

This is the author's manuscript



AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

Farm productive contexts and the dynamics of bovine viral diarrhea (BVD) transmission

Original Citation:		
Availability:		
This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1722573	since 2020-01-13T09:43:56Z	
Published version:		
DOI:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2019.02.001		
Terms of use:		
Open Access Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.		

(Article begins on next page)

Farm productive contexts and the dynamics of bovine viral diarrhea (BVD) transmission

Bryan Iotti^a, Eugenio Valdano^b, Lara Savini^c, Luca Candeloro^c, Armando Giovannini^c, Sergio Rosati^a, Vittoria Colizza^{d,*}, Mario Giacobini^a

 a University of Turin, Department of Veterinary Sciences, Turin, 10095, Italy b Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Department d'Enginyeria Informàtica i Matemàtiques, Tarragona, 43007, Spain

^cIstituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale dell'Abruzzo e del Molise G. Caporale, Teramo, 64100, Italy

^dSorbonne Universités, UPMC Univ Paris 06, Institut Pierre Louis d'Epidémiologie et de Santé Publique, Paris, 75011, France

Abstract

Bovine Viral Diarrhea (BVD) is a viral disease that affects cattle and that is endemic to many European countries. It has a markedly negative impact on the economy, through reduced milk production, abortions, and a shorter lifespan of the infected animals. Cows becoming infected during gestation may give birth to Persistently Infected (PI) calves, which remain highly infective throughout their life, due to the lack of immune response to the virus. As a result, they are the key driver of the persistence of the disease both at herd scale, and at the national level. In the latter case, the trade-driven movements of PIs, or gestating cows carrying PIs, are responsible for the spatial dispersion of BVD. Past modeling approaches to BVD transmission have either focused on within-herd or between-herd transmission. A comprehensive portrayal, however, targeting both the generation of PIs within a herd, and their displacement throughout the country due to trade transactions, is still missing. We overcome this by designing a multiscale metapopulation model of the spatial transmission of BVD. accounting for both within-herd infection dynamics, and its spatial dispersion. We focus on Italy, a country where BVD is endemic and seroprevalence is very high. By integrating simple within-herd dynamics of PI generation, and the highly-resolved cattle movement dataset available, our model requires minimal arbitrary assumptions on its parameterization. We use our model to study the role of the different productive contexts of the Italian market, and test possible intervention strategies aimed at prevalence reduction. We find that dairy farms are the main drivers of BVD persistence in Italy, and any control strategy targeting these farms would lead to significantly higher prevalence reduction, with respect to targeting other production compartments. Our multiscale metapopulation model is a simple yet effective tool for studying BVD dispersion and persistence at country level, and is a good instrument for testing targeted strategies aimed at the containment or elimination of this disease. Furthermore, it can readily be applied to any national market for which cattle movement data is available.

^{*}Corresponding author

Keywords: BVD, cattle trade movements, metapopulation model, productive classes, targeted intervention

1. Introduction

Bovine Viral Diarrhea (BVD) virus is a pathogen responsible for a livestock disease of major concern in Europe, causing high prevalence in affected countries and important economic impacts (Lindberg et al., 2006). Induced costs are mainly due to production losses, derived from the immunosuppressive and abortive actions of the etiological agent, and to the biosecurity and immunization measures often implemented for its control or eradication (Thomann et al., 2017; Lindberg et al., 2006; Gunn et al., 2004). In addition, the disease can also facilitate the introduction and spread of other pathogens (Servizio Informativo Veterinario, 2011).

BVD normally displays mild clinical symptoms, though it may predispose affected animals to more severe forms of enteric and respiratory ailments, and in some cases result in the highly lethal Mucosal Disease. Transmission mainly occurs perorally or nasopharingeally, but excretion in semen, as well as iatrogenic diffusion and environmental persistence have been reported (Lanyon et al., 2014; Niskanen and Lindberg, 2003; Traven et al., 1991; Kirkland et al., 1991; Meyling and Mikél Jensen, 1988). Pregnant cattle are the segment of the population that is most at risk, and of the greatest epidemiological relevance. If viral contact occurs during the very initial phase of gestation, abortion will likely occur. Contact during the first third of pregnancy has instead a high probability of resulting in an immunotolerant persistently infected (PI) calf. Infection during later stages of pregnancy can result in fetal malformations and a considerable number of abortions.

PIs are the main epidemiological agent responsible for disease diffusion and persistence within a farm (Ezanno et al., 2007). Their viral excretion is orders of magnitude larger than that of an immunocompetent transiently infected animal, and is life-long (Reardon et al., 2016; Lanyon et al., 2014). Pregnant dams that carry a PI are latent persistently infected animals (PILs) and hardly detectable by serological tests as they are immune (Lanyon et al., 2014). They are an epidemiologically important aspect of the infection dynamics as their offspring will introduce PIs in the farm, potentially leading to disease persistence. PI animals tend to be smaller and underdeveloped compared to their healthy peers. Their lifespan is considerably shorter and their productivity severely hampered, so that they are more likely to be sold, thus further increasing the spatial spreading potential.

No therapy exists for BVD other than symptomatic treatment. Vaccines are available, but their effectiveness is often limited by the extremely high infectious pressure of PI animals. For these reasons, the current approach to BVD prevention mainly revolves around the implementation of biosecurity measures aimed at preventing contacts between infected animals and pregnant cows (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010; Lindberg et al., 2006; Ezanno et al., 2007; Lanyon et al., 2014; Ezanno et al., 2008). Large variations across countries are however observed, and efficiency of the implemented measures is hard to evaluate. Modeling thus provides a convenient framework to study BVD dynamics, identify key drivers for transmission and propose control and eradication strategies.

Much research has been devoted to the development of BVD models for within-farm spread (Viet et al., 2007; Ezanno et al., 2007; Gunn et al., 2004; Cherry et al., 1998; Innocent et al., 1997b,a; Sørensen et al., 1995; Damman 48 et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2009; Ezanno et al., 2008; Viet et al., 2004). Models 49 focused on the complexity of the infection dynamics (e.g. horizontal and ver-50 tical transmission, persistently infected and transiently infected animals) and its parametrization, the disease consequences on herd demography (e.g. impact 52 on reproduction, probability of abortion, reduced lifespan), the role of herd 53 structure and herd-management practices, the economic impact and the evalu-54 ation of interventions. Though the presence of a single PI in an infection-free herd was estimated to pose a considerable risk with potentially long-term conse-56 quences (Innocent et al., 1997a), reseeding events were found to be critical for the 57 persistence of the disease (Viet et al., 2004; Damman et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2009). The external risk of BVD introduction was generally modeled through synthetic importation schemes, only effectively accounting for geography and 60 trade. Courcoul and Ezanno first proposed a spatially explicit metapopulation approach to model the regional spread of BVD in a group of 100 dairy herds assimilated to patches (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010; Ezanno et al., 2008). Trade movements were however synthetically modeled through a random network. As such, they did not capture the heterogeneities and temporal correlations 65 observed in cattle mobility that were found to strongly impact epidemic dynamics (Bajardi et al., 2011; Valdano et al., 2015; Ensoy et al., 2013; Vernon 67 and Keeling, 2009; Ezanno et al., 2006). A data-driven spatial approach was 68 proposed by Tinsley et al. that integrated data on cattle movements between 69 beef farms in Scotland to simulate BVD spread at a larger scale and identify movement-informed interventions (Tinsley et al., 2012). To account for the com-71 plexity intrinsic to the network of cattle trade movements, the infection dynam-72 ics was however simplified through the use of a susceptible-infected-susceptible 73 process where farms are treated as single units with no further population substructure. Moreover, only farms of one productive type were considered. An 75 important discussion ensued, however, on quantifying the role of local contacts 76 in infection persistence (Ersbøll et al., 2010; Graham et al., 2016), integrating them with an estimation of the effects of biosecurity measures as well as trade 78 network movements (Gates et al., 2013), and understanding the implications of trading pregnant cattle or open cows with a calf at their side, clearly identi-80 fying an age-related probability of being a PI (Gates et al., 2014). Thulke et81 al. (Thulke et al., 2017) extends these works in the context of the Irish eradication program with an in-depth consideration of the changes in costs involved 83 in switching the diagnostic strategy from direct tissue testing to indirect serological testing of a subsample of animals. A very important contribution is the study of the effects of latency in PI removal on the eradication time. However, the simulation requires high resolution data for its starting disease conditions, 87 which are not always available, and the productive contexts are discretized as 88 either beef or dairy, while the authors place greater stress on the role of animal age and sex. 90

