

## EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF THE SPARE PROJECT: A MODEL TO SPATIALLY ASSESS EXOTIC DISEASES INCURSIONS AND SPREAD THROUGHOUT EUROPE

Crescio Maria Ines<sup>1</sup>, Maurella Cristiana<sup>1</sup>, Bertolini Silvia<sup>1</sup>, Mastrantonio Gianluca<sup>2</sup>,  
Ingravalle Francesco<sup>1</sup>, Bona Maria Cristina<sup>1</sup>, Simons Robin<sup>3</sup>, De Nardi Marco<sup>4</sup>,  
Adkin Amie<sup>3</sup>, Estrada-Peña Augustin<sup>5</sup> et Ru Giuseppe<sup>1</sup>



### ABSTRACT

*In this article, we describe a spatially explicit exposure assessment model developed within the SPARE project ([www.spare-europe.eu](http://www.spare-europe.eu)). In particular we show how we estimated the spatial probability that the introduction of one animal infected with a vector borne disease (in our example Bluetongue) will lead to at least one other infected animal, using the Piedmont region of North Western Italy as an example area.*

*An extensive literature search lead to a systematic and structured inventory of exposure risk factors. This inventory was then used to develop scenario tree pathways, detailing the main exposure pathways, along with the equations and their parametrization. A stochastic model was then implemented and run. Based on the model, we provide maps with a different distribution of the probability of a secondary transmission. This is quite high in the whole region and temperature is the factor most influencing it: districts with smaller temperature peaks around 23°C in the period April-November show the highest risk and the lowest uncertainty. Providing a map of the areas where livestock are more likely to be exposed can be useful to inform national surveillance policies.*

**Keywords:** exposure assessment, vector-borne diseases, Bluetongue.

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<sup>1</sup> Biostatistica, Epidemiologia e Analisi del Rischio, Istituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale di Piemonte, Liguria e Valle d' Aosta (IZSTO), Via Bologna 148 - 10154 Torino, Italy

<sup>2</sup> Dipartimento di Scienze Matematiche, Politecnico di Torino, Corso Duca degli Abruzzi, 24 - 10129 Torino, Italy

<sup>3</sup> Department of Epidemiological Sciences, Animal and Plant Health Agency, Woodham Lane, New Haw, Addlestone, Surrey, KT15 3NB, UK

<sup>4</sup> SAFOSO AG, SAFOSO AG, Waldeggrasse 1, CH 3097 Liebefeld, Switzerland

<sup>5</sup> Departamento de Parasitología, Facultad de Veterinaria, C. Miguel Servet, 177, 50013 Zaragoza, Spain

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**RÉSUMÉ**

Dans cet article, nous décrivons un modèle d'évaluation de l'exposition, explicité spatialement, développé dans le projet « SPARE » ([www.spare-europe.eu](http://www.spare-europe.eu)). En particulier, nous montrons comment nous avons estimé la probabilité spatiale que l'introduction d'un animal infecté par une maladie vectorielle (la fièvre catarrhale ovine, dans notre exemple) mènera, au moins, à un autre animal infecté, en utilisant la région du Piémont de l'Italie du Nord-Ouest comme zone d'exemple.

Une recherche bibliographique étendue a conduit à la rédaction d'une liste structurée et systématique de facteurs de risque d'exposition. Cette liste a alors été utilisée pour développer des arbres de probabilité, détaillant les principales branches d'exposition, avec les équations et leur paramétrage. Un modèle stochastique a été mis en œuvre et exécuté. Nous fournissons des cartes affichant une distribution différente de la probabilité d'une transmission secondaire fondée sur le modèle. Cette probabilité est très élevée dans toute la région et la température est le facteur principal : les zones avec des petites poussées de température autour de 23°C pendant la période novembre-avril montrent le risque le plus élevé et l'incertitude la plus faible. Fournir une carte des zones où le bétail est le plus susceptible d'être exposé peut être utile pour établir des politiques nationales de surveillance.

**Mots-clés :** évaluation de l'exposition, maladie vectorielle, fièvre catarrhale ovine.




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**I - INTRODUCTION**


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The increasing threat posed by the incursion of exotic animal pathogens such as Lumpy Skin Disease and African Swine Fever to the European Union (EU) has been recently highlighted [Mur *et al.*, 2014, EFSA, 2016]. Moreover, the number of the outbreaks in people, including zoonotic agents, occurring annually throughout the world is increasing [Smith *et al.*, 2014], becoming a great concern at both the global and national level. During the last years, an increasing number of risk assessments have been conducted by international organisations [ECDC, 2016] as well as by individual countries [Roberts, 2016].

