1 **Quantifying key parameters of environmental transmission and age-specific**

2 **susceptibility for *Mycobacterium avium* subspecies *paratuberculosis (MAP)***

Yuqi Gao[1,2], Piter Bijma[2], Mart C.M. de Jong[1]

[1] Infectious Disease Epidemiology Group, Department of Animal Sciences,

Wageningen University and Research, Wageningen, Netherlands

[2] Animal Breeding and Genomics Group, Department of Animal Sciences,

Wageningen University and Research, Wageningen, Netherlands

* Corresponding author

E-mail: yuqi.gao@wur.nl (YG)

These authors contributed equally to this work.

Abstract

Paratuberculosis is a chronic disease in ruminants, caused by *Mycobacterium avium*

subspecies paratuberculosis (*MAP*). This research aims to improve the

understanding of transmission dynamics on both exposure and susceptibility—

factors influenced by the shedders and the recipients, respectively. We present an

age-specific dose-response model, where the decrease in recipient's susceptibility

with age is quantified by a specific rate, and an environmental transmission model,

where exposure from shedders is quantified by transmission rate parameters and the

MAP decay rate in the environment. Parameters of both models were estimated

based on published experiments. The age-specific susceptibility decrease rate was

calculated to be 0.0629 wk⁻¹. In the transmission model, two sub-models apply

different standardization schemes for transiently infectious (Itr), low shedding (Il),

high shedding (Ih): Model A standardized shedding rate at 2.29 wk⁻¹ and varied

transmission rates across states ($\widehat{\beta_{Itr}}$: 0.0469 wk⁻¹, $\widehat{\beta_{Il}}$: 0.0272 wk⁻¹ and $\widehat{\beta_{Ih}}$: 0.329

wk⁻¹). Model B varied shedding rates across infectious states ($\widehat{sh_{Itr}}$: 2.29 wk⁻¹, $\widehat{sh_{Il}}$:

1.33 wk⁻¹, and $\widehat{sh_{Ih}}$: 16.1 wk⁻¹) while keeping the transmission rate constant at

0.0469 wk⁻¹. In both models, the *MAP* decay rate was estimated at 0.424 wk⁻¹.

Then, a scenario study was done, focusing on understanding: changes in

environmental contamination levels over time, the timing of exposure, the duration of

exposure, and the recipient's age at exposure. Our findings enhance understanding

of *MAP* transmission dynamics and support the development of future models that

incorporate real-world complexities and interventions. The 95% confidence intervals

for all estimates can be found in the main text.

Author Summary

Mycobacterium avium subspecies *paratuberculosis* (*MAP*) causes paratuberculosis

(Johne's disease), a global concern in dairy farming that results in reduced milk

production, health issues in cattle, and potential risk for food safety. In this study, we

aimed to improve our understanding of MAP's environmental transmission dynamics,

including its build-up, decay, and transmission (via environmental exposure). We

explored how the timing, duration of exposure, and recipient age affect infection

probabilities. Our analysis of previous experimental data revealed that susceptibility

to infection decreases at a specific rate as animals age. We also assess how the

decay of MAP and shedding from three types of infectious animals contributes to

contamination. Our findings provide new insights into the transmission dynamics of

MAP and offer refined estimates of age-specific susceptibility decrease rate, three

MAP shedding rates, three transmission rates and MAP natural decay rate. We hope

this research can inform more effective control strategies, particularly those aimed at

protecting younger animals and reducing environmental contamination.

Introduction

Paratuberculosis, caused by *Mycobacterium avium subspecies paratuberculosis* (*MAP*), is a chronic disease affecting ruminants (1). The disease is known for its long incubation period, inadequate diagnostic tests (especially for early stages), limited vaccination effect, and long survival in the environment, all of which alone or in combination could be the reason why *MAP* is difficult to control and eradicate(2-7). *MAP* can be transmitted horizontally via contaminated milk or faeces and vertically from dam to offspring (8, 9). A major obstacle in eradicating *MAP* is its environmental transmission, where contaminated environments can cause infections even in the absence of infectious individuals at that location and time.

Understanding environmental transmission is crucial for *MAP* dynamics; therefore, we applied an advanced mathematical model developed by Chang and De Jong (10) to study it. This model, which has proven effective for various diseases (10-13), was not yet used for *MAP*. The model incorporates three key parameters: shedding rate, decay rate, and transmission rate. Additionally, if spatial spread is considered, a fourth parameter, the diffusion rate, is necessary (12). For *MAP*, spatial transmission was simplified by considering three different environments on a dairy farm: the calving house, calf collective pen, and lactating cow stable. This research focuses on estimating the decay and transmission rate parameters, differentiated for individuals at various infectious states, following the approach of Chang and De Jong (10). The model assumes that once *MAP* is introduced into a clean environment, it is shed at a specific rate and exponentially decays over time based on its natural decay rate. The cumulative exposure is determined by integrating environmental contamination levels. Besides, this model accounts for transmission both with and without infectious

individuals present. For example, aerosol transmission can be modelled as rapid

pathogen decay in airborne droplets, while milk transmission can be modelled as

minimal decay with immediate exposure. This research aims to estimate all

necessary transmission parameters to support the application of this model to *MAP*.