The aim of our work is to propose a novel multiscale spatially explicit metapopulation approach to model the geographic dispersion of BVD at the national scale, accounting for within-farm dynamics and high-resolution cattle movement data. Heterogeneities of BVD incidence per farm and reintroduction events are the result of the explicitly modeled dynamics, self-consistently

91

92

producing geotemporal estimates for spreading potential and probability of exposure without the need for synthetic assumptions. We apply our study to the cattle population of Italy and more specifically we focus on the role that different productive contexts may have in the spreading dynamics. We consider the full animal-level Italian database of cattle trade movements, accounting for different premises types (e.g. farms, slaughterhouses, markets, assembly centers, etc.) and four farm productive classes (beef with and without on-premise reproduction, dairy or mixed). We simulate different transmission profiles and generate simulated BVD prevalences at endemic equilibrium. Our findings on the role of different productive contexts are then used to inform efficient targeted interventions aimed at a considerable reduction of prevalence in the country.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Data

We use the complete dataset of all individual animal movements, births, deaths and thefts covering the period from January 1st to December 31st 2014 provided by the Istituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale (IZS) dell'Abruzzo e del Molise, the Italian national reference centre for the bovine movement database. The dataset is similar to the ones analyzed in (Bajardi et al., 2011, 2012; Natale et al., 2011, 2009; Valdano et al., 2015).

For each movement, we have an anonymized animal ID along with the corresponding age, breed, sex, date of movement, origin and destination premises. We consider three distinct categories of animals: males, females below reproductive age, and females of reproductive age. For each premise, we have an anonymized node ID, structure and production type labels and initial values for each of the three animal categories. The percentage of females in each animal holding on January 1st, 2014 is also provided.

The bovine dataset covers a total of 5.9 million movements between 144,403 premises throughout the country, involving 3.9 million bovines during the year 2014 (Figure 1a). The movement dataset is represented in the form of a time-referenced directed weighted network, where nodes represent premises and links represent bovine movements (Bajardi et al., 2011, 2012; Natale et al., 2011, 2009; Valdano et al., 2015).

2.2. Model

We propose a multiscale spatially explicit metapopulation approach that simulates disease transmission between animals within each farm and disease dispersal in space through the movement of infected animals. Animal premises correspond to the patches of the model where BVD infection dynamics occurs, and trade movements correspond to the spatial coupling between patches, bringing the description of the disease spread from a local perspective to the national scale.

The infection dynamics are based on a compartmental model that represents the BVD spread in cattle herds, and includes the persistently infected animals (PI) and the persistently infected (latent) animals (PIL) (Figure 1c). If at least one PI is present within a farm, each week we use binomial sampling to generate PILs from susceptible cows (S) according to the following equations:

$$\varepsilon_i^* \sim \mathcal{B}\left(N_i - \left(N_i^{PIL} + N_i^{PI}\right), \varepsilon \alpha_i\right),$$
 (1)

where N_i is the total number of animals within premise i, N_i^{PIL} and N_i^{PI} are the number of PIL and PI animals within the same premise, α_i is the fraction of females of breeding age present at that time in the premise and ε is the transmission parameter. In this equation, $\mathcal{B}(n,p)$ is a binomial distribution with n trials and success probability p. This is allowed to take place only in farms, and only in productive contexts that allow breeding (i.e., not fattening farms). This rate does not vary with the number of PIs.

To account for the gestation stages and birth events, PILs become PIs at rate φ , expressed as $\varphi = \frac{1}{2/3} \frac{1}{\Delta t_g} (1-p_a)$, where Δt_g represents the average cattle gestation length and p_a the probability of having an abortion. This parameter does not represent the pregnancy period-at-risk of vertical transmission, but the rate at which a PIL cow where transmission has already occurred gives birth to a PI.

PIs are removed with rate μ accounting for both the infection-induced mortality and the culling of detected infected animals. In addition, rate M corresponds to both the possibility of developing the Mucosal Disease as well as the increase in veterinary interventions that this clinical manifestation entails. When this occurs, the farm will be cleared of all PI and PIL animals. The parameter M is the only direct route for elimination of PILs, as they are unaffected by the processes modeled through μ (i.e. they are not clinically affected by the disease and are hard to detect).

To account for immunity after transient infection, we model the transition from Susceptible to Recovered with rate $\varepsilon(1-\alpha_i)$. This immunity is considered life-long and no further transitions are possible from this compartment, but the animals may be traded regularly, possibly leading to the slaughterhouse.

All rates are converted to probabilities before their application in the model. The infection dynamics are applied to all animal holdings. Heterogeneity in within-farm disease dynamics is given by the farm productive class and associated herd management and demography. Here we consider four different productive types of interest (Figure 1b), similarly to (Dutta et al., 2014; Natale et al., 2009):

- 1. Dairy: all farms concerned with dairy production;
- Beef with reproduction: farms hosting beef cattle with on-premise reproduction:
- 3. Beef without reproduction: farms fattening and raising beef cattle but not having on-premise reproduction;
- 4. Mixed: all farms that cannot be ascribed to a single productive type.

Cattle movements between premises are responsible for the spatial dispersion of a BVD epidemic. These are sold and purchased from farm to farm or through markets and may be divided into three categories of male cattle, and female cattle below or above reproductive age. Animal movements, as well as birth and deaths, are explicit and completely data-driven. The single-animal movements from holding A to holding B for the week N are aggregated, since data are daily based, and the number of males, females below reproductive age and females above reproductive age is counted. Then, the number of PILs and PIs moved is stochastically determined based on the classes of moved animals, and the counts at the origin and at the destination are updated. Within each demographic category, animals are moved according to trade data and the probability that a moving animal belongs to a given disease status is simply

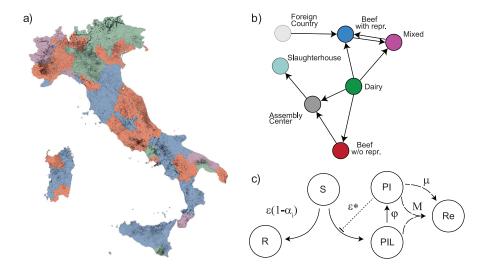


Figure 1: Metapopulation model for BVD transmission at the national scale. (a) Geographical visualization of the position of the 144,403 cattle premises in Italy of the 2014 movement database. Provinces are color coded according to the productive class mostly present in the area (red for beef fattening farms, blue for beef reproductive farms, green for dairy and violet for mixed attitude farms, as in panel (b)). Farms are represented as points on the map. (b) Schematic representation of the network of cattle movements where animal premises are labeled according to their type (farm, slaughterhouse, etc.) and productive class (beef with and without reproduction, dairy, mixed). (c) Scheme of the infection dynamics within each premise.

proportional to the fraction of animals in that disease class. Only females at or above reproductive age may determine movement of a PIL, while all classes may move a PI. Newborns and animals imported from foreign countries are assumed to be healthy and susceptible. While we do not account for the seasonality of breeding explicitly, by using the real birth data as part of our collection of animal movement the introduction of new susceptible animals follows the seasonal patterns.