One of the main aims of the collaborative European research project SPARE, 'Spatial risk assessment framework for assessing exotic disease incursion and spread through Europe' [SPARE, 2016], is to develop a quantitative risk assessment to describe the spatial introduction and spread of exotic livestock pathogens within Europe, based on the most probable routes of transmission.

The risk assessment was conceived to be modular with the release, exposure and consequence assessments developed independently.

Within SPARE, to focus the work, three case studies pathogens were selected by means of a multi-criteria risk-ranking framework, as described in De Nardi *et al.*, 2016: Bluetongue virus (BTV) (route of transmission: vector borne diseases), classical swine fever (routes of transmission: direct contact and import of animal products) and rabies (routes of transmission: wildlife and people and pet movements). For each case study spatially explicit models concerning either the release or the exposure or the consequences were developed. Aim of this study was to develop a general exposure assessment framework for vector borne diseases. This general model was then validated using BTV as a case study. Here we present the estimation of the spatial probability that introduction of one infected animal affected by BTV will lead to at least one other infected animal, using the Piedmont region of North Western Italy as an example area.

## II - MATERIAL AND METHODS

To assess the risk of exposure of livestock populations to exotic vector borne diseases we firstly extracted, from the OIE listed diseases, the diseases that can be transmitted by vectors and that are not endemic in Europe (Table 1). For each of these pathogens, an extensive literature search was carried out. The search covered peer reviewed

publications and grey literature, using snowball searching and googling [Lecy *et al.*, 2012].

Based on the scientific literature and the expertise available within the research team, the risk factors that may affect the probability of an infectious agent spreading in the susceptible population because of its introduction were identified.

**Table 1**

**List of the OIE listed diseases not endemic in Europe which can be transmitted by vectors**

Disease
African Horse Sickness
African Swine Fever
Bluetongue
Crimean Congo Haemorrhagic Fever
<i>Ehrlichia Ruminantium</i> (Heartwater)
Epizootic Haemorrhagic virus
Equine encephalomyelitis - Eastern and Western
Equine Infectious Anaemia
Japanese Encephalitis
Lumpy Skin Disease
Nairobi sheep disease
Rift Valley Fever
Venezuelan Equine Encephalomyelitis
Vesicular stomatitis
West Nile Fever

The identified risk factors were then characterised in terms of:

- relevance for the exposure assessment model (2 classes: 0='Parameter not necessary (but that can improve the model)'; 1='Parameter necessary');
- potential availability of data sources and quality of data (5 classes: 0='Very good data availability'; 1=' Good data availability'; 2='Acceptable data availability; 3='Poor data availability - Data Gap'; 4='No data - Serious Data gap');

- uncertainty of data sources availability (4 classes: 0='No availability'; 1='Low availability'; 2='Medium availability'; 3='High availability').

The diseases were then ranked on the characterization of the basis of availability of data sources and the quality of data and Bluetongue was select to be modelled for its high ranking.

Focussing on BTV risk assessment, a second extensive literature search on PubMed (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed>), was carried out with the following research strings: "Blue Tongue[Text Word]) AND risk

assessment[Text Word]" (accessed on 10/03/2016). Moreover, grey literature (*i.e.* national risk assessment reports) was also considered by carrying out a snowball search starting from references of the selected articles and the following string was googled: "Blue Tongue Risk assessment". Scenario trees detailing the main, and most likely, exposure pathways were developed, along with the equations and their most appropriate parametrization based on available data, incorporating variability where relevant.

A stochastic model, based on the developed scenario trees, was then developed in R to provide a spatially explicit quantitative assessment of the BTV risk of exposure to livestock.

Finally an estimate of the spatial probability that introduction of one infected animal affected by BTV will lead to at least one other infected animal was provided at a NUTS 3 level (*i.e.* districts) in the Piedmont region of North Western Italy, running with 1000 iterations the stochastic model for each district. The model considered cattle and small ruminants as 'animal', and *Culicoides spp* as 'vector'.

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### III - RESULTS

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Seven main categories of risk factors were identified, leading to an overall number of 27 risk factors affecting the exposure to vector-borne diseases. Those factors, along with the results of their characterisation specific to BTV, are reported in Figure 1.

The scenario tree pathway for the exposure to vector-borne diseases leading to the probability of a secondary transmission after the introduction of one infected animal is reported in Figure 2.

Parameters and data sources for the BTV model are reported in Table 2.

