

1 **Feline tooth resorption findings from a questionnaire survey on 8115 Finnish**  
2 **cats and a case-control study for a more defined population drawn from the**  
3 **survey**

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## 13 **Abstract**

14 Tooth resorption (TR) is one of the most common dental diseases in cats. It is a painful disease  
15 characterised by progressive dental destruction, which eventually results in loss of teeth. The  
16 aetiology of the disease remains unclear, but associations with old age, breed, other oral and dental  
17 diseases, and certain environmental factors have been suspected. We collected health and  
18 environmental information of 8115 Finnish cats from 41 breeds through an online survey for cat  
19 owners to study TR in Finland with an observational study. The frequency of TR that the owner  
20 reported as veterinarian-diagnosed was 3.9% in the entire data (316/8115) and 15% in cats that the  
21 owner reported as having veterinarian-diagnosed oral or dental disease (316/2070). We determined  
22 the risk factors and breed variation of feline TR by logistic regression with the entire data and a  
23 case-control study in a more defined population drawn from the entire data. In the entire data, we  
24 defined those cats that the owners had reported as being diagnosed with TR by a veterinarian as TR-  
25 cats and compared them to all other cats. In the case-control study, we included only cats with  
26 owner-reported veterinarian-diagnosed oral and dental diseases. We defined cats with TR-diagnosis  
27 made under sedation as TR-cases. Other veterinarian-diagnosed TR-cats were excluded. Cats with  
28 other oral and dental diseases were used as controls. The model with the entire population included  
29 308 TR-cats compared with 7508 cats, and the case-control study included 198 TR-cats and 1683  
30 controls. Although the diagnoses were reportedly made by a veterinarian, the owner answered the  
31 survey and might have understood, remembered, or interpreted the diagnoses in a way that could  
32 affect the results. The results indicated an increasing risk of TR with age. Dental calculus,  
33 gingivitis, and periodontitis were potential risk factors for TR. These findings and the interaction  
34 between dental calculus and gingivitis suggest that inflammatory changes caused by dental calculus  
35 increase the risk of TR. Keeping food available constantly was a potential protective factor. We  
36 found that Cornish Rex, European, and Ragdoll breeds were at higher risk for TR. The observed  
37 differences between breeds highlight a genetic contribution.

38 Keywords: cat, feline, tooth resorption, FORL, dental, oral disease

39

## 40 **Introduction**

41 Tooth resorption (TR) is one of the most common dental diseases in cats. It is a painful disease  
42 characterised by progressive dental destruction, which eventually results in loss of teeth. Dental  
43 radiography is required to evaluate the overall situation (Reiter and Mendoza, 2002). Prevention of  
44 TR is not possible as the aetiology is still unknown. The goal of treatment is to relieve pain and  
45 discomfort caused by these lesions (Gorrel, 2008). The leading cause of destruction is odontoclasts,  
46 multinuclear cells that resorb mineralised tissue (Okuda and Harvey, 1992). Odontoclasts are  
47 responsible for the resorption of deciduous teeth in young animals, but their abnormal activity in  
48 permanent teeth is the cause of TR (Scarlett et al., 1999). The reason for this process remains  
49 unclear, although many different theories have been proposed. Tooth resorption can include plaque  
50 accumulation, inflammation of the adjacent tissue, and alveolar bone ankylosis (DeLaurier et al.,  
51 2009). As the pathogenesis of tooth resorption is unclear, many different terms have been used to  
52 describe the lesion, i.e., erosion, neck lesion, and feline odontoclastic resorptive lesion (FORL). The  
53 most common term currently used is TR.