All transitions (related to the infection dynamics or the movements) are modeled as discrete and stochastic processes to account for stochastic fluctuations due to small population sizes inside premises. The time step of the simulation is 1 week. The model is implemented in Scala using the Breeze libraries for Mathematics. Each premise uses a thread-local implementation of the Mersenne-Twister random number generator from the Apache Commons Math 3 library.

2.3. Model parametrization

The only free parameters of our model are the transmission rate ε and the removal rate μ . All other parameters are fixed and taken either from the literature or from expert opinion. Reproductive age is set at 15 months with a gestation length $\Delta t_g = 36$ weeks. Both values are chosen as intermediate values between the reproductive performances of dairy and beef breeds based on expert opinion. We consider a probability of abortions $p_a = 0.7$ (Damman et al., 2015; Ezanno et al., 2007), thus yielding $\varphi = 0.0125$ week⁻¹. We also examine the effect of a larger period-at-risk, using two thirds of gestation. Keeping all other factors

Parameter name	Values	Units
Epsilon (ε)	0.0033 - 0.01 - 0.02	$week^{-1}$
$Mu(\mu)$	0.0033 - 0.01 - 0.02	$week^{-1}$
Phi (φ)	0.00125 - 0.00250	$week^{-1}$
M(M)	0.00769	$week^{-1}$
Years of simulation	60	
Seeding conditions	50	
Repetitions	10	
Seeding percentage	1	%

Table 1: Summary of all parameter values used in parameter exploration

constant, this yields $\varphi=0.025 \text{week}^{-1}$. The percentage α_i of females of breeding age in animal holding i is set from data at the beginning of the simulations. Development of the Mucosal Disease is considered to occur after an average period of 2.5 years (i.e. 130 weeks), similarly to (Haskell, 2011; Kelling, 2004; Innocent et al., 1997a), thus yielding the rate $M=\frac{1}{130 weeks}=0.00769 \text{week}^{-1}$. Simulations start on January 1, 2014 and all cattle population is initialized

Simulations start on January 1, 2014 and all cattle population is initialized in the susceptible class, except for a uniform seeding of 1% of all farms chosen at random. These farms are seeded with one PI each. This initial prevalence value was chosen as the lower estimate reported by Houe et al. (Houe, 1999) for the United Kingdom. The aim of our work is to study the equilibrium dynamics of the BVD epidemic, so we consider simulations running for several years on the 2014 weekly aggregated demographic and movement data with periodic boundary conditions, in a similar manner to Tinsley et al. (Tinsley et al., 2012). We use 1 year of data, as trade was rather stable in 2014, to neglect intrinsic changes over time due to the trade system and industrial expansions or reductions that can alter the equilibrium dynamics.

Three values of the removal rate parameter are used, i.e. $\mu = 0.0033 \text{week}^{-1}$, $\mu = 0.01 \text{week}^{-1}$, and $\mu = 0.02 \text{week}^{-1}$. The same range of values is used for the transmission parameter ε . Results were computed over 500 replications for each transmission scenario explored. All parameters are summarized in Table 1.

2.4. Experimental scenarios of interventions

To support the findings of our study on the equilibrium dynamics of BVD circulation in Italy, we propose a set of experimental scenarios modeling interventions. They are aimed at isolating farms from the system, thus synthetically simulating the effect of 100% effective surveillance and control measures at the local scale. Assuming limited resources, we test removal strategies on a set of farms chosen with different approaches:

• random removal of farms

- targeted removal of farms based on productive context
 - removal of beef reproductive farms
 - removal of beef fattening farms
- removal of mixed farms
 - removal of dairy farms

Parameter name	Values	Units
Epsilon (ε)	0.01 - 0.02	$week^{-1}$
$\mathrm{Mu}\;(\mu)$	0.01 - 0.02	$week^{-1}$
Phi (φ)	0.00125	$week^{-1}$
M(M)	0.00769	$week^{-1}$
Repetitions	5	
Years of simulation	60	
Seeding conditions	5	
Seeding percentage	1	%
Intervention percentage	1 - 6 - 12 - 18 - 24	%
Total number of intervention scenarios	253	

Table 2: Summary of all parameter values used in experimental scenarios

For each percentage value of farms removed, the targeted experimental scenarios are compared to the random removal, i.e. a choice not informed by the resulting epidemic relevance of each productive context.

We progressively increased the amount of farms we removed: 1%, 6%, 12%, 18% and 24% of the total amount of farms in the network, either at random or limited to the chosen context. The highest value we employed is limited by the number of dairy holdings in the system. In the case of mixed farms, removal could only be performed up to 12%, due to the limited size of that productive context.

Each experimental scenario was repeated 25 times to stabilize model outputs. All parameters are summarized in Table 2.

2.5. Analyses

246

247

248

249

250

251

253 254

255

256

257

258

260

261

264

265

268

First, we analyzed the Italian cattle trade dataset for 2014 to characterize the different productive contexts in terms of farm size, trading patterns, and sex of animals.

Second, we observed the evolution in time of BVD prevalence in the cattle trade system, from the initial seeding condition to the equilibrium dynamics. Third, we explored the dependence of the simulated BVD prevalence on the transmission rate and on the productive contexts. We considered different measures of prevalence, at the animal level and at the farm level, accounting for the productive type. More precisely, the local PI animal prevalence in farms of productive class c is computed as N_c^{PI}/N_c , where N_c^{PI} is the total number of PI animals in farms of productive class c, and N_c is the number of these farms. We also computed the contribution of PI in farms of productive class c over all farms, to account for the sharply different sizes of the productive categories: N_c^{PI}/N_f , where N_f is the total number of heads in all farms in the country. The national PI animal prevalence across all productive types was computed as N_f^{PI}/N_f , where N_f^{PI} counts the total number of PIs in all farms. At the farm level, we considered a farm to be infected if there is at least one PI (or PIL). The national PI farm prevalence is therefore given by n_c^{PI}/n_c , and by n_c^{PI}/n_f , where n_c^{PI} represents the number of PI infected farms of productive class c, n_c is the number of farms of productive class c, and n_f is the total number of farms in the country. Analogous measures were defined also for PILs.

Fourth, we assessed the impact of the proposed experimental scenarios of interventions by comparing the resulting BVD national farm prevalence at equilibrium after the removal of a certain fraction of farms.