Accurate assessment of infection risk in *MAP* requires a thorough understanding of

age-specific susceptibility. Newborns, probably because of their heightened intestinal

permeability, are particularly vulnerable to *MAP* during the first 24 hours of life (14,

15). Susceptibility decreases with age, with cows generally considered susceptible

only during their first year of life (16). However, infections in adult cows have been

observed, but only when exposed to very high levels of *MAP*, such as through oral

dosing of 3×10^{10} organisms or housing with 15 high shedders for 4 years (14, 17).

The commonly used exponential model for age-specific susceptibility assumes a

decrease rate of 0.1 wk⁻¹ (16, 18-20). However, this rate is a broad estimate and

could possibly be improved. This research addresses this gap by developing an age-

specific dose-response model and estimating the susceptibility decrease rate

parameter using data from fourteen inoculation experiments that include age at

exposure. The study aims to more accurately capture how susceptibility to *MAP*

varies with age and dose, and to enhance the precision of infection risk calculation.

This research will develop both an age-specific dose-response model and a

stochastic environmental transmission model to estimate transmission rate

parameters and their 95% confidence interval (95%CI) based on fourteen dose-

response experiments and two transmission experiments. The parameters include

susceptibility decrease rate (g), median infective dose (ID_{50}), transmission rate (β or

β_{state}), shedding rate (sh_{state} or sh), *MAP* decay rate in the environment (de), where

$state$ is either transiently infectious (Itr), low shedding (Il) or high shedding (Ih).

This classification of shedding patterns is consistent with the observed shedding

patterns from transmission experiments. With the model we will then explore four

scenarios: changes in contamination levels over time, timing and duration of

exposure, and the recipient's age at exposure.

Results

Age-specific susceptibility decrease rate

The dose-response model was used to estimate infectious Dose 50 (ID_{50}) and age-

specific decrease rate (g) values from *MAP* inoculation experiments in calves of

different ages. The fit of non-linear model, based on an exponential distribution,

results an ID_{50} estimate and its 95%CI of 2.75×10^6 (1.42×10^6, 4.08×10^6) CFU, and

a g estimate and its 95%CI of 0.0629 (0.0446, 0.0811) wk⁻¹. The model's dose

response curve (Fig. 1), which describes the probability of observing a new case in

the inoculation experiments, is as follows:

$$p(dose, age) = 1 - e^{-\left(rS(age)\times\frac{\ln(2)}{2.75\times10^6}\right)\times\,dose}$$

Fig 1. Dose-Response Curves Based on Experimental Data Sets. Experimental

data, categorized by age, are represented by coloured dots. The predicted dose

response curves for each age groups are shown as solid, coloured lines, with

shaded areas representing the 95% confidence intervals.

Relatively susceptibility ($rS(age)$) decreases exponentially with age at a rate of

0.0629 wk⁻¹ and the average susceptibility ($\overline{rS}(age_i, age_i + \tau)$) within age range

$(age_i, age_i + \tau)$ is quantified by integrating the continuous $rS(age)$ function and

diving it by the interval length. Equations are as follow:

$$rS(age) = e^{-0.0629 \times age}$$

$$\overline{rS}(age_i, age_i + \tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{age_i}^{age_i + \tau} e^{-0.0629 \times \alpha} d\alpha$$

As shown in Fig. 2, our model estimates a significant slower decrease rate in

susceptibility with age compared to the previously published rate of 0.1. This

suggests that infection probabilities for older cows have been underestimated.

Fig. 2. Comparison of Susceptibility Decrease with Age. The solid line and

shaded region represent the relative susceptibility decrease ($rS(age)$) with age

based on our model-estimated rate (g = 0.0629) and its 95% confidence interval.

The dashed line shows the relative susceptibility decrease using the previously

published rate (g = 0.1).