54           Increasing age increases the risk of TR (Coles, 1990; Harvey, 1993; Lund et al., 1998;  
55 Ingham et al., 2001; Pettersson and Mannerfelt, 2003; Reiter et al., 2005b; DeLaurier et al., 2009;  
56 Mestrinho et al., 2013). Scarlett et al. (1999) reported that cats with previous dental disease  
57 (gingivitis, calculus, or periodontal disease) had four to five times higher odds for resorptive lesions  
58 than those without the previous dental disease. An association of gingivitis with TR lesions has also  
59 been found in some studies (Harvey, 1993; Mestrinho et al., 2013) but not in others (Ingham et al.,  
60 2001; Gorrel and Larsson, 2002). However, the methods of Gorrel and Larsson (2002) differed  
61 from others as they examined individual teeth histologically. Periodontitis is associated with  
62 inflammatory tooth resorption (DuPont and DeBowes, 2002). However, inflammation associated

63 with tooth resorption can cause inflammatory resorption of the surrounding alveolar bone and  
 64 increase the risk of decreased alveolar bone height (Lemmons, 2013). Farcas et al. (2014) did not  
 65 find TR more in cats with chronic gingivostomatitis.

66 The size and origin of the study population and study methods have a major impact on  
 67 the reported prevalence of TR in previous studies, which range from 29-85% (Table 1). Most  
 68 studies are based on a small clinical sample (n< 150), and no reports have been published on a large  
 69 population sample. Studies with the largest sample size are van Wessum (1992) with 432 cats and  
 70 62% prevalence, Lommer and Verstraete (2000) with 265 cats and 60.8% prevalence, and Ingham  
 71 et al. (2001) with 228 cats and 29% prevalence.

72

73 **Table 1.** Prevalence of feline tooth resorption in previous studies.

Reference	Country	Target population	Study population (n), average age (years)	Method	Prevalence (%)
Coles 1990	Australia	General anaesthesia	64, NK	Clinical	52
van Wessum et al. 1992	Netherlands	Dental procedure	432, NK	Clinical	62
van Wessum et al. 1992	United States	Dental procedure	78, NK	Clinical and radiographs	67
Lund et al. 1998	United States	General anaesthesia	145, 7.9	Clinical	48
Ingham et al. 2001	United Kingdom	Clinically healthy test animals	228, 4.9	Clinical and radiographs	29
Lommer and Verstraete 2000	United States	Dental procedure	265, NK	Radiographs	60.8
Petterson and Mannerfelt 2003	Sweden	Sedation	96, 6.0	Clinical and radiographs	32
DeLaurier et	United	Clinically and	13, NK	Electron	85

al. 2009	States	radiographically normal teeth		microscopy
Whyte et al. 2020	Spain	Clinical signs of dental disease	59, 8.0 (median)	Clinical and radiographs 66.1

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74 NK = not known

75

76 Our first objective was to investigate the frequency of cats that the owner reported as  
77 having TR diagnosed by a veterinarian with an extensive population survey. The second objective  
78 was to study the risk factors for TR in the entire population and, with a case-control study, in a  
79 more defined population of cats with TR-diagnosis made under sedation by a veterinarian compared  
80 with cats with other veterinarian-diagnosed oral or dental diseases. We did not specify any  
81 hypotheses, but we wanted to explore the possibilities to study this kind of disease with a big  
82 observational data.

83

## 84 **Materials and Methods**

85 The material for this study was part of a cross-sectional online feline health survey targeted at all  
86 Finnish cat owners. The data originated from survey responses between December 2012 and  
87 February 2015 and included responses for 8115 cats from the feline health survey. The cats  
88 belonged to 40 different breeds and non-pedigree house cats. We used sample size requirements for  
89 breeds as described by Vapalahti et al. (2016). The sample size requirements were met in purebred  
90 cats by 13 single breeds and six breed groups that consisted of 18 different breeds. There was no  
91 random sampling involved since owners themselves selected participation.