For each model output, average and 95% credible interval (95% CI) are computed.

While other types of premise are present in our dataset and are accounted for by our simulator, the focus of our work is the presentation and discussion of the results pertaining to farms.

3. Results

Beef farms represent the most common productive context in the Italian cattle trade system during the year 2014, with a total of 44,170 fattening farms (33.58% of all farms) and 36,350 reproduction farms (27.64%), amounting to more than 61% of the total number of farms (Figure 2a). When considering total herd size, they tend to be small, with a median of 3 heads (95% percentile 120) in fattening farms and 7 heads (95% percentile 69) in the reproduction ones (Figure 2b). Mixed production farms have a total size similar to beef farms with reproduction (median 7 heads, 95% percentile 82), however they represent the least common production type in our dataset (18,638 farms, 14.17%). Finally, dairy farms represent 24% of the system (32374 farms) and on average host the largest number of total heads (median 23 heads, 95% percentile 207). The presence of females varies substantially across productive contexts, with the largest values reported for milk production (average 55% of females according to data for January 1, 2014), reproduction purposes (41%) and mixed production (38%), and the smallest presence in beef farms without reproduction (14%).

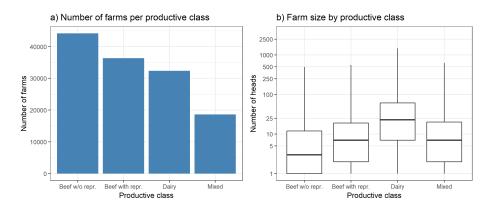


Figure 2: Description of productive contexts in Italy in 2014. (a) Number of farms per productive class. (b) Distribution of the farm size per productive class. Wiskers are calculated as $median \pm 1.5 \; IQR$

Trading patterns too are largely affected by production classes, with average trading volumes varying widely (Figure 3a). Dairy farms represent the most common origin of animal movements (44.7% of all movements), whereas beef farms without reproduction is the most common destination (54.3%). Movements follow a seasonal behavior, already outlined in (Bajardi et al., 2011; Valdano et al., 2015), with a considerable drop in activity around summer when

animals are moved to pastures (these movements are not traced in the national database). Distinct trading patterns are observed when tracing the movements of female vs. male animals. A large number of male calves born every year in dairy farms are continuously sold to beef fattening farms before being moved to slaughterhouses at a later time (Figure 3b). The largest proportion of movements to slaughterhouses (65%) is indeed performed by beef fattening farms. A similar pattern is followed by beef farms with in-house reproduction. Female cows are strongly traded across dairy farms throughout the year.

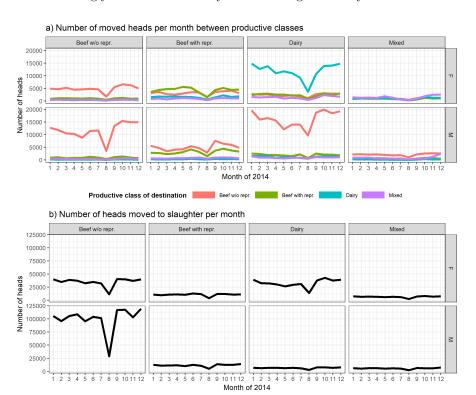


Figure 3: Movements of the 2014 cattle trade network in Italy. (a) Number of moved heads per month between productive classes. The title of each column correspond to the productive class of origin. Different colors refer to the productive class of destination. (b) Number of heads sent to slaughter each month. The title of each column correspond to the productive class of origin. In both panels, the top row reports the movements of female heads, the bottom row the ones of male heads.

This heterogeneous picture dependent on productive contexts and affecting farm size, trading pattern and percentage of females becomes particularly relevant when modeling the spread of BVD and accounting for horizontal and vertical transmission as well as herd composition.

We explored nine total combinations of the ε and μ parameters, and for each combination we experimented with two values of ϕ representing different periods-at-risk during gestation. Under the transmission conditions considered, our simulations reach the endemic equilibrium after about 20 years (Figure 4). When ε is very low, the system maintains very low levels of prevalence, but the disease still persists in the cattle population at levels below 0.01%. We do not observe complete eradication for the parameters considered. For $\varepsilon = 0.02$ and

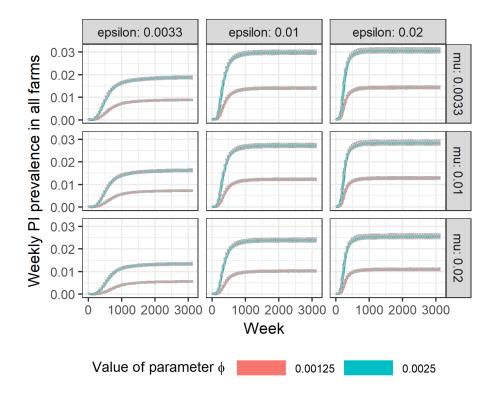


Figure 4: Exploration of the effects of parameter change on PI prevalence. Columns are values of the transmission parameter ε , rows are values of the elimination parameter μ . For each subplot, the line represents the PI prevalence across all productive contexts. The linetype depends on the value of the parameter ϕ , responsible for the evolution of PIs from PILs. The error bars are 95% credibility intervals of the mean.

 $\mu=0.01,$ the higher value of ϕ results in a higher prevalence of up to 2.83% (95% CI 2.74-2.96%) compared to 1.28% (95% CI 1.23-1.34%) of the lower value. The value of the parameter μ exerts less influence over the average prevalence, resulting in a change from 3.05% (95% CI 2.96-3.19%) for the lowest value to 2.54% (95% CI 2.46-2.66%) for the highest one, for $\varepsilon=0.02$ and $\phi=0.00250.$

For values of $\phi=0.00125 \text{week}^{-1}$ and $\mu=0.01 \text{week}^{-1}$, our study predicts a total PI prevalence between 1.22% (95% CI 1.18-1.28%) and 1.28% (95% CI 1.23-1.34%) from intermediate to high values of ε , respectively, when considering prevalence across all productive classes. These figures are in line with the estimates previously reported in a predominance of studies showing similar prevalence in the range of approximately 0.5% and 2% PI animals in different countries (Houe, 1999), and thus support our choice for the two higher values of the transmission rate explored in this study. For the rest of the results we present, we will therefore focus mainly on this set of parameters: $\mu=0.01 \text{week}^{-1}$, $\varphi=0.00125 \text{week}^{-1}$, $\varepsilon=0.01-0.02 \text{week}^{-1}$.

