.hscic.gov.uk/>.

659 ***Ethics approval and consent to participate***

660 No ethical approval was required as these data were collected for public health surveillance under The
661 Health Protection Legislation (England) Guidance 2010 [70]. Hospital Episode Statistics (HES) data
662 were made available by NHS Digital (Copyright 2015, re-used with the permission of NHS Digital. All
663 rights reserved.) Approvals for the use of anonymised HES data were obtained as part of the standard
664 NHS Digital data access process.

665

666 **Figure Legends**

667 **Figure 1** - National incidence of dog bite hospital admissions 1998-2018. Crude incidence = Black
668 Squares, Age-standardised incidence = Green Diamonds and dashed line..

669 **Figure 2** - The average annual incidence of dog bite hospital admissions in England (1998-2018) by
670 local authority (1 = Liverpool, 2 = Oxford, 3 = London). (The authors created this map in R
671 (<https://www.r-project.org/>) using Local Authority Boundary shape files created by the Office for
672 National Statistics (Source: Office for National Statistics licensed under the Open Government
673 Licence v.3.0; Contains OS data © Crown copyright and database right [2014].))

674 **Figure 3** - Estimated direct health care costs of dog bite hospital admissions and accident and
675 emergence attendance in England.

676 **Tables**

677 Table 1. ICD-10 'dog bite' codes stratified by child-adult status

ICD-10 Code	Description	Number of adult cases	Percentage of named settings	Number of child cases	Percentage of named settings
W54.0	Bitten or struck by dog: Home	19354	80.2	11570	90.9
W54.1	Bitten or struck by dog: Residential institution	64	0.3	3	0.02
W54.2	Bitten or struck by dog: School, other institution and public administrative area	200	0.8	81	0.6
W54.3	Bitten or struck by dog: Sports and athletics area	94	0.4	39	0.3
W54.4	Bitten or struck by dog: Street and highway	3694	15.3	816	6.4
W54.5	Bitten or struck by dog: Trade and service area	533	2.2	136	1.1
W54.6	Bitten or struck by dog: Industrial and construction area	68	0.2	2	0.02
W54.7	Bitten or struck by dog: Farm	132	0.5	75	0.6
W54.8	Bitten or struck by dog: Other specified places	6965	N/A	1863	N/A
W54.9	Bitten or struck by dog: Unspecified place	53031	N/A	14067	N/A
Total		84135		28652	

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687 Table 2: Univariate and multivariable Poisson regression analysis for dog bite admission in English