92 The questionnaire included cat-level information about the cats themselves, their  
93 environment, diseases, and behaviour. The diseases were divided into various categories, and each  
94 category included information on whether the diagnosis was made by a veterinarian or by the  
95 owner. The diseases or conditions that the owner reported as being diagnosed by a veterinarian are

96 referred to veterinarian-diagnosed. The content, the questionnaire, and data collection methods in  
97 detail and some results of the survey have been published previously by Vapalahti et al. (2016),  
98 Ahola et al. (2017) and Salonen et al. (2019). Our data consisted of basic information on the cat  
99 (breed, registration number, day of birth, possible day of death, gender, neutering), environmental  
100 factors (vaccinations, outdoor habits, diet, home environment), and disease categories and specific  
101 diagnoses. The specific diagnoses were considered only in oral and dental diseases, autoimmune  
102 diseases, and viral infections. The differential diagnoses in dental and oral diseases were  
103 malocclusion, gingivitis, stomatitis, periodontitis, tooth resorption (in the survey as feline  
104 odontoclastic resorptive lesion [FORL]), dental calculus, tooth fracture, and an abnormal number of  
105 teeth.

106           The age of the cat was the difference between the date of birth and the date of  
107 response. Age was categorised into the following age groups: <1 year, 1 to <3 years, 3 to <7 years,  
108 7 to <11 years, and at least 11 years. For multivariable analysis, the following age groups were  
109 used: <7 years, 7 to < 11 years, and at least 11 years. The gender of the cats was coded as ‘male’ (1)  
110 and ‘female’ (2) and neutering as ‘yes’ (1) and ‘no’ (0). The association of TR with other conditions  
111 was studied at the level of disease categories and specific diagnosis level. As an exception to other  
112 disease categories, in the dental and oral disease category, only the veterinarian’s diagnoses were  
113 included in the study. In other disease categories, the initial options ‘veterinarian’s diagnosis’ or  
114 ‘own diagnosis’ were summed up to the option ‘yes’ (1) if either option was selected. ‘Not known’  
115 responses were coded as missing. Finally, re-encoding included the options: ‘yes’ (1) and ‘no’ (0).  
116 In the analysis of specific diagnoses, coding ‘yes (1)’ or ‘no (0)’ was used. The environmental  
117 questions, such as diet and vaccinations, were coded similarly.

118           Those cats with a veterinarian-diagnosed TR, as reported by the owner in the health  
119 survey, were considered TR-cats and are referred to as veterinarian-diagnosed TR-cats.  
120 Demographic and environmental factors of cats were examined and tabulated. The frequency of

121 veterinarian-diagnosed TR in different breeds and age groups was calculated with cross-tabulation.  
122 Cross tabulation was also used to evaluate the associations of TR with gender, other diseases, and  
123 environmental factors. The 95% confidence intervals (CI) for prevalence were calculated with  
124 EpiTools (Sergeant, 2017) using the Wilson method (Brown et al., 2001). Statistical significance of  
125 associations in cross-tabulation was evaluated with Fisher's exact test for two-categorical variables,  
126 Chi-square test for multicategorical variables, and Kruskal-Wallis test for ordinal variables. After  
127 cross-tabulations, variables at level  $P < 0.2$  in basic tests were further analysed individually in  
128 preliminary logistic regressions with confounding factors. According to the literature, age, gender,  
129 and breed were considered confounding factors (Houe et al., 2004). Variables with P-value  $< 0.05$   
130 (Wald chi-square) were qualified for the multivariable logistic regression modelling for TR's most  
131 important risk factors. For modeling, variables with uneven groups or multiple missing values were  
132 excluded if the reliable analysis was compromised.

133 Modelling was first performed with the entire population, and we compared all cats with  
134 veterinarian-diagnosed TR with all the cats without TR based on the survey. Secondly, to minimise  
135 the dispersion and selection bias of the multivariable model, we further defined a more specified  
136 population for a case-control study. In this second multivariable modelling, TR-cases were  
137 veterinarian-diagnosed TR-cats that the owner mentioned as being sedated during the veterinarian's  
138 examination (clarified in the open-ended question field). These cats are referred to as under sedation  
139 diagnosed TR-cats. Other veterinarian-diagnosed TR-cats were excluded. We used cats with other  
140 veterinarian-diagnosed oral or dental disease as controls. Instead of using breed as an organisational  
141 level variable, we used it as an independent variable since we were interested in its association with  
142 TR. When evaluating breed associations, we used house cats as the reference group.