Transmission parameters estimation

The environmental transmission model parameters were estimated from

experimental calf-to-calf and cow-to-calf transmission data using maximum likelihood

estimation. These included the decay rate estimate for *MAP* in the environment ($\widehat{de}$);

transmission rate parameter estimates, which were state-specific ($\widehat{\beta_{Itr}}, \widehat{\beta_{Il}}, \widehat{\beta_{Ih}}$) in

Model A, and constant ($\hat{\beta}$) in Model B; and shedding rate estimates, which were

constant ($\widehat{sh}$) in Model A, and state-specific ($\widehat{sh_{Itr}}, \widehat{sh_{Il}}, \widehat{sh_{Ih}}$) in Model B. In both

models, the reference infectious state is Itr, which means that the constant $\widehat{sh}$ in

model A is equivalent to $\widehat{sh_{Itr}}$ in model B, and the constant $\hat{\beta}$ in model B is equivalent

to $\widehat{\beta_{Itr}}$ in model A. This is defined according to the model's unit structure, as the unit

of $E_{state}(t)$ is standardized based on exposure levels. Specifically, in a clean

environment, the exposure from a single infectious individual in the Itr state over

one week is set to one unit, such that $\int_0^1 E_{Itr}(t) = 1$. Profile likelihood visualizations

for each parameter are shown in Fig 3, with detailed results in Table 2.

Fig 3. Profile-Likelihood Plots for Shedding, Transmission, and Decay Rate

Parameters. The first row represents results from Model A, where shedding remains

constant across all infectious states (is not shown, but equivalent to sh_{Itr} as Itr is

the reference infectious state), with differences reflected in the transmission rate

parameters (β_{Itr}, β_{Il}, β_{Ih}). The second row represents results from Model B, where

variations are reflected in shedding rate parameters (sh_{Itr}, sh_{Il}, sh_{Ih}), while

transmission rate remains constant (is not shown, but equivalent to β_{Itr} as Itr is the

reference infectious state). In both models, the decay of MAP in the environment

(de) is independent of infectious states and remains constant. The best estimate for

each parameter corresponds to the lowest AIC value, marked by a red star. The solid

dots represent the critical values for the 95% confidence interval, which is defined by

minimum AIC+2 (the dashed line).

Table 2. Profile Likelihood Estimates and 95% Confidence Intervals for Transmission, Shedding, and Decay Rate Parameters in Model A and B (Units: wk⁻¹)

	Transmission Rate Parameter Estimates ($\hat{\beta}$)			Shedding Rate Parameter Estimates ($\widehat{sh}$)			Decay Rate Parameter Estimates ($\widehat{de}$)
	$\widehat{\beta_{Itr}}$	$\widehat{\beta_{Il}}$	$\widehat{\beta_{Ih}}$	$\widehat{sh_{Itr}}$	$\widehat{sh_{Il}}$	$\widehat{sh_{Ih}}$	
Model A	0.0469 (0.0141, 0.111)	0.0272 (0,0.134)	0.329 (0.178, 0.536)	2.29 (2.02, 4.29)			0.424 (0.0260, 2.89)
Model B	0.0469 (0.0141, 0.111)			2.29 (2.02, 4.29)	1.33 (0, 6.55)	16.1 (8.70, 26.22)	

Model fit evaluation

Model fit is assessed by comparing predicted infection probabilities with actual

experimental observations. During Experiment A1, 3 high shedders and 3 low

shedders were observed; during Experiment A2, 4 transient shedders were present.

During Experiment B1, 1 high shedder, 3 low shedders, and 2 non-infected cows

were observed, while during Experiment B2, no infectious individuals were observed.

As detailed in the Materials & Methods section, in Experiments A1 and B1, 6 cows

were housed in individual pens, with 5 recipient calves placed between each pair of

cows, and calves' positions were randomly switched every two weeks. For simplicity,

this setup was treated as a "pairwise" experiment, where one cow and one calf are

paired. As there was no specific information regarding the location of cows and

calves in the experiment A1 or B1, the infectivity of the shedder in each pair was

considered as the average across all 6 infected cows. In experiments A2 and B2, five

shedders and five recipient calves were placed in the same pen, allowing for

unrestricted contact between all animals. Based on the amount and infectious state

of individuals in each experiment, the environmental contamination levels ($E_{state}(t)$),

population force of infection ($\lambda tot_{0,t}$), total recipient susceptibility($RS_{0,t}$), and infection

probabilities($p_{0,t}$) were calculated according to Equations 3, 6–8.

As shown in Fig 4, the curve and shaded area (left axis) represent the predicted

infection probabilities over time (0, t), while the bar plot (right axis) displays the

observed data from the experiments. The visualization indicates a good fit of the

model, as the predictions aligns with the observed data, demonstrating that the

model effectively captures the dynamics of infection transmission. Besides, the total

infection probabilities over the whole experiment duration and the predicted number

of infections were calculated. The predicted overall infection probabilities for

experiment A1, A2, B1, B2 are 96.2%, 42.4%, 71.7%, 0.00%. As there are five

recipients in each experiment, the expected number of new infections is calculated to

be 4.81, 2.12, 3.58, 0.00 respectively, while 5, 2, 4, 0 infections were observed.