Interestingly, the described heterogeneities cause animal prevalence curves at the farm level to rapidly differentiate, reaching different values of BVD circulation at the endemic equilibrium. Dairy farms are the ones reporting the largest percentage of PIs, independently of the transmission condition, followed

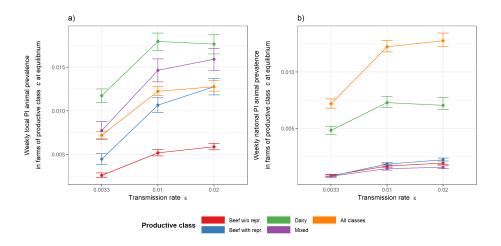


Figure 5: Weekly PI animal prevalence at endemic equilibrium. (a) Average weekly local PI animal prevalence in farms of productive class c, N_c^{PI}/N_c , at endemic equilibrium as a function of the transmission rate ε . (b) Average weekly national PI animal prevalence in farms of productive class c, N_c^{PI}/N_f , at endemic equilibrium as a function of the transmission rate ε . Colors refer to different productive classes or to the ensemble of all farms. Error bars are 95% credibility intervals of the mean.

by mixed farms (Fig. 5a). PI animal prevalence within the productive class is equal to 1.76% (95% CI 1.65-1.87%) for dairy farms and to 1.59% (95% CI 1.46-1.71%) for mixed farms when $\varepsilon > \mu$ (1.79% (95% CI 1.69-1.89%) and 1.46% (95% CI 1.33-1.60%) for $\varepsilon = \mu$, respectively). Dairy farms are the ones contributing the largest amount of PIs to the system (Fig. 5b), leading to a predicted overall animal prevalence of 0.7% (95% CI 0.67-0.78%) for the higher transmission condition, and of 0.73% (95% CI 0.68-0.78%) for the intermediate value. This is also due to the large size of dairy farms compared to the other reproductive types.

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

361

362

363

365

366

367

369

370

371

372

Figure 5 clearly shows that the ranking of productive contexts that are mostly affected by the disease is maintained across transmission conditions. Most importantly, the overall contribution of PIs to the system by dairy alone is 55.23% (95% CI 54.91-57.65%) of the total, indicating that this productive type is the strongest single contributor to the circulation of BVD. Beef farms without on-site reproduction are the least affected. A picture similar to PI circulation is also observed for the spread of PILs (50.51% (95% CI 49.74-51.44%)) for dairy vs. 29.64% (95% CI 29.09-30.23%) for mixed farms, as shown in Figure 6). Since the generation of new PILs happens mostly in categories with high reproductive capability, beef farms with in-house reproduction show a higher prevalence in the case of PILs (up to 24.54%, 95% CI 23.46-25.73%) than fattening farms (up to 2.13%, 95% CI 2.00-2.31%). The presence of PILs inside the beef fattening farms is not due to a generative activity of the compartment itself, but to the movement of PILs from other compartments. Finally we note that PILs reach a higher simulated prevalence than PIs, at 28.06% (95% CI 27.18-29.35%) vs 1.28% (95% CI 1.23-1.34%) in the high transmission condition.

Dairy productive class results to be the most affected productive context also when measuring the percentage of infected farms, with a predicted within-class prevalence of up to 54.57% (95% CI 53.19-56.04%) and across-class prevalence

of 13.43% (95% CI 13.09-13.79%) (Figure 7). Beef fattening farms appear more relevant in contributing to the national farm prevalence than observed before for animal prevalence, likely because of the large number of smaller premises.

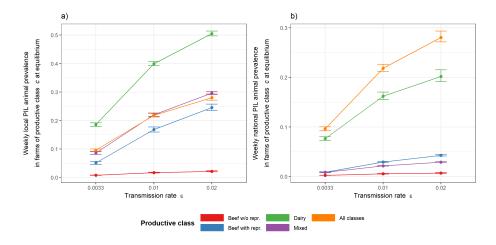


Figure 6: Weekly PIL animal prevalence at endemic equilibrium. (a) Average weekly local PIL animal prevalence in farms of productive class c, N_c^{PIL}/N_c , at endemic equilibrium as a function of the transmission rate ε . (b) Average weekly national PIL animal prevalence in farms of productive class c, N_c^{PIL}/N_f , at endemic equilibrium as a function of the transmission rate ε . Colors refer to different productive classes or to the ensemble of all farms. Error bars are 95% credibility intervals of the mean.

Given the central role of productive contexts in the simulated endemic persistence of BVD in the cattle population in Italy, we test different experimental scenarios for intervention, comparing control measures randomly applied to farms with targeted ones based on their productive class. A dairy-focused intervention is predicted to be considerably more efficient in protecting the cattle population than a random farm intervention, for any degree of application of the intervention (Figure 8). Once 24% of the farms are removed, a dairytargeted intervention leads to a drop of 53.81% (95% CI 53.45-53.89%) of the farm prevalence compared to the 29.51% (95% CI 28.84-30.03%) drop observed in the case farms were chosen randomly. Control measures focused on other productive classes are found instead to be less efficient than random interventions, as shown for example by the predicted 28.34% (95% CI 28.11-28.68%) drop when all beef farms with reproduction are targeted and the 15.21% (95%) CI 14.80-15.56%) decrease when all mixed farms are selected. Beef fattening farms are the least effective target, with a total expected prevalence reduction of 12.32% (95% CI 10.60-13.75%).

4. Discussion

378

380

381

384

385

386

388

389

393

395

397

We use a spatially explicit metapopulation approach to model BVD endemic dynamics in the cattle population in Italy, based on demographic and mobility data for the year 2014. We find that farm productive contexts strongly impact the circulation of the disease in the country, due to the specific sizes, herd structures and trading patterns associated to different productions. Dairy

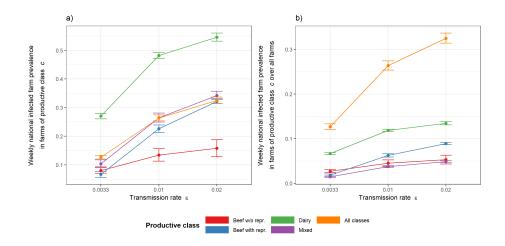


Figure 7: Weekly PI farm prevalence at endemic equilibrium. (a) Average weekly national PI farm prevalence in farms of productive class c, n_c^{PI}/n_c , at endemic equilibrium as a function of the transmission rate ε . (b) Average weekly national PI farm prevalence in farms of productive class c over all farms, n_c^{PI}/n_f , at endemic equilibrium as a function of the transmission rate ε . Colors refer to different productive classes or to the ensemble of all farms. Error bars are 95% credibility intervals of the mean.

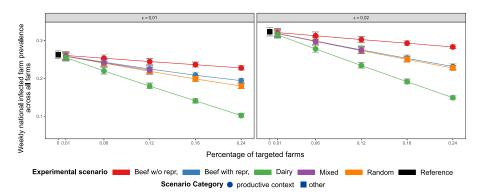


Figure 8: Random vs. targeted interventions. (a) Average weekly national infected farm prevalence in farms of productive class $c, n_c^I/n_c$, at endemic equilibrium as a function of the percentage of farms affected by the intervention. A farm is infected when it contains at least 1 PI or 1 PIL. Transmission rate is set to $\varepsilon=0.01$. (b) as (a) for $\varepsilon=0.02$. Different colors refer to different experimental scenarios for interventions. Error bars are 95% credibility intervals of the mean.

farms generate the largest number of persistently infected (PI) and latent persistently infected (PIL) animals. Basing their production mainly on self-sustenance through raising their own offspring internally, these farms represent the ideal habitat for a self-perpetuating and persistent BVD virus infection. Calves are indeed more often in close proximity with pregnant dams, present on the farm throughout the year, and this effect may in reality be further amplified by the fact that PIs are probably sold with preference because of reduced growth or insufficient productivity. As they also dominate national disease prevalence in the number of infected premises, we suggest dairy farms to be the ideal target

for limited-resources control and interventions. Our results predict that dairyfocused measures would be more than twice as effective in prevalence reduction as measures applied randomly to the same number of farms independently of their productive context. While representing a synthetic scenario for intervention, our proposed model could translate in the implementation of accurate and efficient local surveillance and biosecurity measures within a specific productive context, or immunization practices where available. For example, in areas where the disease is present and vaccination is not implemented, control strategies based on the analysis of bulk milk at dairy farms would greatly reduce the overall costs of testing while ensuring a good coverage and efficiency at the system level, as it has been done for other diseases (Muratore et al., 2017). In Switzerland, near-eradication has been achieved by serological testing of every head, followed by bulk milk surveillance of disease-free farms (Thomann et al., 2017). This might also be performed in Italy as well, should sufficient resources become available. Given the importance of trade movements, quarantine measures following movements and the regulation of sales according to the disease status of a farm or a region would also be extremely important in BVD mitigation, as previously also suggested by (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010) and as done for other diseases.

