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► **To cite this version:**

Laetitia Canini, Benoit Durand. Resilience of French cattle farms to bovine tuberculosis detection between 2004 and 2017. Preventive Veterinary Medicine, 2020, 176, pp.104902 -. 10.1016/j.prevetmed.2020.104902 . hal-03489679

**HAL Id: hal-03489679**

**<https://hal.science/hal-03489679>**

Submitted on 21 Jul 2022

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1            Resilience of French cattle farms to  
2            bovine tuberculosis detection between  
3            2004 and 2017

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## 9 Abstract

10 France was recognized officially bovine tuberculosis (bTB) free by the European Union in 2001,  
11 however an increase of bTB detections has been reported since 2004. Even though the  
12 recommended method for bTB control is whole herd depopulation, test-and-cull protocols have been  
13 authorized in pilot areas since 2008 and in the rest of France since 2014. BTB impact at the state level  
14 and on trade has been thoroughly studied, however the consequences of these control measures at  
15 a farm level are poorly understood.

16 We used bovine movement data from the French cattle tracing system and surveillance data from  
17 the National reference laboratory to compare time to closure between case farms with a bTB  
18 detection and matched control farms between 2004 and 2017 in France. For this purpose, we  
19 considered two modes of closure: (i) long-lasting (more than 12 months) depopulation and (ii)  
20 change of farm owner. Using a competing risk analysis, we showed that bTB detection significantly  
21 increased the odds of long-lasting depopulation (particularly during the first three months after bTB  
22 detection) indicating that farmers renounced restocking after the depopulation, whereas it  
23 decreased the odds of a change of owner. Larger farms, characterized by an increased average  
24 weekly number of cattle, had a lesser risk of long-lasting depopulation. Farms owned by a natural  
25 person had an increased risk of closure. We also showed that the possibility to control bTB by test-  
26 and-cull protocol decreased the long-lasting depopulation risk.

27 Overall, bTB control measures contribute to reshaping the agricultural landscape by increasing the  
28 probability of closure for small vulnerable farms and by favoring large, professionalized and  
29 specialized agricultural holdings. Our results also suggest an improvement in control management  
30 with the introduction of test-and-cull protocols instead of systematic whole herd depopulation.

31 Keywords: Bovine tuberculosis, Farm resilience

## 32 Introduction

33 Bovine tuberculosis (bTB) is a chronic disease caused mainly by *Mycobacterium bovis*. It can affect  
34 cattle and other domestic and wild ruminants, but also many other mammalian species including  
35 humans. The zoonotic nature of this pathogen justified the design and implementation of control  
36 programs, in line with the European Union (EU) Directive 64/432/EEC. In France, such an eradication  
37 program started in 1954, and became compulsory 11 years later, in 1965. This was followed by a  
38 quick decrease of herd incidence, from about 13% in 1965 to 1.5% in 1980 and <0.1% in 2000 (Bekara  
39 et al., 2014). The EU recognized France as officially free of bTB in 2001 (Decision 2001/26/EC), after a  
40 6-year period with a herd prevalence <0.1%. This bTB-free status is a condition for trading livestock  
41 and animal products with other countries and is therefore crucial to maintain French cattle farming  
42 competitiveness. However, since 2004, an upsurge of bTB detections is reported in specific areas  
43 located in the South-Western (Dordogne, Charentes and Pyrénées Atlantiques administrative  
44 divisions called *départements*) and Eastern parts of the country (Côte-d'Or) (Cavalerie et al., 2015).

45 The surveillance of bTB in cattle in France relies on three complementary approaches: systematic  
46 meat inspection at the slaughterhouse, systematic periodic screening in herds, and targeted  
47 screening of animals before movements or in at-risk herds, identified by epidemiological  
48 investigations performed in bTB-infected farms. At the slaughterhouse, each carcass is visually  
49 inspected by incision of selected tissue (lungs, retropharyngeal lymph nodes...) and, when suspect  
50 lesions are observed, samples are collected and sent to certified laboratories for the detection of *M.*  
51 *bovis* by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and bacteriology. The systematic periodic screening in  
52 herds differs according to the epidemiological situation of the *département*: the screening rhythm  
53 can vary between a yearly testing of all animals older than 6 weeks to no testing. At risk herds can be  
54 subject to reinforced surveillance protocols. Finally, all cattle in transit for more than 6 days or  
55 coming from an at-risk herd or transiting through a high risk herd with high turn-over or coming  
56 from a *département* with a 5-year cumulated incidence higher than the national average incidence

57 are tested. All live animals are tested by single intradermal comparative tuberculin tests (SICTT) or by  
58 single intradermal tuberculin tests (SITT). Both tests are performed in the cervical region and read  
59 72h post-injection (Cavalerie et al., 2015; Ministère de l'agriculture, de l'alimentation, de la pêche et  
60 des affaires rurales, 2003).

61 In France, each bTB detection is officially notified and leads to control measures at the herd level,  
62 which vary according to the local epidemiological situation. After bTB detection, two control  
63 protocols are available: either all animals are culled and the farm is subsequently disinfected (whole  
64 herd depopulation protocol), or only positive animals are culled and movements are restricted until  
65 recovering bTB-free status after three negative tests (test-and-cull protocol). The recommended  
66 method is whole depopulation within a month after bTB detection, a reinforced meat inspection in  
67 slaughtered animals at the slaughterhouse, and a disinfection of the farm buildings (Delavenne et al.,  
68 2019). However, the majority of culled animals are bTB free because of the low within-herd  
69 prevalence. In 2014, among 7669 culled bovines as part of a whole herd depopulation, 175 (2.28%)  
70 showed bTB-consistent lesions (Cavalerie et al., 2015; Ladreyt et al., 2018). In addition, bTB  
71 detections have been observed in farms after restocking, questioning the efficacy of whole herd  
72 depopulation which makes this control measure less and less acceptable to farmers (Good et al.,  
73 2011). For this reason, a test-and-cull protocol has been progressively authorized (since 2008 for two  
74 *départements* -Dordogne and Côte-d'Or; since 2014 for the rest of France) and improvements have  
75 been suggested (Ladreyt et al., 2018). The protocol is chosen on a case-by-case basis, and, if the  
76 farmer chooses the test-and-cull protocol, animal health authorities must first approve it. All animals  
77 from the herd are then tested by SICTT and interferon gamma, and positive animals are culled. A  
78 herd regains the bTB-free status after three negative herd-level tests, carried out two months apart  
79 (Ladreyt et al., 2018). In 2014, bTB was controlled by whole herd depopulation in 61 out of 105 farms  
80 with a confirmed infected animal (Cavalerie et al., 2015).

81 At the EU level in 2012, out of the 193 million euros allocated to surveillance and eradication plans,  
82 one third was used for bTB detection and control (Delmotte and Lecomte, 2013). The burden and

83 cost of bTB surveillance and control have been studied across different jurisdictions and vary greatly  
84 according to the epidemiological situation. In the Republic of Ireland, the annual cost of bTB  
85 surveillance and control was estimated at 84 million € in 2017 (funded by the Exchequer (42 million  
86 €), farmers (32 million €) and the EU (10 million €)) (Department of Agriculture Food and the Marine,  
87 2018), 40 million £ in Northern Ireland, and 38 million \$ in the USA (Smith et al., 2013). In Morocco,  
88 depending on the control strategies, it was simulated that the cumulated cost to reach bTB  
89 elimination would vary between 1.47 and 1.99 billion euros (Abakar et al., 2017). In France, in 2014,  
90 the annual cost of bTB surveillance and control was estimated at more than 17 million euros (for the  
91 screening cost, farmers compensation and veterinary fines, mainly) and at 107 000 € per breakdown  
92 (Cavalerie et al., 2015).

93 In France, the screening cost is shared between farmers but the way in which it is shared can differ  
94 between *départements*. For instance, in Dordogne (Aquitaine-North) and Pyrénées Atlantiques  
95 (Aquitaine-South), all farmers belonging to the animal health protection group (*groupement de*  
96 *défense sanitaire*) participate to the screening cost at the *département* level, whereas in Côte-d'Or  
97 only owners of infected farms participate (Gibon and Parle, 2015).

98 At the farmers' level, the monthly cost of bTB detection has been evaluated between £500 and >  
99 £3000 in South West of England (Butler, 2010). Besides this high economic impact, control measures,  
100 especially depopulation, have a strong psychologic impact on the farmers (Delmotte and Lecomte,  
101 2013). Both economic and psychologic impacts may induce longer-term effects (Turner et al., 2008),  
102 as they may lead farmers to abandon cattle farming and diversify their production, or to sell their  
103 cattle production unit to another farmer, or even to close the whole agricultural holding.

104 Our goal was to quantify the impact of bTB detection on the risk of farm closure. Based on data from  
105 the French cattle tracing system, bTB surveillance and the National Reference Laboratory (NRL), we  
106 used survival analysis methods to study the time to farm closure with and without bTB detection, in

107 France between 2004 and 2017, considering two competing causes of farm closure: long-lasting  
108 depopulation and sale of the cattle-breeding unit.

## 109 Material and methods

### 110 Data

#### 111 Case farms identification

112 All bTB detections between 2000 and 2017 which were declared to the Directorate General on Food  
113 Safety (*Direction Générale de l'Alimentation – DGAI*), included the herd identification number and  
114 date of bTB detection. The National Reference Laboratory (NRL) (Anses, Maisons-Alfort) checked this  
115 dataset for consistency with the samples they analyzed. This list was completed for herds that were  
116 confirmed by typing but not included in the *DGAI* list. These added case farms corresponded to herds  
117 connected with previously identified case farms or to large herds with two herd identification  
118 numbers. We selected the bTB detections for which typing results (spoligotyping and/or VNTR) and  
119 animal identification number were available.

120 Suspect animals had been identified either by skin tests (in the cervical region, using SITT or SICTT)  
121 provided by different surveillance protocols (periodic screening, epidemiological investigations, pre-  
122 movement of cattle (Delavenne et al., 2019)), or following the detection of lesions at slaughterhouse.  
123 For each detection, the presence of *M. bovis* was confirmed by PCR and/or bacterial culture.