Therefore, it can be concluded that our model has quite good model fit. Additionally,

to verify the estimated $\widehat{de}$, we compare it with culture-based data on *MAP* viability in

cattle excretions. For instance, in faecal pellet samples collected from partially

shaded pasture at 10-22℃, the decay rate was estimated to be 0.461 wk⁻¹. Similarly,

in cattle slurry under temperatures of 5℃ and 15℃, the decay rates were 0.353 wk⁻¹

and 0.908 wk⁻¹, respectively. These values provide a range for comparison with the

model's predictions(7, 14, 21-27). Further details can be found in S1 File.

Fig 4. Comparison of Predicted Accumulative Infection Probabilities with

Experimental Observations. The four plots show parallel cow-to-calf experiments

(A1 & B1) and parallel calf-to-calf experiments (A2 & B2). The solid curve and

shaded area represent the predicted accumulative infection probabilities their 95%

confidence interval from start of experiments(t=0) to time t. The blue bars indicate

the number of newly infected individuals observed in the experiments. The x-axis

denotes time in weeks, with the left y-axis showing infection probability and the right

y-axis showing the number of susceptible and infected individuals.

Scenario study

A scenario study was conducted to simulate changes in $E_{state}(t)$ over contamination duration and to evaluate the effects of exposure timing, duration, and the recipient's age on infection probability. Fig 5 and 6 present results of the scenario study. In Scenario 1, $E_{state}(t)$, $\lambda_{state}(t)$, and t_{eq} were calculated for environments with the presence of an infectious individual in states Itr, Il or Ih. As shown in Fig 5, environmental contamination levels rapidly increase and then stabilize at equilibrium in both model A and B. The time (teq) to reach 99% of the environmental contamination equilibrium level was calculated to be 10.8 weeks for all infectious states in both Model A and Model B. As described in 2.4, eq can be set to any time point after equilibrium, so was assumed to be 60 weeks in later analysis. Despite the difference in $E_{state}(t)$, both models result in the same $\lambda_{state}(t)$ (Fig 6, Scenario 1). At equilibrium, Ih has the highest $\lambda_{Ih}(t_{eq})$ value at 1.77 (0.959, 2.89) wk⁻¹, while Il and Itr had similar values of 0.147 (0, 0.723) wk⁻¹ and 0.253 (0.076, 0.596) wk⁻¹, respectively.

Scenario 2 assessed the infection probability for exposing a fully susceptible individual to the previously defined three types of environments for 1 week, with the variable being the timing of exposure x. As shown in Fig 6-Scenario 2, the infection probabilities firstly increased and then stabilized at 21.7% (7.1% to 44.2%) for Itr, 13.3% (0% to 50.7%) for Il, and 82.1% (60.2% to 94.1%) for Ih. In Scenario 3, extending the exposure time y results in a rapid increase in infection probabilities. For Ih, the infection probability approaches 100% after approximately 3.31 weeks (to two decimal places). However, for Itr and Il, the probabilities do not reach 100% due to the decreasing susceptibility over age/time but still reach 89.4% and 97.9%

respectively by the end of 52 weeks. In Scenario 4, infection probabilities decrease

with age z. By the end of calfhood (52 weeks old), the probabilities and their 95%

confidence intervals are: 0.928% (0.108% to 5.56%) for Itr, 0.540% (0% to 6.70%)

for Il, 6.33% (1.35% to 2.42%) for Ih.

Fig 5. Changes in $E_{state}(t)$ over time while there is one Infectious individual in

states Itr, Il or Ih: In Model A (left), infectious individuals in different states have

the same shedding rate, while in Model B (right), $E_{state}(t)$ increases at different rates

due to varying shedding rates among infectious states. The natural decay rate of

MAP is constant in both models.

Fig 6. Results of the scenario study: (1) Changes of force of infection rate per

individual ($\lambda_{state}(t)$) over time with the presence of one infectious individual at Itr, Il

or Ih states; (2) Predicted infection probabilities for a fully susceptible individual

exposed to the contaminated environment at time x (for $x \in$[0,52]) after the start of

contamination (x=0), with each exposure lasting for a 1-week interval; (3) Predicted

infection probabilities for a fully susceptible individual exposed to the contaminated

environment at equilibrium, across varying exposure durations y (for $y \in$[0,52]); (4)

Predicted probabilities of infection for susceptible individuals of age z (for $z \in$[0,52])

exposed to the contaminated environment at equilibrium 1, over a 1-week exposure

interval. In all four results, solid, dashed, and dotted lines represent the infectious

individual at states Itr, Il, and Ih, respectively. The shaded areas represent the

corresponding 95% confidence intervals, calculated based on the 95% confidence

intervals of transmission rate parameters and the age-specific susceptibility

decrease rate.

This research aims to improve understanding of *MAP* transmission dynamics

through a novel mathematical model, which has not been previously applied to *MAP*.