411

412

413

415

416

417

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

427

428

429

430

431

432

434

435

436

438

439

442

443

444

446

447

448

450

451

452

453

454

455

Other productive classes have a more limited role in the spread and maintenance of BVD. Fattening farms, for example, tend to be receivers and gatherers of PI animals. However these are mainly sent directly to slaughterhouses, thus reducing their impact on further spatial spread. Beef farms with on-site reproduction and mixed production farms are both potentially more dangerous than fattening farms in propagating the disease because of their transversal and non-trivial patterns of trade movements across different productive classes. As mixed attitude farms are mostly small, the resources required for monitoring them may be limited, and these are the contexts that may individually profit most from restoring their full productive potential through disease eradication. However, the use of targeted measures in our simulations predicts that even complete coverage of this productive class would be no better than the random application of these interventions. The relative importance and urgency of measures that are specific to this productive type are probably largely dependent on a limited local context, and their consideration at a national scale may be ineffective.

Our study predicts a total PI prevalence between 1.22% (95% CI 1.18-1.28%) and 1.28% (95% CI 1.23-1.34%) from intermediate to high transmission conditions, respectively, when considering prevalence across all productive classes (for $\phi = 0.00125 \text{week}^{-1}$ and $\mu = 0.01 \text{week}^{-1}$). These figures are in line with the estimates previously reported in a predominance of studies showing similar prevalence in the range of approximately 0.5% and 2% PI animals in different countries (Houe, 1999), and thus support our choice for the two higher values of the transmission rate explored in this study.

Direct comparisons with disease prevalence estimates in Italy is difficult, however, since most sources focus on specific areas or single premises or premise types (Cavirani et al., 2013; Nigrelli et al., 2009; Luzzago et al., 1999; Ferrari et al., 1999), thus limiting their generalizability to the national level. Also, the lack of a nationwide control and surveillance plan in the country implies a strong heterogeneity of vaccination patterns and control measures. Given the current situation, our findings may help better informing the design and implementation

of a national strategy for intervention and surveillance.

461

462

463

465

466

469

470

471

473

474

475

477

478

479

480

481

482

484

485

486

488

489

492

493

494

495

496

497

499

500

501

503

504

Prevalence data will become available over the course of three to four years once a plan is put into action (Thulke et al., 2017), and any modern intervention strategy should be sufficiently agile to continuously update itself as new information is obtained.

From a modeling point of view, our approach couples within-farm infection dynamics with cattle trade movements at the national scale, accounting for datadriven demography and herd structure. This is an important expansion to the existing modeling literature for this pathogen, as previous works have mainly focused on the within-farm scale, investigating the infection dynamics within the herd structure (Viet et al., 2007; Ezanno et al., 2007; Gunn et al., 2004; Cherry et al., 1998; Innocent et al., 1997b,a; Sørensen et al., 1995; Damman et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2009; Ezanno et al., 2008; Viet et al., 2004), spurred by the intrinsic complexity of BVD disease transmission and the lack of accurate parameter estimates. Importations, however, have been recognized to be important for the maintenance of the disease in the farm (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010; Ezanno et al., 2008), and synthetic processes for introductions have been considered. Data-driven movements at the national scale were previously integrated in a farm-to-farm transmission dynamics, neglecting within-farm structure and transmission between animals (Tinsley et al., 2012). Neighboring farm effects were considered in a 100-patches metapopulation model for BVD, however trade patterns were assumed to be homogeneous in topology and fluxes (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010). Several studies have shown on the other hand the large heterogeneity associated to trade movements (Bajardi et al., 2011; Kao et al., 2006; Vernon and Keeling, 2009; Lindström et al., 2010; Dutta et al., 2014). In the Italian dataset for 2014, for example, the number of yearly exchanges with neighboring farms for animal purchases ranges from 1 to 7019 (1-656 for animal sales), and animals are moved in yearly batches of 1 to 1534 units. More importantly, the amount of incoming and outgoing traffic is very heterogeneous across premises, with many of them exchanging few animals, and some hubs featuring several connections to many other holdings (Valdano et al., 2015). Finally, comprehensively considering all productive contexts as well as the entire cattle trade system (144,403 premises vs. 100 dairy farms in (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010)) allows us to capture the entire trade dynamics, where farms of different productive classes are coupled together by non-homogeneous movements, as well as with marketplaces and other types of premises.

The adopted approach presents, however, some limitations. We do not model transiently infected animals to limit the complexity of our modeling approach when considering multiple scales up to the national scale. Their role in the persistence of the disease is still controversial, with modeling studies considering (Thulke et al., 2017; Viet et al., 2004; Cherry et al., 1998; Innocent et al., 1997a) or not (Gunn et al., 2004; Sørensen et al., 1995) the associated compartment. Our choice may thus lead to farm prevalence values on the lower side of the 33-53% estimated in the literature (Nigrelli et al., 2009; Luzzago et al., 1999; Houe, 1999). These farm-level figures, however, need to be interpreted with caution, given that the definition of infected farm varies widely across studies (e.g. depending on the minimum number of PI, or PIL, or transiently infected animals present in the farm). We also assume that all animals introduced from abroad are healthy and susceptible. Foreign animal imports account for 18% of all movements, and 85% of that number follows a direct path to a fattening

farm and then to slaughter. Because of this, we consider them to have a limited influence on disease dynamics. The cattle movement dataset did not report the country of origin, preventing us to assign an imported animal a countrydependent probability of being infected. For these reasons, we implicitly assume imported cattle are healthy. Extending our study to include cross-border movements would definitely provide a more comprehensive picture of the diffusion dynamics, however it is beyond the scope of the present analysis and would require the integration of several different datasets. We use a single value for the ε disease diffusion parameter across the system, and use the percentage α of females of reproductive age on premises to simulate different generation and spreading potentials across the various productive classes. This approach does not account, for example, for the varying length of the cow-calf contact window, or for the spectrum of possible biosecurity measures. We find that our choice is consistent with the intent of maintaining a data-driven approach and limiting the number of ad-hoc parameters we consider. It is very difficult to reliably infer how modern a premise is, and therefore its management routines or biosecurity practices, with the available data. Further studies and field work would be necessary to expand the available knowledge on this particular aspect.

While we consider the entire geotemporal dataset of trade movements between premises, we do not include pastures, as these are not compulsorily tracked in the national database. Mixed production farms and beef farms are those that may be mostly affected by the lack of these movements, since the practice of moving to pasture in Italy is typical of small, traditional farms. While the role of pastures in livestock disease dynamics is currently the object of preliminary investigations (Palisson et al., 2017) due to lack of data and different national practices, neighboring relationships used in (Courcoul and Ezanno, 2010) to model animal escapes or contacts at pasture were found to only influence epidemic size.