#### 124 Cattle tracing system

125 The French cattle tracing system (*Base de Données Nationale d'Identification* or BDNI) records data  
126 regarding cattle and cattle herds (Ministère de l'agriculture, de l'agroalimentaire et de la forêt,  
127 2014). It allows reconstruction of the life history of each cow in France, from birth (or importation) to  
128 death (or export), through the entry and exit dates for each herd the animal has been residing in. For  
129 any given day, it is therefore possible to define the list of animals present in a herd. Besides, herd  
130 ownership data are also recorded (i.e. the owner of each herd), the dates at which the herd-owner  
131 relationship change, and the owner's legal status: natural person (i.e. an individual person) or legal

132 person (i.e. a producer group or a company). Herd types at the time of bTB detection were defined  
133 according to the classification proposed by Sala et al. (2019): dairy breeder herds, dairy breeder-  
134 fattener herds, beef (-suckler) breeder herds, beef (-suckler) breeder-fattener herds, mixed breeder  
135 herds, mixed breeder-fattener herds, fattener herds, very small herds and other herds (Sala et al.,  
136 2019).

## 137 Study design

138 The objective of this study was to analyze the longer-term impact of bTB detection on agricultural  
139 holdings. Although a bTB detection affects the cattle herd, its longer-term impacts result from  
140 decisions taken by the owner to deal with this event. For this reason, the association between a herd  
141 and an owner defined the unit of interest, termed below “farm”, and we named the longer-term  
142 impact we analyzed “farm closure”. We defined farm closure as (i) a change of owner identification  
143 number (which represents the sale or inheritance of the whole cattle breeding unit or a change of  
144 the owner’s legal status), or (ii) the sale, slaughter or death of each cattle until farm emptiness for  
145 more than 12 months called “long-lasting depopulation”.

146 To define depopulation, we computed the number of cattle present each day during the follow-up  
147 (i.e. between bTB detection and December 31 2017). When this number was zero, we considered  
148 that the farm was depopulated. We computed the duration of depopulation as the number of  
149 consecutive days where the farm was depopulated. A depopulation of at least 12 months is the  
150 duration used by the authorities to characterize a cessation of livestock farming activity (Ministère de  
151 l’agriculture, de l’alimentation, de la pêche et des affaires rurales and Institut de l’élevage, 2004).

152 Farm closure date was defined as the date at which the owner changed as notified in the BDNI, or as  
153 the first day of a long-lasting depopulation. Both types of farm closures may correspond to the  
154 closure of a whole agricultural holding, its diversification away from cattle breeding and/or  
155 production or a change of legal status with the owner joining a producer group for instance.

156 Restocking was defined as the entry of cattle in the farm and the time of restocking as the first day  
157 when at least one animal was present in the farm.

158 The impact of a bTB detection on both types of farm closure was analyzed using a case/control  
159 design and survival analysis methods. Cases were farms with a bTB detection between July 2004 and  
160 December 2017. We decided to exclude bTB detections that occurred before July 2004 since herd  
161 type was not available. We also excluded the farms breeding bullfighting animals and the farms from  
162 Corsica, which correspond to very specific breeding systems. When several detections had been  
163 reported for the same farm, the last bTB detection date was used. Control farms were bTB-free farms  
164 (i.e. farms without bTB detection).

165 It has been well documented that bTB incidence has a heterogeneous geographical distribution and  
166 is associated with the production type (Karolemeas et al., 2011; Ramírez-Villaescusa et al., 2010).  
167 Furthermore, the most obvious cause of farm closure is farmer retirement. To control these factors,  
168 we matched the control farms to case farms on the *département* (the level 3 of the Nomenclature of  
169 Territorial Units for Statistics), on the farm production types proposed by Sala (Sala et al., 2019), and  
170 on the ownership (of the herd by the owner) start date  $\pm$  5 years, considering the latter variable as a  
171 proxy for owners' age. To control the impact of the local epidemiological context, we excluded  
172 control farms that were closed at the time of bTB detection in the matched case farm. Finally, we  
173 excluded control farms that had been populated less than 6 months during that period. Based on the  
174 preceding criteria, we chose to match one control farm for each case farm randomly.

## 175 **Statistical analysis**

### 176 **Covariates definition**

177 We studied the resulting dataset using competing risk analysis methods. The event of interest was  
178 the occurrence of a farm closure event during the follow-up between a bTB detection (for a case and  
179 its associated time controls) and December 2017. The two causes of farm closures (change of owner,  
180 and long-lasting depopulation) were analyzed jointly. For both causes, case and control farms were

181 compared for the (right-censored) survival duration (in days). Besides the owner's age and the herd  
182 type at time of bTB detection (for which case-control matching criteria were defined), the risk of  
183 farm closure was expected to vary according to the cattle breeding unit's economic performance. To  
184 control for this presumably major factor of farm closure, we computed the average weekly number  
185 of cattle during the year preceding bTB detection. For each week, we counted the number of cattle  
186 present in the farm using the entry and exit dates. This covariate described the size of the farm and  
187 was therefore used as a proxy for the owner's overall income. The owner legal status (natural person  
188 vs. other forms of agricultural holdings) was considered as a proxy for the owner's ability to diversify  
189 their farming activity. The type of control measures (i.e. whole herd depopulation or test-and-cull)  
190 may influence the risk of farm closure although the nature of this influence is difficult to predict:  
191 whole herd depopulation has a stronger psychologic impact than test-and-cull, however the latter  
192 may induce a longer period of movement restriction and have a higher economic impact on the  
193 farmer. As the information on the type of control measure was not available for the whole study  
194 period (it was only available starting 2013), we defined a tag-variable (0/1) for the possibility of test-  
195 and-cull control program. Since the situation was different according to the *département*, we set this  
196 variable to 1 for all *département* starting 2014 and for Dordogne (in Aquitaine-North) and Côte-d'Or  
197 starting 2008.

## 198 Competing risk analysis

199 To account for the mutually exclusive causes of closure (cause 1: change of owner, and cause 2: long-  
200 lasting depopulation), we used a competing risk model to describe the cumulative incidence curve.  
201 The standard approach to analyze competing risk data is to model and estimate the cause-specific  
202 hazards. We used the model proposed by Scheike et al. (Scheike et al., 2008) with a logit link  
203 function, according to which the cumulative incidence function (CIF) for cause 1 is modeled as:

$$204 \quad \text{logit } P_1(t | x_1, \dots, x_n, z_1, \dots, z_m) = \alpha_0(t) + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i(t) x_i + \sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_j z_j$$

205 where:

- 206 -  $\alpha_0(t)$  is the baseline time-varying risk,
- 207 -  $x_{i=1,\dots,n}$  are the  $n$  covariates having a time-varying effect, and  $\alpha_i(t)$  the associated time-  
208 varying effect, estimated in a non-parametric way,
- 209 - the  $z_{j=1,\dots,m}$  are the  $m$  covariates having a time-constant effect, and  $\gamma_j$  the associated  
210 parameters.

211 The CIF  $P_1(t | x_1, \dots, x_n, z_1, \dots, z_m)$  then represents the probability, for a farm with the covariates  $x_i$   
212 and  $z_j$ , to close from cause 1 by time  $t$ , whilst also at risk of closing from the other competing cause  
213 of closure.

214 To use this model it is first necessary to determine if the covariate effect is time-varying or constant.  
215 For this purpose, we fitted a model where all covariate effects are time-varying (i.e. a fully non-  
216 parametric model). We then successively tested whether the effect of a specific covariate,  $x_i$ , was  
217 constant over time (with  $H_0: \alpha_i(t) \equiv \alpha$ ) using a Cramer-von Mises test. Four covariates were  
218 considered:

- 219 - occurrence of a bTB detection in the farm: Yes/No, i.e. case vs. control (reference),
- 220 - legal status of the owner: natural person/other (reference),
- 221 - possibility of test-and-cull control program: Yes/No (reference),
- 222 - average weekly number of cattle (x100),

223 For the covariates  $z_j$  having a time-constant effect, the significance of the effect was investigated by  
224 testing  $H_0: \gamma_j = 0$  with the test statistic  $\hat{\gamma}_j / \hat{\sigma}_\gamma^j$  which is asymptotically normally distributed and  
225 where  $\hat{\sigma}_\gamma^j$  is the  $j^{\text{th}}$  diagonal element of the variance matrix  $\hat{\Sigma}_\gamma(t)$ . We computed the sub-distribution  
226 hazard ratio (SHR) for the variables that were not varying with time. SHR for covariate  $z_j$  is computed  
227 as  $\exp(\gamma_j)$ . If the probability of events is low (<20%) over the entire follow-up period and when a

228 logistic link function is used, then the SHR can be interpreted as an odds ratios of CIF (Austin and  
229 Fine, 2017).

230 For the covariates  $x_i$  that had a time-varying effect, the significance of the effect was assessed using

231 a supremum test ( $H_0: \alpha_i(t) = 0, t \in [0, \tau]$ ) with the test statistic:  $T = \sup_{t \in [0, \tau]} \left| \frac{\hat{\alpha}_i(t)}{\sqrt{\hat{\Sigma}_\alpha^i(t)}} \right|$ , where  $\sqrt{\hat{\Sigma}_\alpha^i(t)}$

232 is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  diagonal element of the variance matrix  $\hat{\Sigma}_\alpha(t)$ . Ten thousand resampling processes were

233 used to compute the p-value. For each covariate having a time-varying effect, we additionally plotted

234 the estimated  $\hat{\alpha}_i(t)$  with its confidence band since it represents the time-varying effect of the

235 variable  $x_i$  (i.e. a non-flat curve), and the time-varying significance of this effect (i.e. whether, at a

236 given time, the confidence interval contains zero or not).

237 We considered that the matching pairs were independent and modeled it with a cluster variable,

238 which uniquely identified each pair.

239 We estimated the regression parameters by direct binomial regression approach as implemented in

240 the *comp.risk()* function from the *timereg* package in R3.6.0 (Scheike and Zhang, 2011). Figures were

241 drawn using the *ggplot2* package (Wickham, 2009). To plot the maps we used in addition the

242 packages *rgdal* (Keitt, 2010) and *broom* (Robinson, 2014).

## 243 Results

### 244 French farming landscape between 2004 and 2017

245 Herd distribution is heterogeneous in France, with two main areas of farming: one in the North-West

246 mainly with dairy breeder and dairy fattener herds and one in the Center/South-West with mainly

247 suckler fattener and suckler breeder herds (**Figure S1A**).