While comparisons with earlier studies are insightful, differences in transmission

mechanism assumptions do complicate direct comparisons. However, the force of

infection rates and infection probabilities can still be helpful for evaluating our

findings alongside previous research. Therefore, we used a different and commonly

used dose-response transmission model (19) and the parameters relevant to that

model to replicate the model fit evaluation and scenario analyse. Both models fit the

cow-to-calf experimental observations reasonably well; however, a significant

difference is noticed in calf-to-calf transmission. The predicted number of new cases

over the entire period of experiments A1, A2, B1, and B2, based on another model

constructed according to previously published model(19), were 5.00, 0.00, 3.98, and

0.00, respectively. These predictions are different in that they model that there is no

calf-to-calf transmission whereas the observed values were 5, 2, 4, and 0,

respectively. Detailed model descriptions, results, and discussions are provided in S2

File.

Discussion

The aims of this research were: firstly, to develop an age-specific dose-response

model to study changes in recipient susceptibility over age; secondly, to construct an

environmental transmission model to quantify the parameters for the transmission

dynamics of *MAP*, i.e. estimate the shedding rate parameter, transmission rate

parameter and *MAP* decay rate parameter. A scenario study followed, focusing on

four objectives: changes in contamination levels over time, the timing of exposure,

the duration of exposure, and the recipient's age. Maximum likelihood estimation was

applied to achieve the best estimates, and model fit was assessed. Additional

details, including a summary of original exposure data from published experiments,

culture-based data on *MAP* viability in cattle excretions, and comparisons with

transmission parameters from previous research, are provided in the S1 Data.

Research has suggested that calf-to-calf transmission may be underestimated (28-

31). In this study, we identified that this underestimation could be partly due to the

use of a rounded value of 0.1 for the age-specific susceptibility decrease rate. Based

on the exposure data of fourteen experiments, we estimated a decrease rate

parameter of 0.0629 wk⁻¹ (95% CI: 0.0446, 0.0811 wk⁻¹). As shown in Fig. 2, starting

from a standardized average susceptibility of 1 for newborns, this value declines to

0.5 after 11 weeks and further drops to 0.0380 by 52 weeks of age. In contrast, the

commonly used rate of 0.1 wk⁻¹ results in susceptibility dropping to 0.5 at 6.93

weeks and to 0.00552 by 52 weeks. This suggests that if a 52-week-old calf is

exposed to a stabilized contaminated environment from Ih for one week, the

expected infection probability would be 0.927%, which is significantly lower than our

estimate of 6.33% (with a 95% CI of 1.35% to 24.2%). Our prediction aligns more

closely with observations of new infections in heifers and older calves (Mortier et al.,

2013; Payne & Rankin, 1961a), and could therefore improve the evaluation of calf-to-

calf transmission and inform more effective interventions.

Transmission parameters were estimated using data from cow-to-calf and calf-to-calf

transmission experiments. The study applied two models—Model A and B—to

capture variations across different infectious states (Itr, Il, Ih) in *MAP* transmission.

In Model A, the shedding rate was standardized at 2.29 (95% CI: 2.02, 4.29) wk⁻¹,

with variations attributed to transmission rate parameters: $\widehat{\beta_{Itr}}$ at 0.0469 (95% CI:

0.0141, 0.111) wk⁻¹, $\widehat{\beta_{Il}}$ at 0.0272 (95% CI: 0, 0.134) wk⁻¹, and $\widehat{\beta_{Ih}}$ at 0.329 (95% CI:

0.178, 0.536) wk⁻¹. Model B varied shedding rates across infectious states: $\widehat{sh_{Itr}}$ at

2.29 (95% CI: 2.02, 4.29) wk⁻¹, $\widehat{sh_{Il}}$ at 1.33 (95% CI: 0, 6.55) wk⁻¹, and $\widehat{sh_{Ih}}$ at 16.1

(95% CI: 8.70, 26.22) wk⁻¹, while maintaining a constant transmission rate parameter

at 0.0469 (95% CI: 0.0141, 0.111) wk⁻¹. In both models, the decay rate of *MAP* in the

environment was the same, which was estimated at 0.424 (95% CI: 0.0260, 2.89)

wk⁻¹. As shown in S1 File, the decay rate parameter is consistent with published

decay rates observed in cattle farm environments, particularly with cattle faeces.

To interpret the estimates, a scenario study was conducted. The results indicate that

MAP accumulates quickly in the environment and takes approximately 10.8 weeks to

reach 99% of its equilibrium value. At equilibrium, the highest $E_{state}(t)$ is associated

with Ih, followed by Itr and Il, though the difference between the latter two is much

smaller. However, Il exhibits a larger 95% CI, and more importantly, Il could pose a

greater overall hazard due to its longer shedding period (32). Besides, the scenario 3

shows that the exposure duration greatly affects infection probability, assuming

exposing a fully susceptible recipient in a stabilized contaminated environment, the

infection probabilities reach 100% for Ih after 3.31 weeks, 89.4% for Il after 52

weeks and 97.9% for Itr after 52 weeks. The probabilities for Itr and Il didn't reach

1 because increasing exposure duration also means the recipient's age increases,

leading to a decrease in relative susceptibility.