Conclusions

511

512

513

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

527

528

529

530

531

532

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

545

546

549

550

553

Through a novel data-driven multiscale modeling approach, we show that farm productive contexts play an important role in the dynamics of BVD diffusion due to their herd composition and the trading patterns they establish. We find that BVD epidemic is dominated by dairy farms, containing the highest number of infected animals and representing the largest contribution to the national farm prevalence. Our model captures the heterogeneity of BVD dynamics in a realistic way. Most importantly, our study suggests possible avenues for the implementation of efficient interventions based on the targeted application of control measures to dairy farms. This may contribute to the mitigation and eradication of the disease, and reduction of associated costs. Though the presented work focuses on a single country and a specific disease, the approach can easily be applied to other geographical or epidemiological contexts where trade and herd composition are important element for disease diffusion.

551 Acknowledgements

52 Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest

Funding sources

- This work was partially funded by:
 - Italian Ministry of Health (www.salute.gov.it) RC-05-2013 "Quantitative methods to identify and calculate risk factors for the BVDV spread across the Italian cattle movements network"
 - EC-ANIHWA (Animal Health and Welfare ERA-Net—www.anihwa.eu) contract no. ANR-13-ANWA-0007-03 (LIVEepi).

References

557

558

559

560

References

- Bajardi, P., Barrat, A., Natale, F., Savini, L., Colizza, V., 2011. Dy namical patterns of cattle trade movements. PLoS ONE 6, e19869.
 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0019869, arXiv:1105.3882.
- Bajardi, P., Barrat, A., Savini, L., Colizza, V., 2012. Optimizing surveil lance for livestock disease spreading through animal movements. Journal
 of The Royal Society Interface 9, 2814–2825. doi:10.1098/rsif.2012.0289,
 arXiv:arXiv:1210.0692v1.
- Cavirani, S., Alborali, G.L., Boldini, M., Cabassi, C.S., Cordioli, P., Luini,
 M., Nigrelli, A., Taddei, S., Vezzoli, F., 2013. Indagine sulla prevalenza di
 infezione da bovine viral diarrhea virus tipo 2 (BVDV-2) in allevamenti bovini
 da latte del nord Italia. Large Animal Review 19, 203–207.
- Cherry, B., Reeves, M., Smith, G., 1998. Evaluation of BVDV control using a
 mathematical model of infection dynamics. Preventive veterinary medicine
 33, 91–108. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-5877(97)00050-0.
- Courcoul, A., Ezanno, P., 2010. Modelling the spread of Bovine Viral Diarrhoea
 Virus (BVDV) in a managed metapopulation of cattle herds. Veterinary
 Microbiology 142, 119–128. doi:10.1016/j.vetmic.2009.09.052.
- Damman, A., Viet, A.F., Arnoux, S., Guerrier-Chatellet, M.C., Petit, E.,
 Ezanno, P., 2015. Modelling the spread of Bovine viral diarrhea virus (BVDV)
 in a beef cattle herd and its impact on herd productivity. Veterinary Research
 46, 1–14. doi:10.1186/s13567-015-0145-8.
- Dutta, B.L., Ezanno, P., Vergu, E., 2014. Characteristics of the spatio-temporal
 network of cattle movements in France over a 5-year period. Preventive Vet erinary Medicine 117, 79–94. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2014.09.005.
- Ensoy, C., Aerts, M., Welby, S., Van Der Stede, Y., Faes, C., 2013. A dynamic spatio-temporal model to investigate the effect of cattle movements on the spread of bluetongue BTV-8 in Belgium. PLoS ONE 8. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0078591.
- Ersbøll, A.K., Ersbøll, B.K., Houe, H., Alban, L., Kjeldsen, A.M., 2010. Spatial modelling of the between-herd infection dynamics of bovine virus diarrhoea virus (BVDV) in dairy herds in Denmark. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 97, 83–89. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2010.08.004.

- Ezanno, P., Fourichon, C., Beaudeau, F., Seegers, H., 2006. Between-herd movements of cattle as a tool for evaluating the risk of introducing infected animals. Animal Research 55, 189–208. doi:10.1051/animres:2006013.
- Ezanno, P., Fourichon, C., Seegers, H., 2008. Influence of herd structure and type of virus introduction on the spread of bovine viral diarrhoea virus (BVDV) within a dairy herd. Veterinary Research 39, 39. doi:10.1051/vetres:2008016.
- Ezanno, P., Fourichon, C., Viet, A.F., Seegers, H., 2007. Sensitivity analysis to identify key-parameters in modelling the spread of bovine viral diarrhoea virus in a dairy herd. Preventive veterinary medicine 80, 49–64. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2007.01.005.
- Ferrari, G., Scicluna, M.T., Bonvicini, D., Gobbi, C., Della Verità, F., Valentini,
 A., Autorino, G.L., 1999. Bovine virus diarrhoea (BVD) control programme
 in an area in the Rome province (Italy). Veterinary Microbiology 64, 237–245.
 doi:10.1016/S0378-1135(98)00273-9.
- Gates, M., Woolhouse, M., Gunn, G., Humphry, R., 2013. Relative associations
 of cattle movements, local spread, and biosecurity with bovine viral diarrhoea
 virus (BVDV) seropositivity in beef and dairy herds. Preventive Veterinary
 Medicine 112, 285–295. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2013.07.017.
- Gates, M.C., Humphry, R.W., Gunn, G.J., Woolhouse, M.E.J., 2014. Not all cows are epidemiologically equal: quantifying the risks of bovine viral diarrhoea virus (BVDV) transmission through cattle movements. Veterinary Research 45, 110. doi:10.1186/s13567-014-0110-y.
- Graham, D., Clegg, T., Thulke, H.H., O'Sullivan, P., McGrath, G., More, S.,
 2016. Quantifying the risk of spread of bovine viral diarrhoea virus (BVDV)
 between contiguous herds in Ireland. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 126,
 30–38. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2016.01.017.
- Gunn, G.J., Stott, A.W., Humphry, R.W., 2004. Modelling and costing BVD outbreaks in beef herds. Veterinary Journal 167, 143–149. doi:10.1016/S1090-0233(03)00112-6.
- Haskell, S.R., 2011. Blackwell's five-minute veterinary consult: ruminant. John Wiley & Sons.
- Houe, H., 1999. Epidemiological features and economical importance of bovine virus diarrhoea virus (BVDV) infections. Veterinary Microbiology 64, 89–107. doi:10.1016/S0378-1135(98)00262-4.
- Innocent, G., Morrison, I., Brownlie, J., Gettinby, G., 1997a. A computer simulation of the transmission dynamics and the effects of duration of immunity and survival of persistently infected animals on the spread of bovine viral diarrhoea virus in dairy cattle. Epidemiology and infection 119, 91–100. doi:10.1017/S0950268897007723.
- Innocent, G., Morrison, I., Brownlie, J., Gettinby, G., 1997b. The use of a mass-action model to validate the output from a stochastic simulation model of bovine viral diarrhoea virus spread in a closed dairy herd. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 31, 199–209. doi:10.1016/S0167-5877(96)01129-4.