The probability of a secondary transmission of BTV after the introduction of one infected animal is quite high in the whole region, with a range from 66% to 92% in cattle and from 48% to 74% in sheep. A sensitivity analysis showed that the factor most influencing the output is temperature: districts with smaller temperature excursions around 23°C (provinces: AT and NO for cattle population; AT, NO and AL for small-ruminants population), showed the highest risk and the lowest uncertainty (Figure 3).

**Figure 1****Characterisation of the factors affecting the exposure to Bluetongue.**

Classes of data availability and uncertainty are expressed as shades of grey: light grey: very good data/no uncertainty; medium grey: good data/low uncertainty; dark grey: sufficient data/medium uncertainty; black: poor data/high uncertainty

<b>BLUETONGUE</b>	<b>Data availability</b>	<b>Uncertainty</b>
<b>INFECTION EPIDEMIOLOGY</b>		
Case definition		
Incubation period (infectious period before the clinical symptoms)		
Average time to end of infectious period		
Differential diagnosis complexity		
* <b>Vaccine availability</b>		
Vaccine efficacy		
<b>DISEASE PREVALENCE IN:</b>		
* <b>Bovine</b>		
* <b>Sheep</b>		
* <b>Goats</b>		
<b>COUNTRY FEATURES</b>		
Vaccine diffusion		
* <b>Existence of a surveillance program</b>		
Surveillance efficiency		
Public health authorities awareness		
Farmer awareness		
Proxy of population awareness		
<b>GEOGRAPHIC RISK</b>		
* <b>Infected areas proximity (geographical borders)</b>		
<b>POPULATION DENSITY</b>		
* <b>Bovine</b>		
* <b>Sheep</b>		
* <b>Goats</b>		
<b>POTENTIAL CONTACTS</b>		
* <b>Bovine movements in Italy</b>		
* <b>Sheep movements in Italy</b>		
* <b>Goats movements in Italy</b>		
Importation of bovine in Italy		
Importation of sheep in Italy		
Importation of goats in Italy		
<b>VECTORS</b>		
Vectors distribution (mosquitoes)		
Presence of wetland		

\* Parameters necessary to develop the exposure assessment model.

Figure 2

A fishbone diagram showing the scenario tree pathway for the exposure to vector-borne pathogens after the introduction of an infected animal (Bluetongue). P.= Probability