A limitation of the current study is the absence of a dedicated environmental

transmission experiment—specifically, one that introduces susceptible individuals

into a contaminated environment without the presence of infectious individuals.

Conducting such an experiment in the future could improve the accuracy of

parameter estimation. Besides, the application of the estimated parameters in real

farm models is more complex than in controlled lab experiments. On farms, a larger

number of infected and susceptible animals at varying states and ages are involved,

alongside continuous contamination processes, limited diagnostic capabilities, and

more challenging hygiene management due to larger spaces. Next, multiple

interventions are widely applied, further complicating quantifying the transmission

dynamics. Future research should develop a continuous-time, age-structured

compartmental stochastic model that simulates *MAP* transmission at the farm level.

Although several simulation models already exist, the refined transmission

parameter estimates from this research have the potential to enhance simulation

accuracy and improve overall reliability. Such a model would incorporate factors like

age cohorts, animal grouping and movement, farm management, environmental

contamination, and real-world interventions.

Materials and Methods

Age-specific susceptibility decrease rate

Literature search was conducted focusing on *MAP* inoculation experiments

performed on calves with different age groups. Data were collected from

experiments that provided detailed information, including inoculation dose, bacterial

strain, number of experimental animals, age at inoculation, inoculation methods,

diagnostic methods, and binary results (infected/not infected) (2, 3, 33-47). The initial

susceptibility of new-borns is standardized to be 1 ($rS(0)$=1) and it decreases

exponentially with age at a rate of g. ID_{50} is defined as the dose at which a newborn

calf, when exposed, would have a 50% probability of becoming infected. To estimate

g and ID_{50}, we constructed an age-specific dose-response model to calculate

relative susceptibility ($rS(age)$), based on exponential distribution (Equation 1). The

maximum likelihood method is applied on a stochastic model with the number of new

infections following a binomial distribution, with S trials and a dose/age dependent

infection probability $p(dose, age)$ (Equation 2). In the model, g is regarded as an

adjustment factor influencing ID_{50}, which implies that older individuals necessitate a

higher dose of *MAP* to attain a 50% chance of infection compared to younger

individuals.

$$rS(age) = e^{-g \times age} \tag{1}$$

$$p(dose, age) = 1 - e^{-\left(rS(age) \times \frac{\ln(2)}{ID_{50}}\right) \times dose} \tag{2}$$

399   Besides, to calculate the infection probability over an exposure period, where the

400   age increases simultaneously over time, the average relative susceptibility can be

401   calculated as $\overline{rS}(age_i, age_i + \tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{age_i}^{age_i + \tau} rS(\alpha) d\alpha$. This calculation provides the

402   mean susceptibility over the time interval $(i, i + \tau)$, accounting for how susceptibility

403   changes as the individual ages from age_i to $age_i + \tau$.

Transmission rate parameters

MAP experimental transmission data were obtained from experiments conducted by

van Roermund et al. (48), which involved 12 cows and 20 calves, and aimed to

replicate real-world cow-to-calf and calf-to-calf transmission scenarios. In the initial

phase of the experiment, five 1-week-old naive calves were placed between each

pair of six inoculated adult cows in a row. The positions of calves were altered

randomly every two weeks over the period of the three-month experiment, ensuring

each calf was equally exposed to all random pairs of cows beside it. Sampling of all

individuals occurred once every two weeks, using three diagnostic methods, i.e.,

serum ELISA, bacterial culture, and interferon-gamma tests. Cows with at least one

positive result (based on faecal culture) of more than 100 colonies of *MAP* per tube

(0.16 g faeces) during the seven tests were categorized as high shedders (Ih), while

those with at least one positive result or no positive result were categorized as low

shedders (Il) or non-infectious, respectively. This classification was also applied

throughout our modelling.

Subsequently, in the second phase of the experiment, the previously contaminated

five calves (including certain number of transiently infectious calves (Itr)) were

brought into contact with five new 1-week-old naive calves for a period of three

months. Within the calf pen, all 10 calves had unrestricted contact with each other.

Similarly, like before, the three diagnostic methods were conducted once every two

weeks on each calf. The whole experiment was repeated once, i.e., again 6 cows, 5

naïve calves, and these again in contact with 5 additional calves, to verify

consistency and accuracy of the findings. Regular pen cleaning was performed

weekly, without additional disinfection. All calves were fed artificial milk replacer,

eliminating the possibility of transmission through contaminated milk. A summary of

the original data from published experiments is provided in S1 Data.