248 Herd type census campaigns are held between July 1<sup>st</sup> of year  $x$  and June 30<sup>th</sup> of year  $x+1$ . The

249 number of herds decreased from 263,284 to 173,941 between the 2004-2005 and the 2017-2018

250 campaigns, which corresponds to a 33.9% herd loss (**Figure S1B**). All production types were affected  
251 with the biggest loss observed for fattener (-58.5%), dairy-breeder (-42.7%) and very small farms (-  
252 42,2%),

### 253 Case farms description

254 Between 2000 and 2017, bTB was detected 1532 times in 1364 herds. Among these, we excluded 52  
255 herds from Corsica, 179 herds breeding bullfighting animals and 237 herds where bTB was detected  
256 before July 2004. In total, 1064 bTB detections in 952 herds were considered, corresponding to 962  
257 farms (associated herd and owner) (**Figure 1A**).

258 According to the data available between 2013 and 2017, for the 504 farms with bTB detection, bTB  
259 was mainly detected during periodic screening (N=257, 51.0%), during meat inspection (N=115,  
260 22.8%) and after epidemiological investigations (N=78, 15.5%). The other circumstances of detection  
261 were: reinforced screening in at-risk farms (N=47, 9.3%), interferon gamma screening (N=4, 0.8%),  
262 animal screening before farm introduction (N=2, 0.4%) and screening after clinical suspicion (N=1,  
263 0.2%).

264 Eight-hundred and fifty-three herds had one bTB detection, 84 had two bTB detections, 13 herds had  
265 three bTB detections and one herd had four bTB detections. In these 98 herds with at least two bTB  
266 detections, the average time interval between two successive detections was 4.2 years (min-max: 97  
267 days – 10.7 years). Finally, in 11 farms the owner changed between two detections.

268 Although bTB detection occurred in 62/94 *départements*, three geographical areas were more  
269 affected: Côte d'Or *département*, Aquitaine-North (Dordogne, Charente and Haute-Vienne  
270 *départements*) and Aquitaine-South (Pyrénées-Atlantiques and Landes *départements*) (**Figure 2A**).

271 The production type of case farms was suckler-fattener (N=430, 44.7%), suckler-breeder (N=134,  
272 13.9%), dairy-fattener (N=97, 10.1%), fattener (N=91, 9.5%), other (N=63, 6.5%), very-small (N=57,

273 5.9%), dairy-breeder (N=40, 4.2%), mixed-fattener (N=40, 4.2%) and mixed-breeder (N=10, 1%). Most  
274 herds (685/962, 71%) belonged to the same owner since 01-01-2000 or before.

275 Between 2013 and 2017, after bTB detection (N=504 farms), the disease was controlled by test-and-  
276 cull protocol (N=242, 48.0%) and whole herd depopulation (N=211, 41.9%). The information was  
277 missing for 10.1% (N=51) of farms.

### 278 Control farms selection

279 From the 1 317 402 farms identified in the French cattle tracing system, after matching on  
280 *département*, herd type and ownership start date and after removing farms that had been inactive  
281 during the follow-up period, 54 523 farms remained for selection as control farms. For each case  
282 farm, from 1 to 1762 potential control farms were available.

### 283 Activity before bTB detection

284 Before bTB detection, case farms were owned less frequently by natural persons than control farms  
285 (52.1% (N=501) vs. 58.4% (N=562),  $p=0.002$ , McNemar's test) and had a higher average weekly  
286 number of cattle (median: 88.5 [2.5<sup>th</sup> – 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentile: 11.2 ; 308.3] vs. 62.0 [7.7 ; 268.7],  $p<0.001$ ,  
287 paired Wilcoxon test) (**Table 1**).

### 288 Farm closure

289 A similar proportion (67.5% vs. 67.9%) of farms remained open during the follow-up period (653/962  
290 and 650/962 for control and case farms, respectively). Among those which closed, the cause of  
291 closure was long-lasting depopulation for 42% of control farms (130/309) and 54% of case farms  
292 (169/312). According to the Cochran's Q test, bTB detection and cause of closure were not  
293 significantly associated ( $p=0.626$ ) (**Table 1 & Figure 1B**). However, among the case farms, the cause  
294 of closure was significantly associated with the multiplicity of bTB detections ( $p<0.001$ , exact Fisher's  
295 test). Surprisingly 67.1% (580/864) vs. 70.9% (69/98) of farms remained open, 13.7% (118/864) vs.  
296 23.1% (23/98) changed owner, and 19.2% (166/864) vs. 6.0% (6/98) closed due to long-lasting  
297 depopulation in farms with one or several bTB detections, respectively.

298 The cause of closure was also significantly ( $p < 0.001$ , exact Fisher's test) associated with the type of  
299 control measure between 2013 and 2017, with 88.8% (215/242) vs. 79.1% (167/211) of farms  
300 remaining open, 8.3% (20/242) vs. 3.8% (8/211) changing owner, and 2.9% (7/242) vs. 17.1%  
301 (36/211) closing due to long-lasting depopulation in farms controlled by test-and-cull protocols or by  
302 whole herd depopulation, respectively.

303 The timing of long-lasting depopulation significantly differed between case and control farms: 10%  
304 (99/962) of case farms were depopulated within the 3 months following bTB detection vs. 2.1%  
305 (20/962) in the control group ( $p < 0.001$ , McNemar's chi-squared test) (**Figure 3**). This also  
306 corresponds to 59% (99/169) and 15% (20/130) of the closures caused by long-lasting depopulation  
307 in case and control farms, respectively (**Figure 1B**). However, the type of control measure was not  
308 significantly associated ( $p = 0.090$ , Wilcoxon test) with the timing of long-lasting depopulation  
309 (between 2013 and 2017). Before a long-lasting depopulation, some farms were subjected to short  
310 depopulation periods. Such patterns appeared more rarely in control farms (10% of farms finally  
311 closed by a long-lasting depopulation) than in case farms: after a first depopulation period (which  
312 was due to the control measures), 28% of case farms were repopulated, before permanently closing  
313 afterwards.

314 Besides long-lasting depopulation, 639/962 (66.4%) and 209/962 (21.7%) of case and control farms  
315 respectively have been depopulated for short period during the follow-up. The first depopulation  
316 was on average longer in case farms than in control farms ( $p < 0.001$ ).

317 Concerning the change of owner, 143 (14.9% of closures) events occurred in case farms vs. 179  
318 (18.6% of closures) in control farms (**Table 1 & Figure 1B**).

### 319 **Animals' fate after long-lasting depopulation**

320 Before long-lasting depopulation, 10 666 animals were present in the 299 farms: 3066 animals in the  
321 130 control farms and 7600 animals in the 169 case farms, with a range of 1 to 287 animals in each

322 farm. Six exit causes were found: butchering, self-consumption, sale, heritage/loan, death  
323 (rendering) and unknown (**Figure 4**). The exit cause significantly differed between the control and  
324 case farms ( $p < 0.001$ ) with 32.8% vs. 64.6% of animals being butchered or used for self-consumption  
325 and 62.0% vs. 28.3% of animals being sold, lent or given as heritage, respectively. We also observed a  
326 greater proportion of rendered animals (3%) in case farms than in control farms (0.6%).

## 327 Cause-specific cumulative incidence of closure events

### 328 Long-lasting depopulation

329 From the Cramer-von Mises tests, we found that bTB detection and the average weekly numbers of  
330 cattle x100 had time-varying effects on long-lasting depopulation ( $p < 0.001$  for each covariate), and  
331 that the remaining variables, i.e. legal status and the possibility of test-and-cull control program had  
332 time-constant effects.

333 For the closures caused by long-lasting depopulation, **Figure 5** shows the cumulative coefficient for  
334 the time-varying variables, i.e. the baseline (panel A), and the effects of covariates: bTB detection  
335 (panel B) and average weekly number of cattle (panel C). At time  $t$ , the value of a cumulative  
336 coefficient can be interpreted as the cumulative hazard difference induced by a 1-unit increase of the  
337 covariate, compared to its reference level. Therefore, a value of zero indicates an absence of effect  
338 of the covariate, whereas a positive value indicates a higher risk (and a negative value, a lower risk)  
339 induced by the change of the covariate, this effect being significant if 0 is not included in the 95%  
340 confidence interval. BTB detection had a strong time-varying effect and was therefore an important  
341 predictor of closure, mainly during the first 3 months (**Figure 5B**). Indeed during this time-period,  
342 cumulative coefficient increased from 0 to 2.78 (95% CI: [2.1;3.45]), before decreasing back to  
343 baseline by 9.1 years (cumulative coefficient: 0.28 (95% CI: [-0.03; 0.60])). This suggests that the  
344 effect of bTB detection is to increase the risk of closure by ~3-fold during the first 3 months before  
345 progressively vanishing, as shown by the peak of cumulative coefficient. The average weekly number  
346 of cattle also had a time varying effect. The negative values of CRF during the follow-up (**Figure 5C**)

347 indicates that larger farms had a lower risk of being closed. These results are confirmed by the  
348 significance test assessing whether the covariates effects was different from zero (**Table 2**).

349 Concerning the time-constant effects, the SHR was estimated as 1.66 [95%CI: 1.13 ; 2.44] ( $p=0.010$ )  
350 for natural person vs. other legal status. The estimated SHR was 0.414 [0.301 ; 0.569] ( $p<0.001$ ) for  
351 the possibility of test-and-cull program (**Table 2**). Since the probability of events is low ( $<20\%$ ) over  
352 the 13 years of follow-up and considering that we used a logistic link function (Austin and Fine,  
353 2017), we therefore meet the criteria to interpret the SHR as odds ratios. Hence, we can conclude  
354 that the odds of long-lasting depopulation is 1.66-fold higher if the owner is a natural person, and if  
355 bTB notification occurred when test-and-cull program was possible the odds of long-lasting  
356 depopulation is 0.414 times the odds of bTB notification occurred when whole-herd-depopulation  
357 was mandatory.

### 358 **Change of owner**

359 From the Cramer-von Mises tests, we considered that only the possibility of test-and-cull control  
360 program had a time-varying effect ( $p<0.001$ ), and that the remaining variables, i.e. bTB detection,  
361 legal status and the average weekly numbers of cattle had time-constant effects.

362 **Figure 6** suggests that after 2.5 years post bTB detection the risk of change of owner decreased for  
363 farms with bTB-detection occurring when test-and-cull program was possible comparatively to bTB  
364 detection occurring when whole-herd depopulation was mandatory. This was confirmed by the  
365 significance test (**Table 2**).