143 Interactions until the second order and multicollinearity between variables were tested.  
144 The model selection was performed by backward selection and goodness-of-fit statistics. P-value  
145  $< 0.05$  of Wald chi-square was set to cut-off value for significance. The goodness of fit of the model

146 was evaluated with deviance and Pearson goodness-of-fit statistics, McFadden index, and Akaike  
147 information criterion (AIC), and the predictive value by the area under the curve (AUC) of the  
148 receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve. Multicollinearity between variables was estimated by  
149 Phi coefficient; the limit value for strong correlation was set at 0.5 (Pett, 1997). Microsoft Office  
150 Excel 2010 was used for data editing, IBM SPSS Statistics, version 22-24, Chicago, USA for  
151 statistical analysis, and SAS version 9.4, SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC for final logistic regression  
152 modelling.

153

## 154 **Results**

155

### 156 **Frequency of tooth resorption**

157 Our population consisted of 8115 cats from 41 breeds, of which 4290 (53%) were females. Of these  
158 cats, 2070 (26%) were diagnosed with oral or dental disease, and 316 cats had a veterinarian-  
159 diagnosed TR. The mean age of the cat population was 5.3 years. Mean age was 5.1 years for cats  
160 without TR and 9.8 years for cats with veterinarian-diagnosed TR. The frequency of veterinarian-  
161 diagnosed TR in our study was 3.9% (95% CI 3.5–4.3). The frequency increased with age and was  
162 0.4% in cats 1 to <3 years, 3.0% in cats 3 to <7 years, 8.8% in cats 7 to <11 years, and 11.6% in  
163 cats at least 11 years. TR was not reported in cats under 1 year of age. For comparison, in the  
164 subgroup of cats diagnosed with oral or dental disease, the frequency of veterinarian-diagnosed TR  
165 was 15.2% (95% CI 13.5–16.8) and increased with age (3.7%, 12.6%, 24.3% and 28.1%,  
166 respectively).

167 We did not find any significant difference between TR frequency in purebred cats and  
168 non-pedigree house cats (3.8%, 95% CI 3.4–4.3 and 4.2%, 95% CI 3.3–5.3, respectively;  $P=0.551$ ,  
169 Fisher). However, in some breeds, the frequency was much higher or lower than in the entire  
170 population or in house cats. High TR frequency was observed in Siamese (9.9%), Abyssinian



171 (9.3%), Oriental Shorthair (9.1%) and Cornish Rex (8.9%) but was considerably lower than average  
172 in Turkish Van (0.4%) and Birman (1.3%). TR was not reported in breeds of Burmilla, American  
173 Shorthair, Don Sphynx, Egyptian Mau, Kurilian Bobtail, Manx, Neva Masquerade and Seychellois.  
174 However, these breeds were present in low numbers in our dataset.

175 Based on open-ended question field, the diagnosis of TR was made under sedation in  
176 202 of 316 veterinarian-diagnosed TR-cats (64%). Of these, 169 cats had teeth extractions due to  
177 TR (84%).

178

## 179 **Factors associated with tooth resorption**

180 From the feline health survey (Vapalahti et al., 2016), a total of 51 factors (Supplementary Table  
181 S1) were examined that were known to be or could be related to TR. Qualification by basic  
182 association tests (Fishers' exact or Kruskal-Wallis,  $P < 0.2$ ) suppressed the number of factors from  
183 51 to 26 (Table 2, Supplementary Tables S2 and S3). Logistic regression modelling with  
184 confounding factors age, gender, and breed (for each of the 26 variables separately) favoured 16  
185 factors ( $P < 0.05$ ) (Supplementary Tables S2 - S4) to be approved into the multivariable logistic  
186 regression modelling. These 16 factors were age, breed, gender, food availability, gingivitis,  
187 stomatitis, periodontitis, dental calculus, tooth fracture, an abnormal number of teeth, cat flu,  
188 musculoskeletal disease, digestive tract disease, respiratory system disease, endocrinological  
189 disease, and tumours. Most of the cats were neutered and thus the size of comparison groups of  
190 non-neutered cats prevented validation of the effect of neutering in obtaining TR.