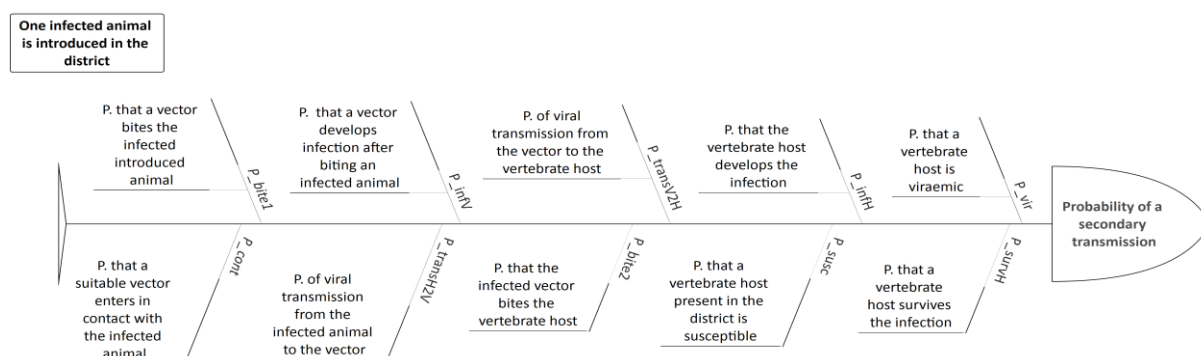


Table 2

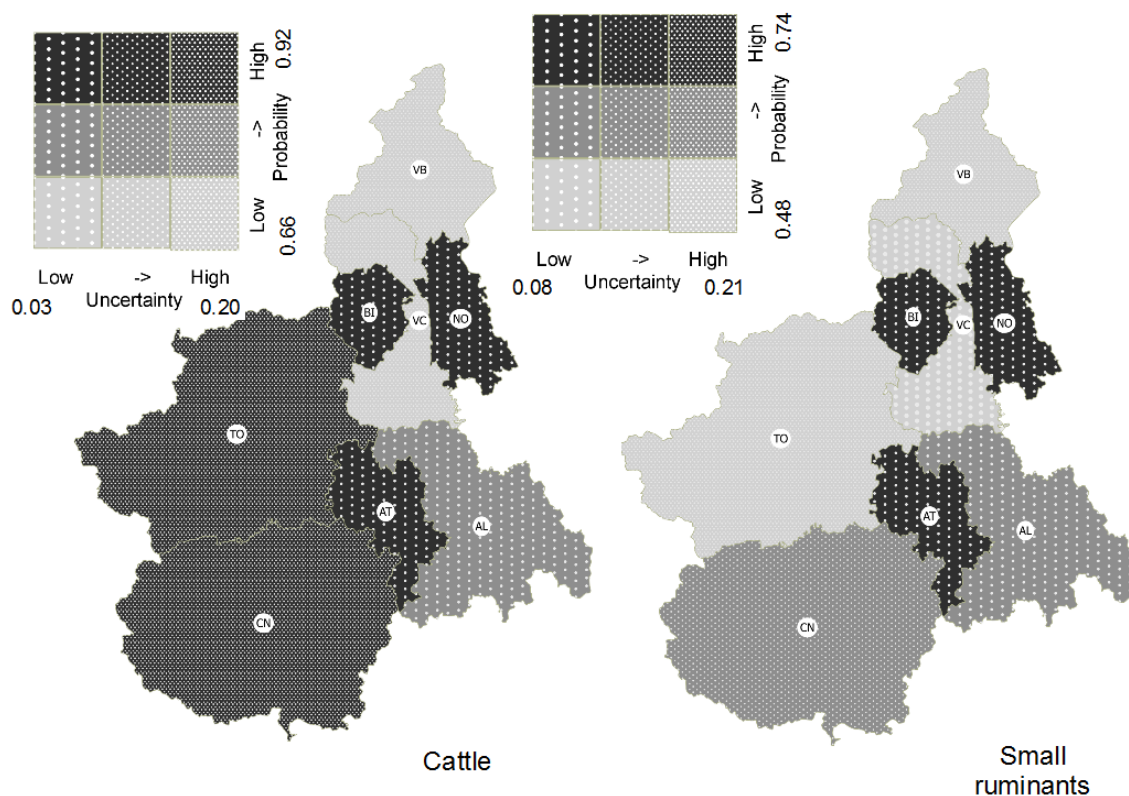
Parameters and data sources for the stochastic model for Bluetongue virus exposure assessment.

Notation	Variable	Distribution	Parameter	Data source
T	Temperature °C (T)	Normal ( $\mu$ , $\sigma$ )	$\mu$ =mean $\sigma$ =standard deviation	Global Climate data ( <a href="http://www.worldclim.org/">http://www.worldclim.org/</a> )
H	Number of hosts Host density			National Cattle Registry ( <a href="http://www.vetinfo.it">www.vetinfo.it</a> )
F	Number of farms Farm density			National Cattle Registry ( <a href="http://www.vetinfo.sanita.it">www.vetinfo.sanita.it</a> )
d	Days of life for a vector		$111.84 * \exp(-0.1547 * T)$	Mullens <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Gerry <i>et al.</i> , 2000
V	Vector density	Uniform(a,b)	a=min number of Culicoides, b=max number of Culicoides	Entomologic Bluetongue surveillance data Piedmont
S	Spread of vector (Km)	Uniform(a,b)	a=51, b=152.5	Roberts <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Kluiters <i>et al.</i> , 2015
P_cont	Probability that a suitable vector enters in contact with the infected animal		$=1 - (((1 - ((1 - P(H)) * (1 - P(F)))^S)^d)$	
b	Vector probability of biting a host		$=1 - \exp(-0.000171 * T * (T - 3,6966) * (41,8699 - T)^{(1/2,7056)})$	Mullens <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Gerry <i>et al.</i> , 2000
P_bite	Probability that a vector bites the introduced infected animal		$= (1 - B(V/(H * F), 1/H)) * b * P_{cont}$	
t	Probability of transmission from host to vector	Uniform(a,b)	a=0.8, b=1	Hartemink <i>et al.</i> , 2009
P_transH2V	Probability of viral transmission from the infected animal to the		$= P_{bite} * t$	