366 Unlike long-lasting depopulation, bTB detection decreased the odds of a change of owner ( $P=0.011$ )  
367 which in case farms was 0.704 [0.538 ; 0.922] times the odd of that in control farms, whereas the  
368 average weekly number of cattle increased the odds of a change of owner ( $P=0.009$ ,  $SHR=1.19$  [1.04 ;  
369 1.36] for an increase of 100 heads). The legal status was not significantly associated with the change  
370 of owner (**Table 2**).

## 371 Discussion

372 Unlike the economic impact of bTB, which has been extensively studied at the state level (Chambers  
373 et al., 2018; Kao et al., 2018; Reviriego Gordejo and Vermeersch, 2006; Smith et al., 2013), as well as  
374 its impact on animal trade (Adkin et al., 2016; Gates et al., 2013; Little et al., 2017), the individual  
375 burden of bTB detection on farms remains largely unexplored. In a report from the Centre for Rural  
376 Policy Research, eight farmers from the South West of England were interviewed to identify the costs  
377 induced by bTB detection. In these case study farms, the monthly cost of bTB detection ranged from  
378 £500 to more than £3000, depending on the number of animals involved and on the management of  
379 the farm and of the breakdown (type of farm, number of holdings, restocking policy, marketing of  
380 livestock and livestock products) (Butler, 2010). Several types of costs or of reduction in farmers'  
381 income induced by bTB were identified. These costs may explain a higher risk of farm long-lasting  
382 depopulation after a bTB detection (Butler, 2010). Movement restriction induces additional costs due  
383 to the bedding, feeding and labor to keep the stock as well as an increased workload. Longer-term  
384 costs include paperwork, financing biosecurity measures, or postponing investment for farm  
385 development. Years of genetic selection can be lost (Skuce et al., 2012) and high-value stocks are  
386 under-compensated, inducing a restocking cost. Moreover, beside animal welfare issues during  
387 whole herd depopulation (Schiller et al., 2011), the loss of an entire herd can be traumatic for the  
388 farmer and represent a personal cost (Butler, 2010; Delmotte and Lecomte, 2013).

389 In this work, we assessed for the first time the effect of bTB detection on farm survival in France  
390 between 2004 and 2017. We found that bTB detection had a different effect depending on the cause  
391 of closure. Whereas it increased the long-lasting depopulation risk, bTB detection decreased the risk  
392 of a change of owner. More specifically, the long-lasting depopulation risk dramatically increased  
393 during the first three months following bTB detection. This suggests that after the culling and  
394 disinfection of the farm, the owner did not restock.

395 The case farms included in this study were on average larger than control farms, which is consistent  
396 with previous findings showing that farms of larger size are more at risk of bTB detection (Brooks-  
397 Pollock and Keeling, 2009; Carrique-Mas et al., 2008; Green and Cornell, 2005; Ramírez-Villaescusa et  
398 al., 2010). However, the increased odds of long-lasting depopulation for smaller case farms suggest  
399 that bTB control measures may induce, as a side effect, the closure of the most vulnerable cattle  
400 farms in the affected areas. The increased risk of long-lasting depopulation for farms owned by  
401 natural persons is also consistent with a lower ability to address risks and to build resilience  
402 conferred by local, horizontal social networks extending beyond the family circle (Naylor and  
403 Courtney, 2014). This is also in line with previous work on bTB history in France, showing how control  
404 measures induced the closure of many small farms owned by natural persons, at the beginning of the  
405 bTB eradication program, which started in 1954 and became compulsory in France in 1965. Thus, bTB  
406 eradication programs while inducing a decrease of bTB incidence in France, participated to the  
407 reshaping of the French agricultural landscape (Berdah, 2008) with an advantage for more  
408 professionalized and specialized agricultural holdings (Bekara et al., 2014).

409 Interestingly, we found that farms with bTB detection occurring when test-and-cull control program  
410 was possible had lower odds of long lasting depopulation, supporting the lesser burden of the test-  
411 and-cull protocols. The possibility to control bTB by test-and-cull protocol was also associated with  
412 decreasing odds of changing owner. The underlying reasons of this effect are unknown, but we can  
413 speculate that farmers buying a herd could fear starting their farming activity with undetected  
414 infected animals. We also identified that bTB detection decreased the chance of changing owner,  
415 suggesting that bad reputation due to bTB detection could limit the possibility of selling a herd.

416 The main limitation of our study is related to the identification of farms and their owner. Indeed,  
417 when two farms merge, the identification number of one of the two farms is preserved. All the  
418 animals from the second farm appears then as transferred to the first one and would be identified as  
419 depopulated, according to our definition. We cannot therefore differentiate a long-lasting

420 depopulation from a fusion of two farms. Nevertheless, this reflects a major change in the farm  
421 management. Similarly, a change of the owner identification number may correspond to a sale, an  
422 inheritance or to a change of legal status, all of which cannot be distinguished (Ministère de  
423 l'agriculture, de l'agroalimentaire et de la forêt, 2014).

424 Here we used legal status and farm size related variables as proxies for financial health. However,  
425 other activities such as animal product processing, sale or tourist activities that can increase a farm's  
426 income could be considered. Forage (hay, straw, silage or bales) and crop production can also  
427 enhance a farm's finances by reducing the animal feeding costs (Veysset et al., 2005). Conversely,  
428 climatic risks such as drought or flooding could undermine the farm capital.

## 429 Conclusion

430 To conclude, bTB detection has a significant impact on farms resilience and increases long-lasting  
431 depopulation risk, while decreasing the probability for the affected farm to be sold, and change  
432 owner. The risk of long-lasting depopulation was decreased when test-and-cull control program was  
433 possible suggesting an improvement in control management with the introduction of these protocols  
434 instead of systematic whole herd depopulation and a habituation to the epidemic situation.

## 435 Acknowledgements

436 This study was supported by the Laboratory of Excellence Integrative Biology of Emerging Infectious  
437 Diseases (Grant ANR-10-LABX-62-IBEID), by the Ile-de-France Region as part of the DIM-1Health  
438 project, and by the French Research Agency (ANR) (project ANR-16-CE32-0007-01, CADENCE).

439

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559

560

## 561 Tables' legend

562 **Table 1. Comparison of baseline characteristics of case farms (with bTB detection) and control farm**  
563 **(without bTB detection).** P-values were computed as paired Wilcoxon test for continuous variables  
564 and McNemar's chi-squared test for 2-categories covariates, Cochran q test for >2-categories  
565 covariates.

566 **Table 2. Semi-parametric additive competing risk models estimates for change of owner and long-**  
567 **lasting depopulation (> 12 months).** 95% CI stands for 95% confidence interval; SHR stands for  
568 subdistribution hazard ratio and is computed only for covariates with non-significant constant effect  
569 test. When the test for constant effect is significant (Cramer-von Mises test), the non-parametric  
570 effect of the covariate is tested for significance but not estimated as noted by "--". Ref stands for  
571 reference level. \* average weekly numbers: mean of weekly count of every cattle of the studied  
572 category during the year preceding the bTB detection (or corresponding time for the matched  
573 control farm).

574

## 575 Figures' legend

576 **Figure 1. Flow diagram for farms inclusion (A) and flow diagram of the farms' fate according to**  
577 **group (case vs. control) (B).**

578 **Figure 2. Number of bTB detection (A), average weekly number of cattle in case (B) and control (C)**  
579 **farms and percentage of case farms (D) and control farms (E) owned by a natural person, at the**  
580 **département level.** For all panels, in grey: départements not included in the analysis due to the lack  
581 of bTB detection. Thick line: six départements with the highest prevalence (North East: Côte-d'Or  
582 (yellow), Center West: Aquitaine-North (purple) and South West: Aquitaine-South (magenta)).

583 **Figure 3. Closure cause-specific cumulative incidence functions** for case farms (blue) and control  
584 farms (yellow) for competing causes of closure: Change of owner (A) and long-lasting depopulation

585 (B). The blue and yellow intervals show the 95% confidence interval for the two causes of closure.  
586 The grey vertical line is set at 3 months.

587 **Figure 4. Exit cause of animals at time of closure when cause is long-lasting depopulation** in case  
588 farms (blue) and in control farms (yellow). The number above the bar shows the corresponding  
589 percentage.

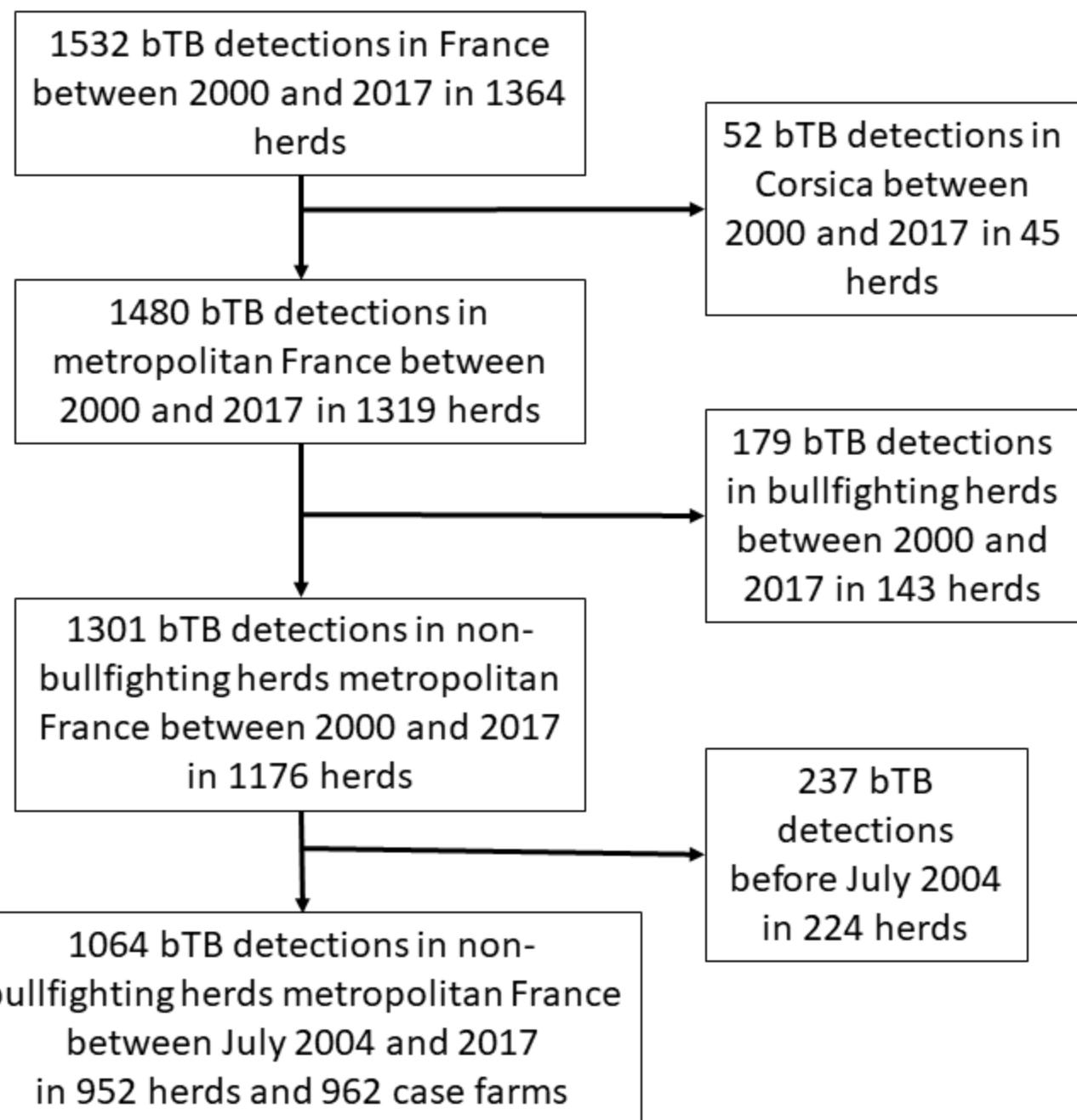
590 **Figure 5. Cumulative additive effect for closure by long-lasting depopulation, based on semi-**  
591 **parametric model** (or additive-multiplicative; additive part: bTB detection, average weekly number  
592 of cattle; multiplicative part: region and legal status). Solid black line: cumulative regression curve;  
593 dashed lines: 95% confidence interval; horizontal solid grey line: cumulative coefficient = 0. Vertical  
594 grey line: 90 days