191

192 **Table 2.** Demographics and basic association test results (breed and disease categories excluded) of  
193 cats with and without veterinarian-diagnosed tooth resorption and association with tooth resorption  
194 (only  $P < 0.2$  shown).

Variable	Diagnosed			Not diagnosed			P-value
	N	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	
Age, years	311			7631			<0.001
< 1	0	0.0	0.0–1.2	1119	14.7	13.9–15.5	

Variable	Diagnosed			Not diagnosed			P-value
	N	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	
1 to <3	8	2.6	1.3–5.0	1973	25.9	24.9–26.8	
3 to <7	76	24.4	20.0–29.5	2490	32.6	31.6–33.7	
7 to <11	115	37.0	31.8–42.5	1197	15.7	14.9–16.5	
≥11	112	36.0	30.9–41.5	852	11.2	10.5–11.9	
<b>Gender</b>	313			7742			<b>0.184</b>
Female	155	49.5	44.0–55.0	4135	53.4	52.3–54.5	
Male	158	50.5	45.0–56.0	3607	46.6	45.5–47.7	
<b>Oral/dental disease</b>							
Gingivitis	109	34.5	29.5–39.9	499	6.4	5.9–7.0	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Stomatitis	18	5.7	3.6–8.8	43	0.6	0.4–0.7	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Periodontitis	36	11.4	8.3–15.4	68	0.9	0.7–1.1	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Dental calculus	187	59.2	53.7–64.5	1407	18.0	17.2–18.9	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Tooth fracture	16	5.1	3.1–8.1	90	1.2	0.9–1.4	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Abnormal number of teeth	12	3.8	2.2–6.5	63	0.8	0.6–1.0	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
<b>Viral infections</b>							
Cat flu	20	6.3	4.1–9.6	201	2.6	2.2–3.0	<b>0.001</b>
Feline infectious peritonitis (FIP)	1	0.3	0.1–1.8	110	1.4	1.2–1.7	0.133
<b>Diet</b>							
Cooked meat/fish	88	27.8	23.2–33.0	1812	23.2	22.3–24.2	0.067
Availability of food	166	53.2	47.7–58.7	5287	68.9	67.9–70.0	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

P-value: Fisher or Kruskal-Wallis test. CI = confidence interval. Bolded: selected for further analysis in a logistic regression model with confounding factors age, gender, and breed. The same cat may have had several oral or dental diseases or viral infections.

195

## 196 **Multivariable logistic regression model**

197 The model with the entire population included 308 TR-cats compared with 7508 cats, and the case-  
198 control study included 198 TR-cats and 1683 controls. The model with the defined population was  
199 chosen as the final model because of less dispersion and selection bias. The model with the entire  
200 population is shown in Supplementary Table S6. Six variables remained in the final multivariable  
201 logistic regression model after model validation with backward selection and goodness-of-fit tests  
202 (Table 3). Based on the model, independent risk factors for veterinarian-diagnosed TR were age,  
203 breed, and periodontitis whereas constant food availability had a significant protective effect.

204 Breeds with a significantly higher risk for tooth resorption than house cats were Cornish  
 205 Rex, European, and Ragdoll. Turkish Van and Devon Rex had no TR in the final model.

206 A significant interaction was found between gingivitis and dental calculus. The interaction  
 207 demonstrated that gingivitis was a risk factor for TR in the group of cats with dental calculus,  
 208 whereas the absence of dental calculus seemed to protect cats from TR even if they had gingivitis  
 209 (Table 3).

210 The model achieved the best AIC and AUC-values and McFadden index. Deviance  
 211 and Pearson goodness-of-fit statistics were 0.283 and 0.079, respectively. The AUC-value for the  
 212 ROC-curve was 0.771 (95% CI 0.738–0.804), which makes the predictive value of the model  
 213 moderate (Greiner et al., 2000). McFadden’s goodness-of-fit index was 0.14. The goodness of fit  
 214 and predictive value tests for the final model were mainly good or moderate.