MAP transmission is modelled here using a stochastic environmental transmission

model (10). According to the model assumptions, the environmental contamination

level ($E_{state}(t)$) is determined by the presence and shedding rate of infectious

individuals at different states (s$tate = Itr$, Il or Ih), as well as the pathogen's decay

rate in the environment (Equation 3).

$$\frac{dE_{state}(t)}{dt} = sh\, I_{state,t} - de\, E_{state}(t) \qquad (3)$$

439   with $E_{state}(0) = 0$

441   By solving Equation 3, $E_{state}(t)$ can be expressed explicitly:

443
$$E_{state}(t + \tau) = \frac{(1 - e^{-de\,\tau})}{de} sh_{state}\, I_{state,t} + e^{-de\,\tau} E_{state}(t) \qquad (4)$$

As described in Section 2.1, in this experimental setup, both the infectious and

susceptible populations are heterogeneous, meaning that the total force of infection

rate (λtot) or the total susceptibility (RS) is the sum of each infectious or susceptible

individual, respectively. And within each observed time interval ($i, i + \tau$), the number

of new infections occur according to a binomial distribution with S_i trials and an

infection probability of:

452
$$p_{i,i+\tau} = 1 - e^{-\frac{\lambda tot_{i,i+\tau} \times RS_{i,i+\tau}}{N_i}} \qquad (5)$$

454   For shedders, the force of infection per individual in a given $state$ at time t, denoted

455   as $\lambda_{state}(t)$, is calculated as $\beta_{state} \times E_{state}(t)$. On a population level, if individuals in

456   the I_i compartment are indexed by m, where $m \in \{1,2 \dots I_i\}$, then the total force of

457   infection $\lambda tot_{i,i+\tau}$ over the time interval ($i, i + \tau$) is:

459
$$\lambda tot_{i,i+\tau} = \sum_{m=1}^{I_i} \left(\int_{i}^{i+\tau} \beta_{state_m} \times E_{state_m}(t)\, dt \right) \qquad (6)$$

461   For recipients, if the susceptibility level is constant across all individuals in the S_i

462   compartment, the total susceptibility is simply the number of susceptible individuals.

463   However, when susceptibility varies with age, the total susceptibility $RS_{i,i+\tau}$ over the

time interval $(i, i + \tau)$ is the sum of susceptibilities for all individuals. Let individuals in S_i be indexed by n, where $n \in \{1,2 \dots S_i\}$, then:

$$RS_{i,i+\tau} = \sum_{n=1}^{S_i} \overline{rS}(age_{n,i}, age_{n,i} + \tau) \tag{7}$$

To express Equation 5 by substituting Equations 6 and 7 into it, the infection probability $(p_{i,i+\tau})$ during time interval $(i, i + \tau)$ equals:

$$p_{i,i+\tau} = 1 - e^{-\frac{\sum_{m=1}^{I_i}\left(\int_i^{i+\tau} \beta_{state_m} \times E_{state_m}(t)dt\right) \times \sum_{n=1}^{S_i} \overline{rS}(age_{n,i},age_{n,i}+\tau)}{N_i}} \tag{8}$$

In this research, model outputs were made weekly ($\tau = 1$ wk) to track the occurrence of new infections, while the underlying model operates in continuous time. The maximum likelihood method is used to fit the model to observed infection events, with the estimates determined at the minimal Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) value. The 95%CIs are determined by adding 2 to the minimum AIC value(49). Equations for maximum likelihood estimate $(\widehat{\mathcal{L}(\theta)})$ and AIC are listed below:

$$\widehat{\mathcal{L}(\theta)} = \max_{\theta} \prod_i \left(1 - p_{i,i+1}\right)^{case_i} p_{i,i+1}^{(S_i - case_i)} \tag{9}$$

$$AIC = 4 - 2\log\left(\widehat{\mathcal{L}(\theta)}\right) \tag{10}$$

Due to non-identifiability of the three parameters jointly, variations in the infectiousness of individuals across different states (Itr, Il, Ih) may be due to the

differences in transmission rate parameters or shedding rate parameters or a

combination of these. Here, we denote model A and model B to illustrate two distinct

extreme representations. In model A, shedding remains constant across all infectious

states, which implies that the amount of contamination produced by individuals at

different states is the same, whereas the contaminants differ in their ability to cause

infection, reflected in β_{state}, for state is either Itr, Il, Ih. Conversely, in model B, the

difference lies in shedding amount of *MAP* over time (sh_{state}, for state is either Itr,

Il, Ih), while β remains constant. Scheme plots for compartment model A and B can

be found in Figure S1.

During the process of fitting exposure data to the model, two separate estimations

were conducted according to Equation 6. In the calf-to-calf transmission experiment,

the unknown parameters are represented as $\theta = \{de, \beta_{Itr}\}$ in both Model A and B.