595 **Figure 6. Cumulative additive effect for closure by change of owner based on semi-parametric**  
596 **model** (or additive-multiplicative; additive part: region; multiplicative part: bTB detection, legal  
597 status, average weekly number of cattle). Solid black line: cumulative regression curve; dashed lines:  
598 95% confidence interval; horizontal solid grey line: cumulative coefficient=0. Vertical grey line: 90  
599 days.

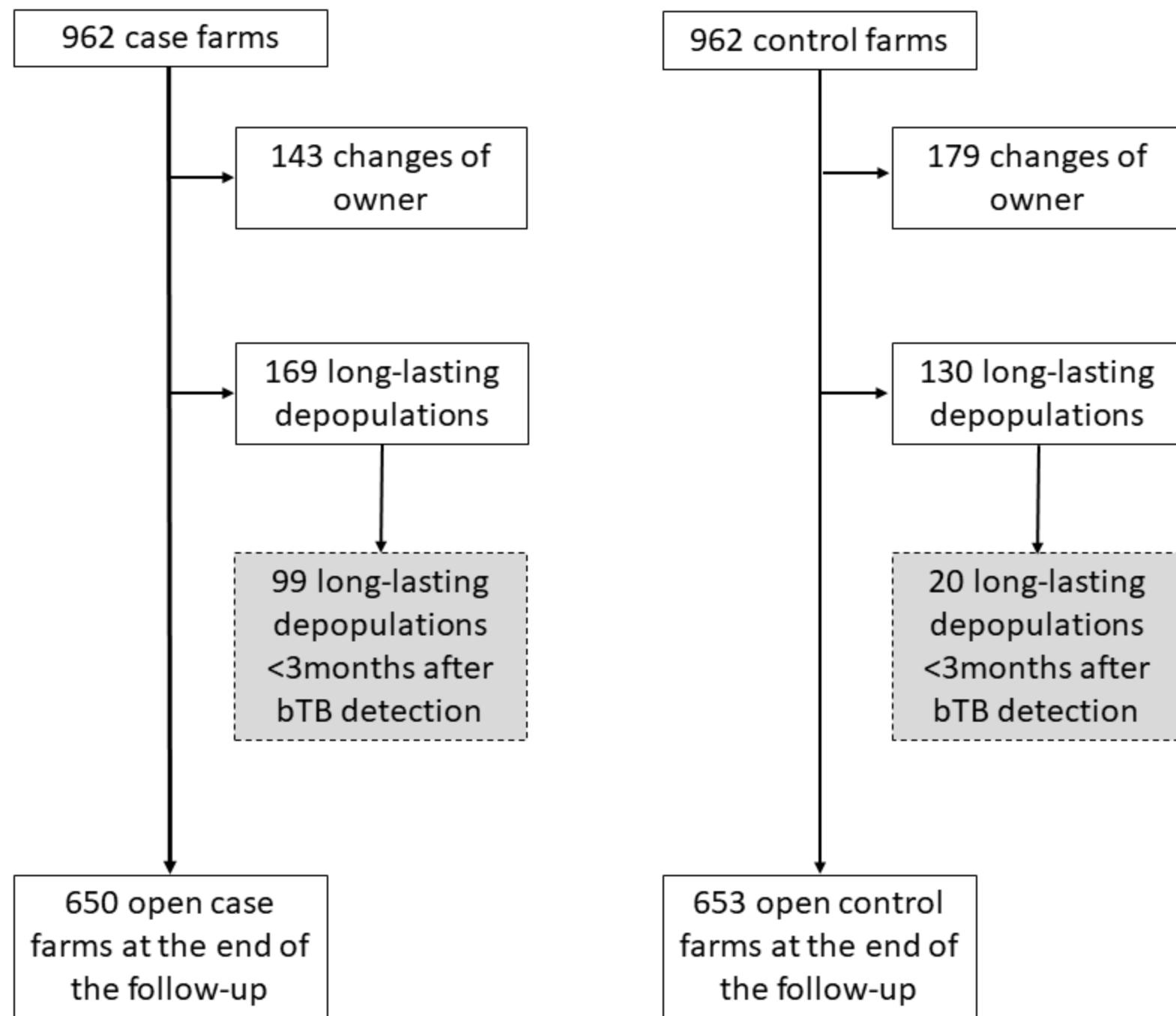
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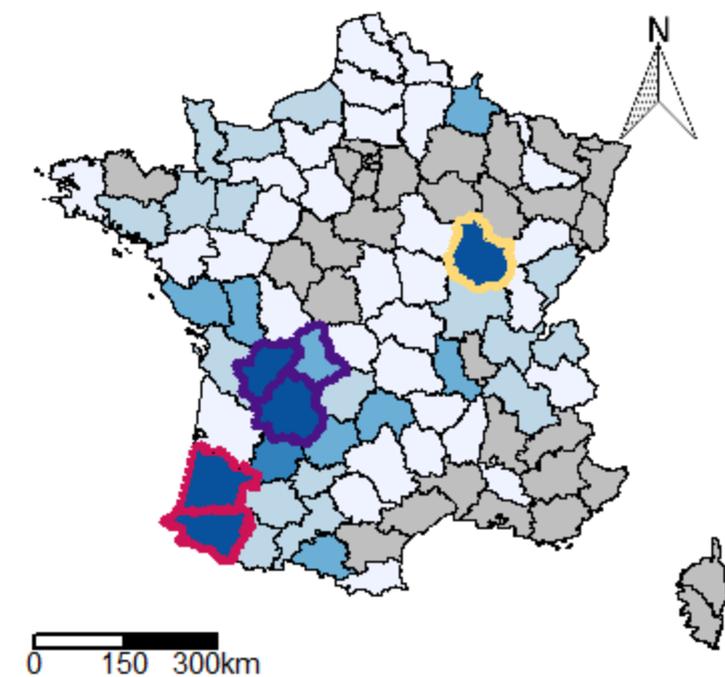
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A