215 The model from the entire study population suggested parallel results, except that  
 216 stomatitis and more interactions and breeds appeared to be risk factors. However, there was high  
 217 dispersion (Deviance=0.08 and Pearson≤0.001) in this model. A larger population might lead to  
 218 higher bias, especially regarding owner-evaluated information about dental diseases in the  
 219 comparison group.

220

221 **Table 3.** Multivariable logistic regression model of the risk factors for reportedly under sedation  
 222 diagnosed tooth resorption.

Variable	B	Se	Wald	P	OR	95% CI	df
<b>Constant</b>	-1.93	0.27	49.22	<0.001			1
<b>Age: &lt;7</b>	Ref						2
7-<11	1.17	0.20	34.05	<0.001	3.23	2.18 – 4.79	1
≥11	1.33	0.22	36.92	<0.001	3.76	2.45 – 5.77	1
<b>Breed: House cat</b>	Ref						20
Cornish Rex	0.83	0.32	6.81	0.009	2.30	1.23 – 4.28	1
European	1.03	0.35	8.50	0.004	2.79	1.40 – 5.55	1
Ragdoll	0.97	0.38	6.41	0.011	2.65	1.25 – 5.62	1
Food available vs no	-0.40	0.17	5.71	0.017	0.67	0.48 – 0.93	1

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**Oral /dental diseases**

Periodontitis vs no	0.60	0.28	4.45	0.035	1.82	1.04 – 3.18	1
<i>Interaction gingivitis x dental calculus</i>	1.90	0.36	27.15	<.0001			
Gingivitis vs no when no dental calculus					0.38	0.21 – 0.68	1
Gingivitis vs no when dental calculus					2.51	1.68– 3.76	1

223 Only significant breeds are shown. B = logistic regression model coefficient, Se = Standard Error,  
224 Wald = Wald test statistic, df = degrees of freedom, P = Wald's P-value, OR = odds ratio, CI =  
225 confidence interval for OR, ref = reference group. n<sub>cases</sub>=198 and n<sub>controls</sub>=1683.

226

## 227 Discussion

228

229 This is the first study of TR and its associated factors in a large population sample. We identified  
230 several predisposing factors, such as dental calculus, gingivitis, and periodontitis, and demonstrate  
231 increased risk with age. Food availability was found as a protective factor. Breed-specificity was  
232 also observed, suggesting a genetic contribution to the aetiology of the disease.

233 Our study was not a prevalence study for TR, since not all cats were examined for TR  
234 with radiography as in clinical studies. Additionally, we did not have random sampling from the  
235 target population. The frequency of veterinarian-diagnosed TR in this study was low (3.9%), but the  
236 frequency of TR in the group of cats with veterinarian-diagnosed oral or dental disease (15%) is  
237 closer to that found in clinical studies. As the definitive diagnosis of TR requires clinical  
238 examination and dental radiographs under sedation, a cross-sectional questionnaire study is  
239 expected to reveal a low frequency. In contrast, clinical studies of cats seeking dental treatment  
240 describe the frequency of TR in the chosen study population rather than the prevalence in the entire  
241 cat population. When comparing the model of the entire population (cats with veterinarian-  
242 diagnosed TR compared to all cats without TR based on the survey) with the defined model (cats  
243 with under sedation diagnosed TR compared with cats with other veterinarian-diagnosed oral or  
244 dental diseases), the results of the models remained somewhat similar. Some differences concerning  
245 interactions and significant breed associations were found. We did not specifically ask about dental

246 radiographs, which is a limitation of this study. Both models might have also included cats with TR  
247 as controls, as the controls were not shown to be healthy with dental radiography. Therefore, our  
248 associations may be underestimations. Although the diagnoses were reportedly made by a  
249 veterinarian, the owner answered the survey. The owners might have understood, remembered, or  
250 interpreted the diagnoses in a way that could affect the results.