688 hospitals

Independent Variable	n	Univariable Analysis		Male Multivariable Analysis		Female Multivariable Analysis	
		IRR (95% CI)	p-value	IRR (95% CI)	p-value	IRR (95% CI)	p-value
(Intercept)		N/A		1.98e-34 (4.35e-36-8.97e-33)	<0.001	6.28e-41 (1.20e-42-3.25e-39)	<0.001
Year (Linear)							
(Intercept)	112,962	1.05e-25 (1.42e-26 - 7.83e-25)	<0.001	N/A		N/A	
		1.02 (1.02-1.03)	<0.001	1.04 (1.03-1.04)	<0.001	1.04 (1.04-1.05)	<0.001
Sex							
(Intercept)		3.91e-4 (3.87e-4 - 3.94e-4)	<0.001	N/A		N/A	
Male	57,529	1					
Female	55,389	0.76 (0.75-0.77)	<0.001	N/A		NA	
Age (Years)							
(Intercept)		4.38e-4 (4.27e-4 - 4.49e-4)	<0.001	N/A		N/A	
<1	596	0.07 (0.06-0.08)	<0.001	0.05 (0.04-0.06)	<0.001	0.22 (0.19-0.25)	<0.001
1-4	10,828	2.92 (2.84-3.02)	<0.001	1.14 (1.09-1.20)	<0.001	6.94 (6.56-7.34)	<0.001
5-9	9,807	3.77 (3.65-3.89)	<0.001	1.60 (1.52-1.68)	<0.001	8.62 (8.14-9.13)	<0.001
10-14	7,421	3.17 (3.07-3.28)	<0.001	1.63 (1.55-1.72)	<0.001	5.75 (5.40-6.11)	<0.001
15-19	5,473	1.37 (1.32-1.42)	<0.001	1.08 (1.02-1.14)	0.007	1.56 (1.46-1.67)	<0.001
20-24	6,362	1		1		1	
25-29	6,474	0.83 (0.81-0.86)	<0.001	0.92 (0.87-0.97)	0.003	0.84 (0.78-0.89)	<0.001
30-34	6,352	0.78 (0.75-0.80)	<0.001	0.79 (0.75-0.83)	<0.001	0.85 (0.80-0.91)	<0.001
35-39	6,794	0.94 (0.91-0.98)	0.001	0.69 (0.65-0.73)	<0.001	1.28 (1.21-1.36)	<0.001
40-44	7,526	1.15 (1.12-1.19)	<0.001	0.59 (0.55-0.62)	<0.001	1.91 (1.80-2.02)	<0.001
45-49	8,190	1.18 (1.14-1.22)	<0.001	0.51 (0.49-0.54)	<0.001	1.99 (1.88-2.11)	<0.001
50-54	7,823	1.01 (0.98-1.04)	0.64	0.40 (0.38-0.43)	<0.001	1.78 (1.68-1.89)	<0.001
55-59	6,759	0.78 (0.76-0.81)	<0.001	0.30 (0.28-0.31)	<0.001	1.44 (1.35-1.53)	<0.001
60-64	5,826	0.61 (0.59-0.63)	<0.001	0.21 (0.20-0.22)	<0.001	1.16 (1.10-1.24)	<0.001
65-69	5,075	0.48 (0.46-0.49)	<0.001	0.16 (0.15-0.17)	<0.001	0.92 (0.86-0.98)	0.008
70-74	4,159	0.37 (0.35-0.38)	<0.001	0.13 (0.12-0.14)	<0.001	0.69 (0.64-0.74)	<0.001
75-79	3,229	0.28 (0.27-0.29)	<0.001	0.09 (0.08-0.09)	<0.001	0.57 (0.53-0.61)	<0.001
80-85	2,233	0.22 (0.21-0.23)	<0.001	0.06 (0.06-0.07)	<0.001	0.45 (0.41-0.48)	<0.001
>85	1,860	0.16 (0.15-0.17)	<0.001	0.05 (0.05-0.06)	<0.001	0.28 (0.26-0.30)	<0.001
Ethnicity							
(Intercept)		3.60e-4 (3.57e-4 - 3.62e-4)	<0.001	N/A		N/A	
White	88,702	1		1		1	
Asian	1,262	0.24 (0.23-0.25)	<0.001	0.22 (0.20-0.24)	<0.001	0.10 (0.09-0.11)	<0.001
Black	1,102	0.38 (0.36-0.41)	<0.001	0.39 (0.36-0.42)	<0.001	0.17 (0.15-0.19)	<0.001
Chinese	88	0.33 (0.27-0.40)	<0.001	0.25 (0.17-0.35)	<0.001	0.28 (0.20-0.38)	<0.001
Mixed	919	1.01 (0.94-1.07)	0.88	0.68 (0.62-0.64)	<0.001	0.59 (0.53-0.65)	<0.001
Other Ethnic Group	1,312	0.76 (0.72-0.80)	<0.001	0.59 (0.54-0.64)	<0.001	0.48 (0.44-0.53)	<0.001
Index of Multiple Deprivation (Linear- Starting at 1)							
(Intercept)	96,686	4.58e-4 (4.52e-4 - 4.64e-4)	<0.001	N/A		N/A	
		0.94 (0.94-0.94)	<0.001	0.91 (0.91-0.92)	<0.001	0.96 (0.95-0.96)	<0.001
Rural Urban							
(Intercept)		3.88e-4 (3.83e-4 - 3.93e-4)	<0.001	N/A		N/A	
Rural	23,264	1		1		1	
Urban	88,453	0.87 (0.86-0.88)	<0.001	0.81 (0.79-0.84)	<0.001	0.73 (0.72-0.75)	<0.001

689 *IRR: Incidence rate ratio; CI: Confidence Interval.

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