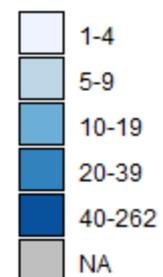


B

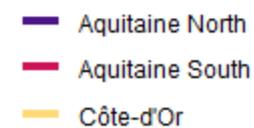


**A**

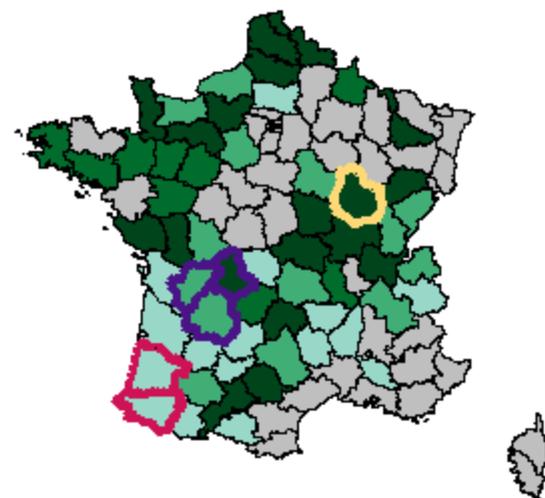
bTB detections



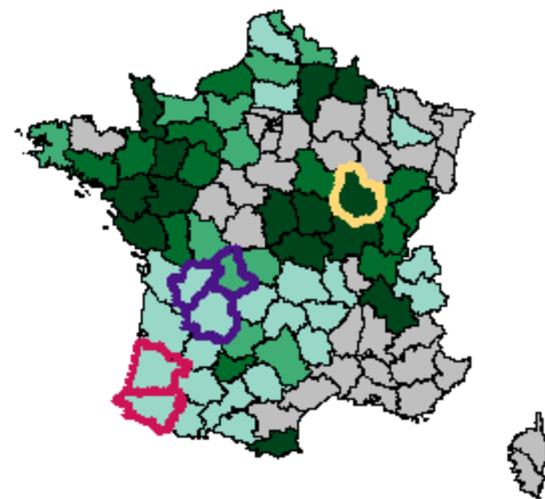
Region

**B**

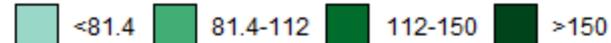
Case farms

**C**

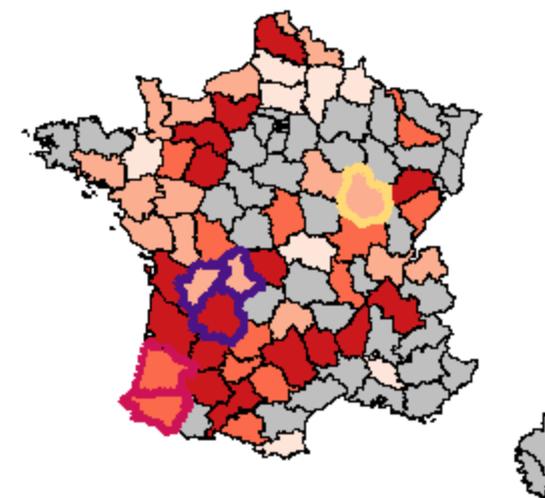
Control farms



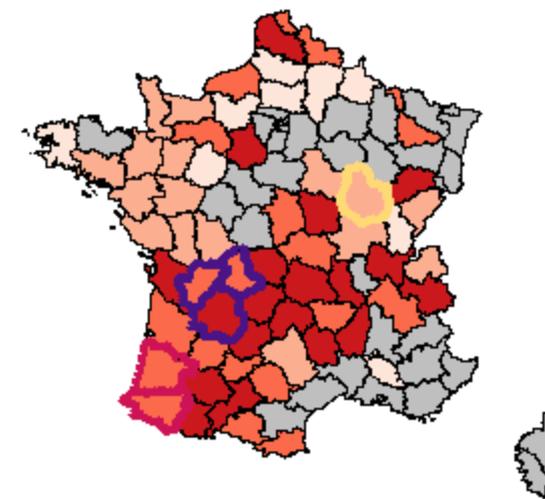
Average weekly number of cattle

**D**

Case farms

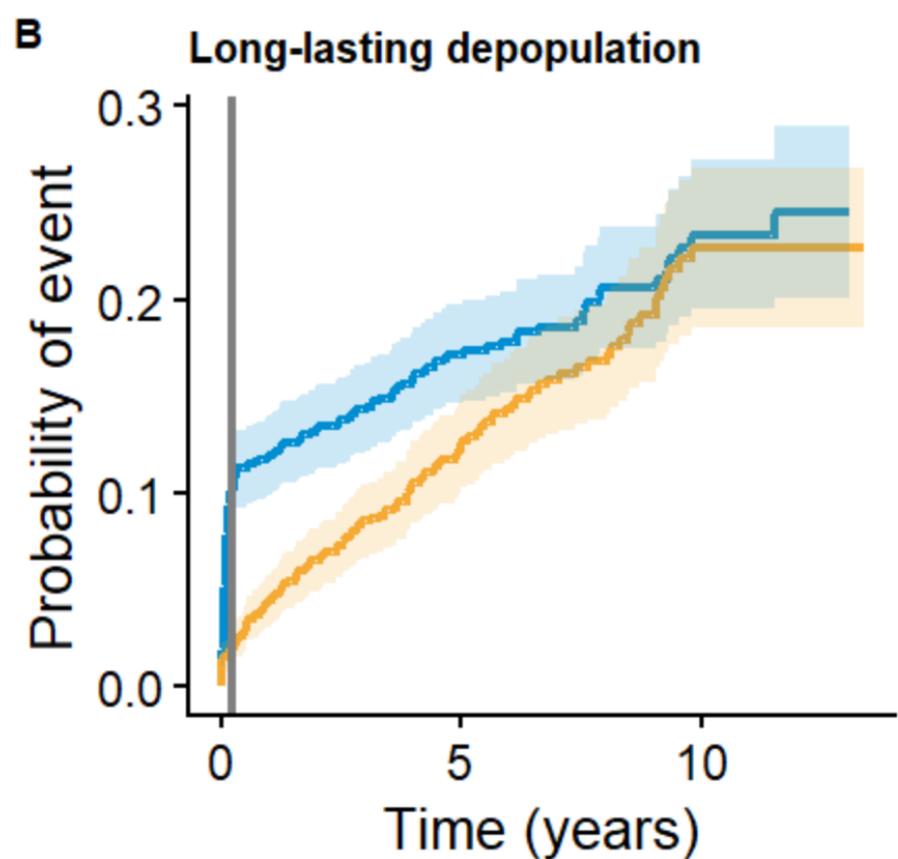
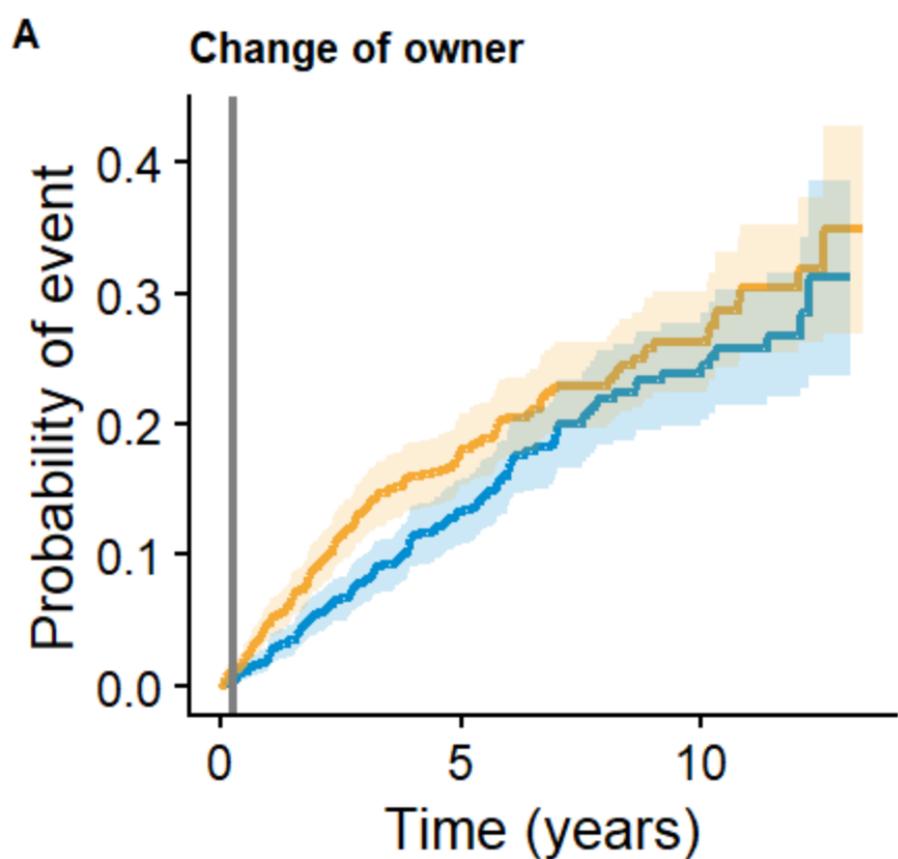
**E**

Control farms



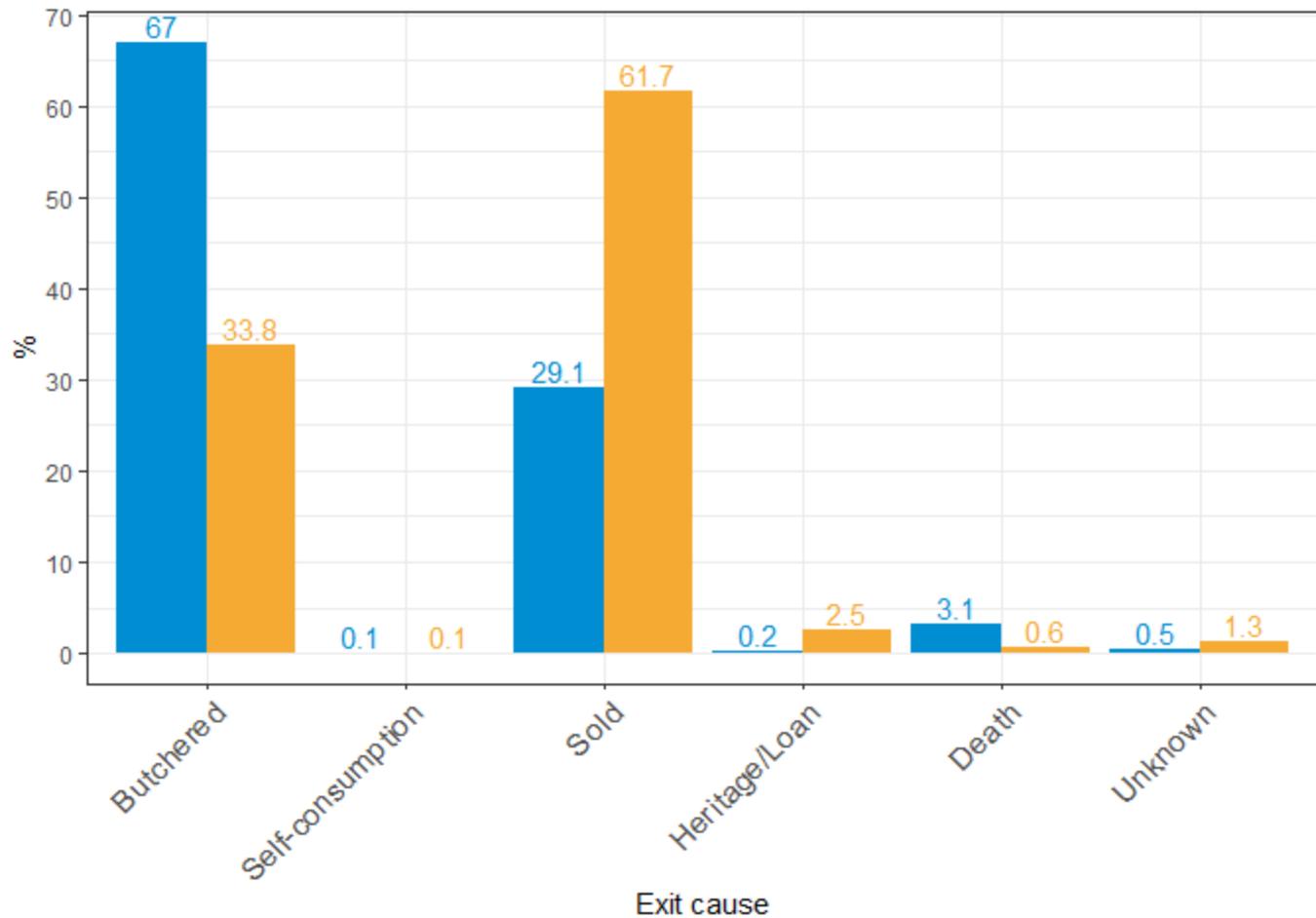
Natural person (%)