251           The prevalence of TR in studies that have clinically evaluated the teeth is usually  
252 between 29-67% (Table 1). The age and selection of the research population have a major impact  
253 on prevalence. If the target population consists of cats seeking dental treatment routinely or because  
254 of dental disease, the prevalence of TR is expected to be higher than in healthy cats. The methods  
255 used to detect TR lesions also affect prevalence. The most obvious lesions are found in the general  
256 examination without sedation, but examination with a dental probe under anaesthesia is required for  
257 most lesions. Only lesions in the cemento-enamel junction or the crown area can be detected  
258 clinically. Use of dental radiographs increases the prevalence even further when lesions in the root  
259 area are detected.

260           Varying results have been published regarding the frequency of TR in different  
261 breeds. Our results revealed that TR is highly associated with the breed. While being purebred was  
262 not a risk factor in itself, some associations were observed with certain breeds. We found that  
263 Cornish Rex, European, and Ragdoll are at a higher risk for TR in the final multivariable model. In  
264 a recent study, Mestrinho et al. (2018) found a higher frequency of TR in Persian and Exotic cats.  
265 The breed predisposition might indicate a genetic component in the aetiology of the disease. Some  
266 breeds might be genetically predisposed to dental and oral diseases in general. Exposure to several  
267 dental and oral diseases at the same time in cats was observed in our previous study (Vapalahti et  
268 al., 2016), in which, Cornish Rex and the oriental group (Siamese, Balinese, Oriental, Seychellois)  
269 were predisposed to periodontitis and stomatitis at the same time. However, it seems that not all  
270 breeds associated with TR have a predisposition to other dental and oral diseases. In our study,

271 European was associated with TR, whereas the previous study did not find Europeans predisposed  
272 to other dental diseases (Vapalahti et al., 2016). The causalities between dental and oral diseases are  
273 unclear, as they can occur on their own or with other oral diseases. Further analysis of the genetic  
274 background of tooth resorption would require a clinical trial where the type of resorption and dental  
275 health of the controls could be determined via radiography and genetic analyses.

276 We found several oral and dental diseases that are associated with TR. The found  
277 interaction between gingivitis and dental calculus revealed that gingivitis is a risk factor for TR in  
278 the group of cats with dental calculus. The absence of dental calculus seemed to protect cats from  
279 TR even if they had gingivitis. Gorrel's (2015) theory suggests that tooth resorption consists of at  
280 least the following two aetiologically different diseases: inflammatory type 1 resorptions and  
281 idiopathic type 2 resorption. Tooth resorption lesions often include inflammation of the adjacent  
282 gingiva (Reiter et al., 2005a), making it difficult to assess causation between TR and gingivitis.  
283 Bacteria in dental plaque may initiate inflammatory resorption (Booij-Vrieling et al., 2010). Dental  
284 calculus causes gingivitis in cats, as reported by Thengchaisri et al. (2017). Our findings might  
285 suggest that dental calculus causing gingivitis increases the risk of TR.

286 In addition to gingivitis and dental calculus, periodontitis was a risk factor for TR in  
287 our study. Periodontitis is related to TR (Scarlett et al., 1999) and is linked in particular with type 1  
288 tooth resorption (DuPont and DeBowes, 2002). In contrast, inflammation caused by tooth resorption  
289 is suspected to cause periodontal lesions (Lemmons, 2013). In a recent study by Whyte et al. (2020),  
290 no relationship between TR and periodontitis was found. Although periodontitis would most likely  
291 be associated with inflammatory type 1 resorption, the type of TR was not determined in our study.

292 Stomatitis was not associated with TR in our final multivariable model. However, the  
293 low number of cats with stomatitis prevented us from studying this connection properly. Although  
294 DuPont and DeBowes (2002) found a connection between inflammatory type 1 resorptions and  
295 stomatitis, Reiter et al. (2005a) did not find a relationship. It was previously suspected that chronic

296 stomatitis caused by the feline calici virus (FCV) impacts development of TR (Reiter and Mendoza,  
297 2002). However, Thomas et al. (2017) recently found that FVC was associated with feline chronic  
298 gingivostomatitis, but not with TR.