	vector			
$y$	Probability for a vector to become infectious		$=1-\text{EXP}(-0,0003*T*(T-10,4))$	Hartemink <i>et al.</i> , 2009
$P_{\text{infV}}$	Probability that a vector develops the infection after biting the infected animal		$P_{\text{transH2V}}*y$	
$P_{\text{bite2}}$	Probability that the infected vector bites the vertebrate host		$1-(((1-(1-P(F)))*(1-P(H/F))))^S)^d$	
$m$	Probability of transmission from vector to host	Uniform(a,b)	$a=0.001, b=0.15$	Guis <i>et al.</i> , 2011
$P_{\text{transV2H}}$	Probability of viral transmission from the vector to the vertebrate host		$m*P_{\text{bite2}}*P_{\text{cont}}$	
$C$	Vaccine coverage	Uniform(a,b)	Cattle: $a=0.01, b=0.3$ Small ruminants: $a=0.3, b=0.6$	Anonymous, 2002
$E$	Vaccine efficacy	Uniform(a,b)	$a=0.98, b=1$ Cattle: $a=0.01, b=0.3$ Small ruminants: $a=0.3, b=0.6$	EFSA, 2007, Anonymous, 2002
$P_{\text{susc}}$	Probability that a vertebrate host present in the district is susceptible	Uniform(a,b)	$a=0.98, b=1 - (C*E)$	EFSA, 2007
$i$	Probability for a susceptible host to develop infection	Uniform(a,b)	$a=0.97, b=1$	<a href="http://www.discontools.eu/">http://www.discontools.eu/</a>
$P_{\text{infH}}$	Probability that the vertebrate host develops the infection		$P_{\text{susc}}*i*P_{\text{transV2H}}$	
$k$	Probability of dying	Uniform(a,b)	Cattle: $a=0.000010, b=0.00001$ Small ruminants: $a=0.01, b=0.001$	<a href="http://www.discontools.eu/">http://www.discontools.eu/</a>
$P_{\text{surv}}$	Probability that a vertebrate host survives the infection		$1-k$	
$D$	Duration of infection	Uniform(a,b)	Cattle: $a=18, b=25$ Small ruminants: $a=14, b=20$	Guis <i>et al.</i> , 2011
$P_{\text{vir}}$	Probability that the vertebrate host is viraemic		$=1-\text{EXP}(-0,0003*T*(T-10,4))(1-(1-(P_{\text{surv}}*P_{\text{infH}}))^D)$	

**Figure 3****Output of the stochastic quantitative assessment of the probability of exposure to vector-borne diseases after the introduction of one infected animal in Piedmont in the period of *Culicoides spp* presence (April-November).**

The map combines two types of information: the probability that a domestic animal is infected after the introduction of one Bluetongue infected animal (shown from bottom to top in the legend) and how certain it is (shown from left to right in the legend).




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#### IV - DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

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In this paper, we present a generic exposure model framework for secondary transmission of an exotic vector-borne disease, after the introduction of one infected animal to a specific geographical area. Exposure to bluetongue virus in the Piedmont region of Italy was used as case study, and modelling was carried out based on the parameterisation of the relevant factors. Results from the stochastic model suggest varying levels of risk between the different districts of Piedmont, with temperature being identified as the most influential parameter in the model. Differences between species reflects not only the different population densities, but also the disease related

variables (e.g.: duration of disease, severity of disease, probability of dying).

Our choice of modelling Bluetongue, a disease far to be exotic in Europe, was driven by its selection as case study pathogen for the SPARE project. This was in part due to data availability and uncertainty: when dealing with Italian livestock like cattle and small ruminants, data of good quality are available and the needed input parameters (e.g. population densities) may be quantified with little uncertainty.

Moreover modelling Bluetongue allows us to integrate our model with the outputs of an ongoing network analysis on livestock movements

(recorded in Italy only for cattle and, with some limitation, for sheep).

The generic framework presented here is designed to be adaptable to other vector-borne diseases, such as West Nile or African Horse Sickness and also to other geographical regions. However, data availability is likely to be an issue in some cases. For example, in Italy Equidae registration, even if mandatory, may be still poor and good data about population density are lacking, which would be a problem for modelling African Horse Sickness.

In our model, we took advantage of observed data on *Culicoides* abundance, coming from entomological surveillance; however this could have led to a certain degree of overestimation of vector abundance in some part of the region, as traps were not evenly distributed over districts.

The role of temperature on vector activity and its impact on spread of infection is well reported in the literature [Racloz *et al.*, 2008; Elbers *et al.*, 2015], but the knowledge of the relationship between vector biology and climatic factors is limited to studies conducted on *Culicoides sonorensis*, and could be different for *Culicoides imicola* (widespread in Southern Europe) and *Culicoides obsoletus complex* (present in Northern Europe).

In conclusion, taking into account the uncertainties, the outputs of this assessment can help to inform national surveillance policies, by providing evidence for geographical areas where livestock are more likely to be effectively exposed.

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