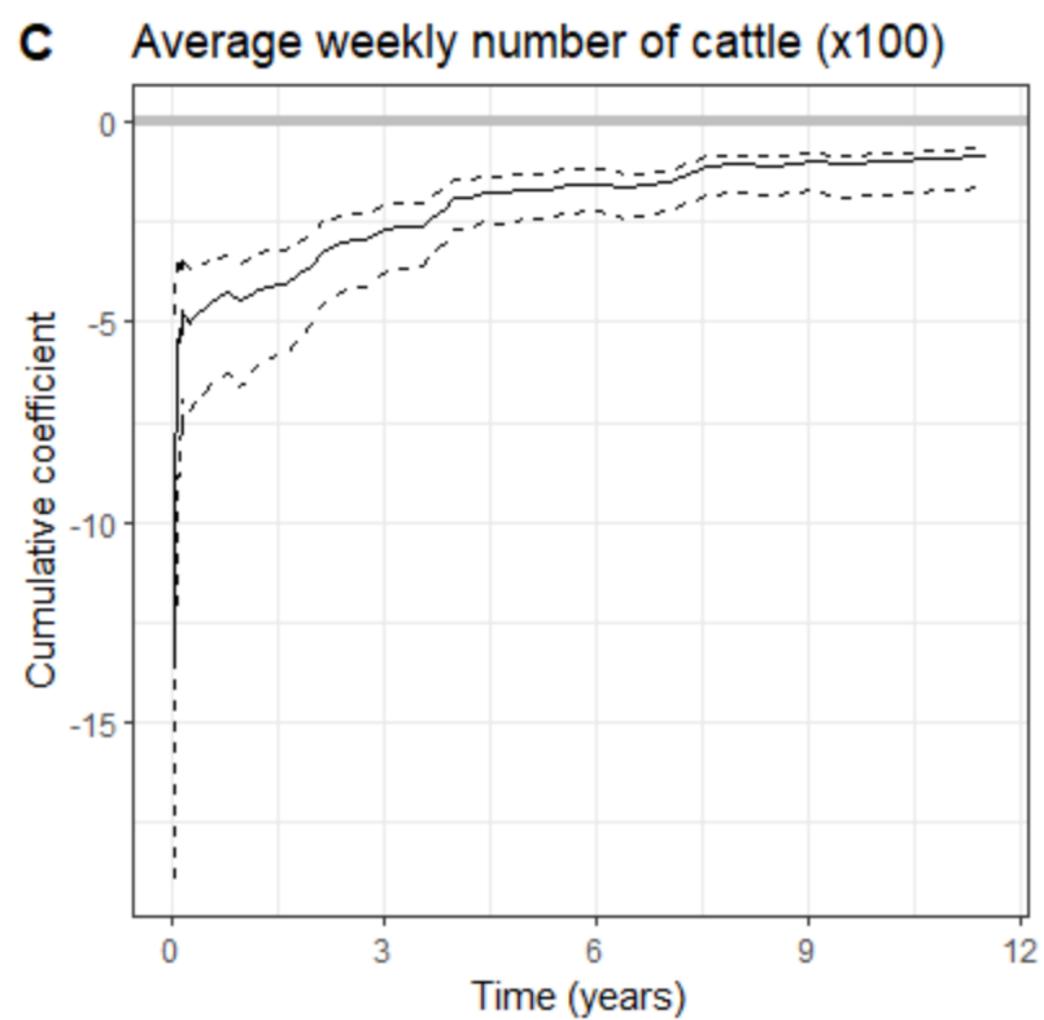
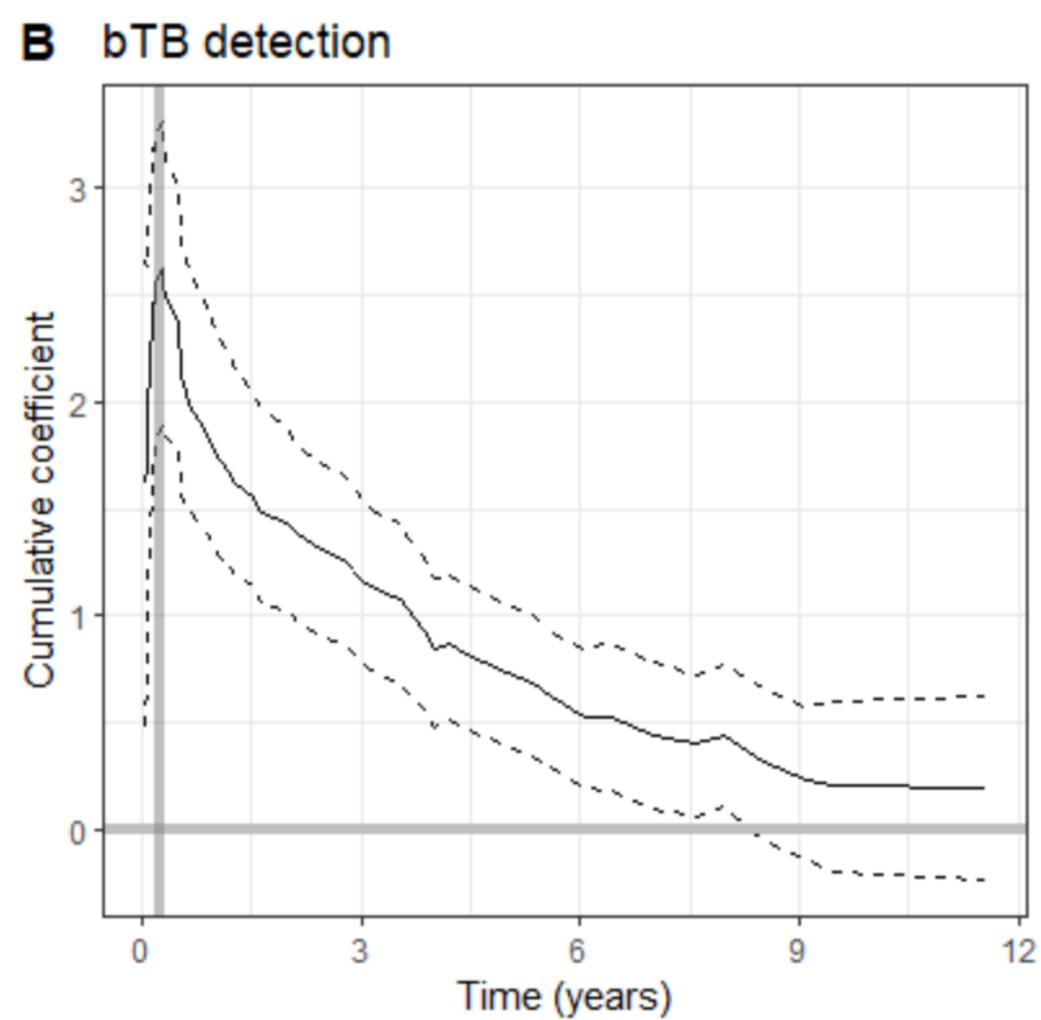
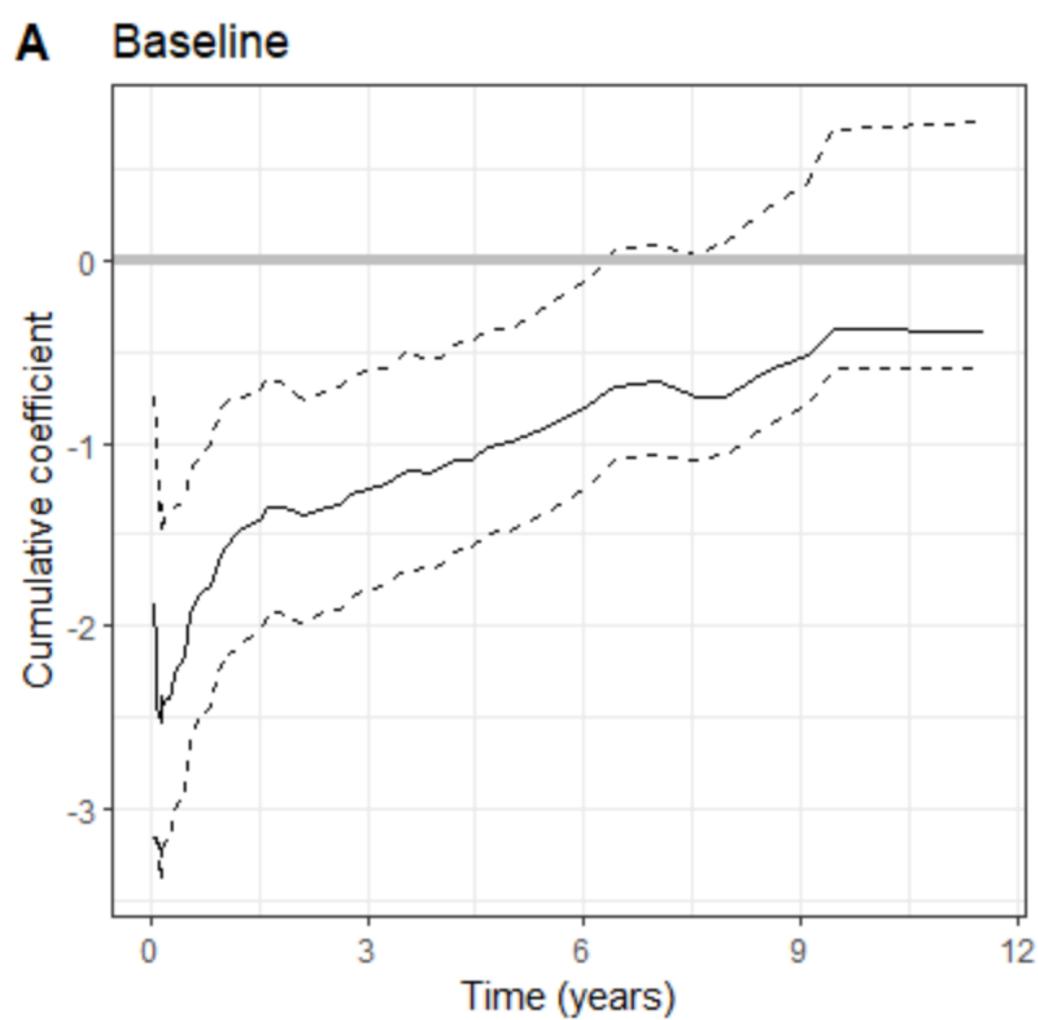