299           The continuous food availability had a protective effect on TR. If there is food  
300 available continuously, the cat probably eats more often. On the other hand, if the food is available  
301 only at certain times, the cat might eat faster and more eagerly, affecting the teeth. To the authors'  
302 knowledge, the effect of food availability has not been studied before. DuPont & DeBowes (2002)  
303 suspected dry food to cause mechanical trauma, leading to type 2 tooth resorption. These authors  
304 also suspected soft food, causing periodontitis, as a risk factor for inflammatory type 1 resorption.  
305 Scarlett et al. (1999) did not find a difference in prevalence between cats eating dry or soft food. In  
306 our questionnaire, we did not specifically ask if the cats ate dry or soft food. However, we did not  
307 find an association between TR and eating cooked meat/fish.

308           Our findings that the frequency of TR increases with age (Coles, 1990; Harvey, 1993;  
309 Lund et al., 1998; Ingham et al., 2001; Pettersson and Mannerfelt, 2003; Reiter et al., 2005b;  
310 DeLaurier et al., 2009; Mestrinho et al., 2013) and gender not being associated with TR are  
311 consistent with previous studies (Scarlett et al., 1999; Coles, 1990). Scarlett et al. (1999) suspected  
312 that indoor cats have a higher risk of TR than outdoor cats, but Pettersson and Mannerfelt (2003)  
313 did not find a difference. We did not find a difference in the outdoor habits of cats with or without  
314 TR. We could not reliably evaluate the effect of neutering and vaccinations due to uneven groups in  
315 neutering status and missing values in vaccinations. Considering other diseases, feline infectious  
316 peritonitis (FIP), cat flu (including herpes and calicivirus), leukaemia virus (FeLV),  
317 immunodeficiency virus (FIV), and feline panleukopenia virus were not associated with TR in our  
318 study.

319           Due to the cross-sectional data collection, only the effect of permanent risk factors  
320 such as breed, age, and gender can be considered causal since they were permanently present before

321 the disease. However, other significant factors that are potential risk or protective factors should be  
322 verified with clinical trials or observational follow-up studies.

323

## 324 **Conclusions**

325 In the first large-scale population survey, the frequency of TR was considerably lower than in  
326 studies that have clinically evaluated the teeth. We identified several predisposing factors – dental  
327 calculus, gingivitis, and periodontitis. These findings suggest that inflammatory changes caused by  
328 dental calculus might increase the risk of TR. In addition, risk of TR increased with age, but  
329 keeping food available constantly was a potential protective factor. Finally, certain breeds appeared  
330 more susceptible to TR, suggesting a genetic contribution to the aetiology of the disease.

331

## 332 **Ethical statement**

333 The data in this study were collected 2012-2015 using an online feline health survey published by  
334 Vapalahti et al. (2016). The data were collected before the onset of the GDPR according to the  
335 Finnish legislation <https://www.finlex.fi/fi/laki/ajantasa/1999/19990523>. This survey study focused  
336 on investigating cats and not human participants or the cat owners, and therefore a specific ethical  
337 approval was not needed. We collected only the names and addresses of the study participants (cat  
338 owners). Owners were informed that participation is voluntary, confidential and that the data are  
339 used only for scientific purposes. We received informed consent from all participants.

340

## 341 **Additional Information**

## 342 **Acknowledgements**

343 We thank the cat owners who participated in the original health survey.



## 344 **Competing Interests**

345 The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

346

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420

## 421 **Author contributions**

422 H.N., A-M.V., K.V., and H.L. conceptualised and designed the experiment. H.N. performed the  
423 preliminary analysis and KV performed the multivariable analyses. KV and HN drafted the  
424 manuscript, which was edited and contributed to by H.L. and A-M.V. All authors approved the  
425 final version of the manuscript.

426

## 427 **Supporting information**

428 Data available: Supplementary Tables S1-S4, S5 and S6.