- Kao, R., Danon, L., Green, D., Kiss, I., 2006. Demographic structure and
 pathogen dynamics on the network of livestock movements in Great Britain.
 Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 273, 1999–2007.
 doi:10.1098/rspb.2006.3505.
- Kelling, C.L., 2004. Evolution of bovine viral diarrhea virus vaccines. Vet erinary Clinics of North America Food Animal Practice 20, 115–129.
 doi:10.1016/j.cvfa.2003.11.001.
- Kirkland, P.D., Richards, S.G., Rothwell, J.T., Stanley, D.F., 1991. Replication of bovine viral diarrhoea virus in the bovine reproductive tract and excretion of virus in semen during acute and chronic infections. The Veterinary record 128, 587–90. doi:10.1136/VR.128.25.587.
- Lanyon, S.R., Hill, F.I., Reichel, M.P., Brownlie, J., 2014. Bovine viral diarrhoea: Pathogenesis and diagnosis. The Veterinary Journal 199, 201–209.
 doi:10.1016/j.tvjl.2013.07.024.
- Lindberg, A., Brownlie, J., Gunn, G.J., Houe, H., Moennig, V., Saatkamp,
 H.W., Sandvik, T., Valle, P.S., 2006. The control of bovine viral diarrhoea
 virus in Europe: today and in the future. Revue scientifique et technique
 (International Office of Epizootics) 25, 961–79.
- Lindström, T., Sisson, S.A., Lewerin, S.S., Wennergren, U., 2010.
 Estimating animal movement contacts between holdings of different production types. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 95, 23–31.
 doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2010.03.002.
- Luzzago, C., Piccinini, R., Zepponi, A., Zecconi, A., 1999. Study on prevalence of bovine viral diarrhoea virus (BVDV) antibodies in 29 Italian dairy
 herds with reproductive problems. Veterinary Microbiology 64, 247–252.
 doi:10.1016/S0378-1135(98)00274-0.
- Meyling, A., Mikél Jensen, A., 1988. Transmission of bovine virus diarrhoea
 virus (BVDV) by artificial insemination (AI) with semen from a persistently infected bull. Veterinary Microbiology 17, 97–105. doi:10.1016/0378 1135(88)90001-6.
- Muratore, E., Bertolotti, L., Nogarol, C., Caruso, C., Lucchese, L., Iotti, B.,
 Ariello, D., Moresco, A., Masoero, L., Nardelli, S., Rosati, S., 2017. Surveil lance of Infectious Bovine Rhinotracheitis in marker-vaccinated dairy herds:
 Application of a recombinant gE ELISA on bulk milk samples. Veterinary Immunology and Immunopathology 185, 1–6. doi:10.1016/j.vetimm.2017.01.003.
- Natale, F., Giovannini, A., Savini, L., Palma, D., Possenti, L., Fiore, G., Calistri, P., 2009. Network analysis of Italian cattle trade patterns and evaluation of risks for potential disease spread. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 92, 341– 350. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2009.08.026.
- Natale, F., Savini, L., Giovannini, A., Calistri, P., Candeloro, L., Fiore, G., 2011. Evaluation of risk and vulnerability using a Disease Flow Centrality measure in dynamic cattle trade networks. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 98, 111–118. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2010.11.013.

- Nigrelli, A.D., Bertoletti, I., Boldini, M., Fabbi, M., Luini, M., Paterlini, F., Faccini, S., 2009. Prevalence of BVDV infection in dairy cattle in Lombardy and proposal of a farm eradication program. Prevalenza del virus BVD in allevamenti di bovine da latte in Lombardia e proposta di un protocollo di eradicazione aziendale 15, 195–198.
- Niskanen, R., Lindberg, A., 2003. Transmission of bovine viral diarrhoea virus by unhygienic vaccination procedures, ambient air, and from contaminated pens. Veterinary journal (London, England: 1997) 165, 125–30.
- Palisson, A., Courcoul, A., Durand, B., 2017. Analysis of the Spatial Organization of Pastures as a Contact Network, Implications for Potential Disease
 Spread and Biosecurity in Livestock, France, 2010. PLOS ONE 12, e0169881.
 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0169881.
- Reardon, F., Graham, D., Clegg, T., Tratalos, J., O'Sullivan, P., More, S., 2016.
 Quantifying the importance of trojan dams in the national byd eradication programme in ireland. Proceedings of the 29th World Buiatrics Congress.
- Servizio Informativo Veterinario, 2011. Diarrea virale bovina (bvd).

 URL: http://www.vetinweb.it/cm_siv/sites/default/files/RUMINANTI

 12 BVD.pdf.
- Smith, R.L., Sanderson, M.W., Renter, D.G., Larson, R.L., White, B.J., 2009.
 A stochastic model to assess the risk of introduction of bovine viral diarrhea virus to beef cow-calf herds. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 88, 101–108. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2008.08.006.
- Sørensen, J., Enevoldsen, C., Houe, H., 1995. A stochastic model for simulation of the economic consequences of bovine virus diarrhoea virus infection in a dairy herd. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 23, 215–227. doi:10.1016/0167-5877(94)00436-M.
- Thomann, B., Tschopp, A., Magouras, I., Meylan, M., Schüpbach-Regula, G.,
 Häsler, B., 2017. Economic evaluation of the eradication program for bovine viral diarrhea in the Swiss dairy sector. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 145,
 1–6. doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2017.05.020.
- Thulke, H., Lange, M., Tratalos, J., Clegg, T., McGrath, G., O'Grady, L.,
 O'Sullivan, P., Doherty, M., Graham, D., More, S., 2017. Eradicating
 bvd, revieweing irish programme data and model predictions to support
 prospective decision making. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 150, 151–161.
 doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2017.11.017.
- Tinsley, M., Lewis, F.I., Brülisauer, F., 2012. Network modeling of BVD transmission. Veterinary Research 43, 11. doi:10.1186/1297-9716-43-11.
- Traven, M., Alenius, S., Fossum, C., Larsson, B., 1991. Primary Bovine Viral
 Diarrhoea Virus Infection in Calves Following Direct Contact with a Persistently Viraemic Calf. Journal of Veterinary Medicine, Series B 38, 453–462.
 doi:10.1111/j.1439-0450.1991.tb00895.x, arXiv:arXiv:1011.1669v3.

- Valdano, E., Poletto, C., Giovannini, A., Palma, D., Savini, L., Colizza, V., 2015. Predicting Epidemic Risk from Past Temporal Contact
 Data. arXiv preprint arXiv: ... 11. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1004152,
 arXiv:arXiv:1406.1449v1.
- Vernon, M.C., Keeling, M.J., 2009. Representing the UK's cattle herd as static
 and dynamic networks. Proceedings. Biological sciences / The Royal Society
 276, 469–76. doi:10.1098/rspb.2008.1009.
- Viet, A.F., Fourichon, C., Seegers, H., 2007. Review and critical discussion of assumptions and modelling options to study the spread of the bovine viral diarrhoea virus (BVDV) within a cattle herd. Epidemiology and infection 135, 706–21. doi:10.1017/S095026880600745X.
- Viet, A.F., Fourichon, C., Seegers, H., Jacob, C., Guihenneuc-Jouyaux,
 C., 2004. A model of the spread of the bovine viral-diarrhoea virus
 within a dairy herd. Preventive Veterinary Medicine 63, 211–236.
 doi:10.1016/j.prevetmed.2004.01.015.