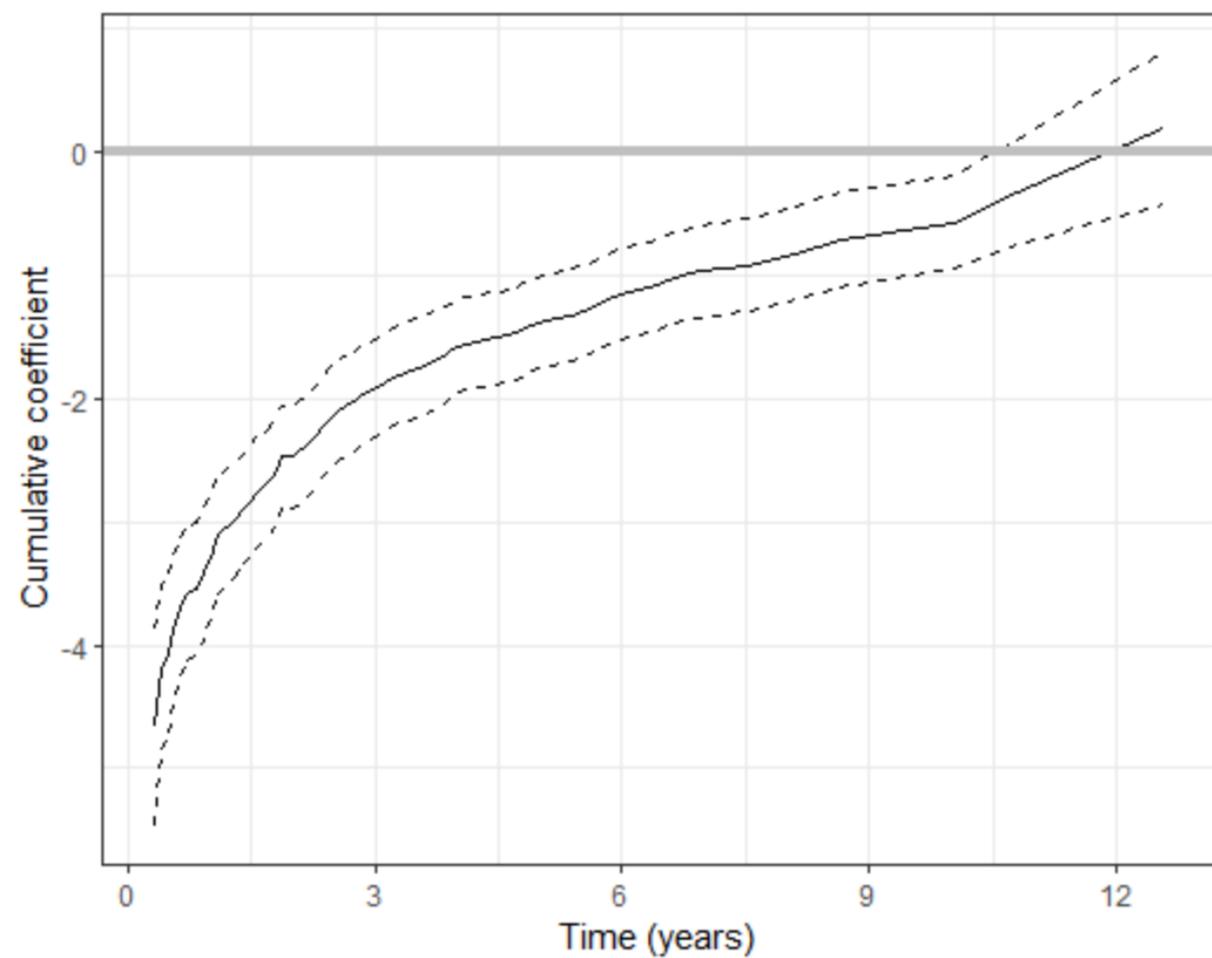
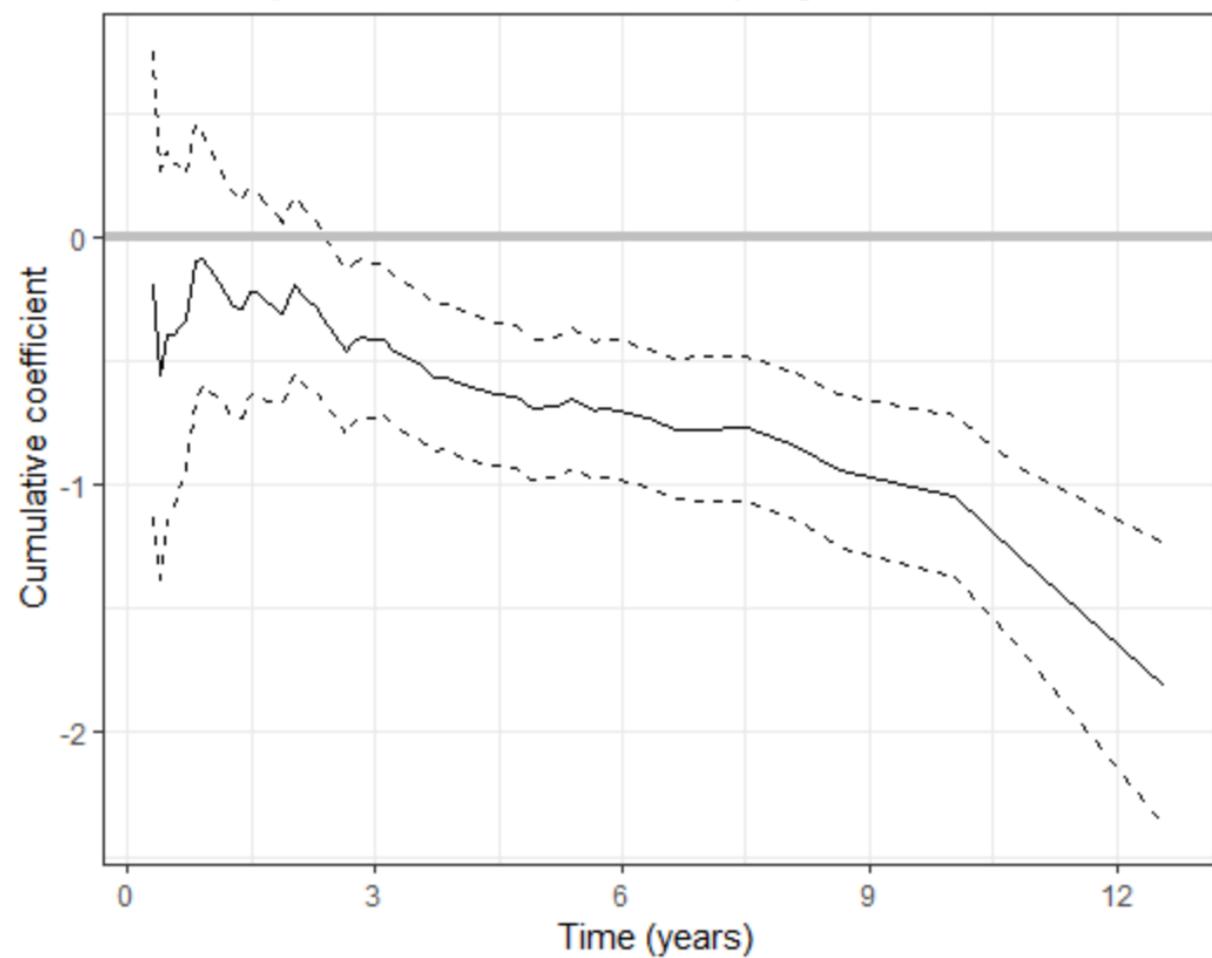


Groups — Case farms — Control farms

Groups Case farms Control farms





**A** Baseline**B** Possibility of test-and-cull control program

**Table 1. Comparison of baseline characteristics of case farms (with bTB detection) and control farm (without bTB detection).** P-values were computed using paired Wilcoxon test for continuous variables, McNemar's chi-squared test for 2-categories covariates, Cochran's Q test for >2-categories covariates.

variable		Case farms N=962	Control farms N=962	p-value
Owner's legal status - Natural person: N (%)		501 (52.1%)	562 (58.4%)	0.002
Average number of cattle /week: median [2.5 <sup>th</sup> ; 97.5 <sup>th</sup> percentile]		88.5 [11.2;308.3]	62.0 [7.7;268.7]	<0.001
First closure event: N (%)	Long-lasting depopulation (> 12 months)	169 (17.6%)	130 (13.5%)	0.626
	Owner change	143 (14.9%)	179 (18.6%)	
	No change	650 (67.5%)	653 (67.9%)	

**Table 2. Semi-parametric additive competing risk models estimates for the risk of farm closure caused by a change of owner and by a long-lasting depopulation (> 12 months).** 95% CI stands for 95% confidence interval; SHR stands for subdistribution hazard ratio and is computed only for covariates with non-significant constant effect test. When the test for constant effect is significant (Cramer von Mises test), the non-parametric effect of the covariate is tested for significance but not estimated as noted by “-“. Ref stands for reference level. \* average weekly number of cattle: mean of weekly count of every cattle during the year preceding the bTB detection (or corresponding time for the matched control farm). Use of a test-and-cull control program became possible in 2014 or in 2008 in *départements* Dordogne (in Aquitaine North) and Côte-d’Or

Covariate	Semi-parametric model SHR [95% CI] (p)	
	Long-lasting depopulation (>12 months)	Owner change
Intercept	- (0.002)	- (<0.001)
bTB detection (ref : No)	- (<0.001)	0.704 [0.538 ; 0.922] (0.011)
Legal status: natural person (ref: legal person)	1.66[1.13 ; 2.44] (0.010)	1.07 [0.785 ; 1. 45] (0.677)
Average weekly number of cattle (x100)*	- (0.002)	1.19 [1.04 ; 1.36] (0.009)
Possibility of test-and-cull control program (ref: No)	0.414 [0.301 ; 0.569] (<0.001)	- (<0.001)