Because in Model B, given the estimated value of de, the value of sh_{Itr} can be

inferred as follows: $sh_{Itr} = \frac{de^2}{-1+e^{-de}+de}$ (10). In the cow-to-calf transmission

experiment, as de has already been calculated in calf-to-calf experiment, the

unknown parameters for model A are $\theta = \{\beta_{Il}, \beta_{Ih}\}$, while the unknown parameters

for model B are $\theta = \{sh_{Il}, sh_{Ih}\}$.

The reference infectious state in both models is Itr, which can be explained by the

unit definition of the model. The unit of $E_{state}(t)$ differs in scale from the dose unit

(CFU for *MAP*). Instead, it is standardized such that, in a clean environment, the

$Exposure$ from one infectious individual at state Itr over a week is set to one unit

($\int_0^1 E_{Itr}(t)\,dt$=1). This standardization ensures a consistent interpretation of the

transmission rate parameter and shedding rate parameter across this research and

other studies with different transmission mechanism assumptions.

Model fit evaluation

Model fit is assessed by comparing the predicted infection probabilities with the

actual observations from the experiments. The experiment begins at time 0, and at

any subsequent time point t, $p_{0,0+t}$ can be calculated using the Equation 5. The total

infection probability over the whole experiment duration and the expected number of

new infections can be calculated ($E(New\ case) = S_0 \times p_{0,0+t}$). This evaluation helps

determine how accurately the model reflects the true dynamics of infection

transmission and provide insights into how the underlying infection process may look

like in the real-world experiments.

Scenario study

In this research, a scenario study was included to show the interpretation of the

estimated parameters under more lifelike conditions. The study focuses on four key

objectives: (1) Duration of Contamination: examining the impact of retaining an

infectious individual (at state $Itr,\ Il$ or Ih) in a clean environment, simulating

changes in the contamination level over time ($E_{state}(t)$), the force of infection rate

over time($\lambda_{state}(t)$) and calculating time (t_{eq}) required to reach equilibrium phase.

(2) Timing of Exposure: calculating infection probabilities associated with short-term

exposures before equilibrium (when $E_{state}(t)$ is increasing) and after equilibrium

(when $E_{state}(t)$ has stabilized). To ensure meaningful comparisons and prevent

probabilities from converging to 1, the exposure interval is set to 1 week, with the

susceptible individual's age at 0 weeks at the start of exposure. (3) Duration of

Exposure: Investigating how varying exposure durations influence infection

probability over time. Same as Scenario 2, the assumptions are $E_{state}(t)$ is stabilized

and the recipient is fully susceptible at the start. (4) Age of the Recipient: Predicting

how changes in the recipient's age, along with corresponding variations in

susceptibility, affect infection probability, assuming $E_{state}(t)$ is stabilized and the

exposure duration is fixed at 1 week. For both Scenario 3 & 4, the total simulated

duration was based on the maximum susceptible age of 52 weeks. Table 1 provides

a summary of the scenario setups, variables, variation ranges, and corresponding

equations.

Table 1. Overview of Scenario Study Parameters and Objectives.

Scenario	Infectious state	Exposure starts time (Week)	Length of exposure interval (Week)	Recipient's age at start of exposure (Week)	Output
1	Itr, Il or Ih	-	-	-	$E_{state}(t)$ and $\lambda_{state}(t)$
2	Itr, Il or Ih	x, $x \in [0,52]$	1	0	$p_{x,x+1} = 1 - e^{-\beta_{state} \times \int_x^{x+1} E_{state}(t)dt \times \overline{rS}(0,1)}$
3	Itr, Il or Ih	eq^*	y, $y \in [0,52]$	0	$p_{eq,eq+y} = 1 - e^{-\beta_{state} \times \int_{eq}^{eq+y} E_{state}(t)dt \times \overline{rS}(0,y)}$
4	Itr, Il or Ih	eq^*	1	z, $z \in [0,52]$	$p_{eq,eq+1} = 1 - e^{-\beta_{state} \times \int_{eq}^{eq+1} E_{state}(t)dt \times \overline{rS}(z,z+1)}$

546   * eq can be set to any time point after $E_{state}(t)$ reaches its equilibrium (t_{eq}), which will
547   be informed in the scenario 1.
548

549   All calculations and simulations were performed using Mathematica 14.0, with

550   machine precision applied throughout the computations to ensure numerical

551   accuracy. All data and code used for parameter estimation, simulation, model fitness

552   analysis and scenario analysis are available in a Git repository at

553   https://git.wur.nl/yuqi.gao/map_para_esti.

Reference

1.   Johne H, Frothingham L. Ein eigenthuemlicher fall von tuberculose beim rind. Dtsch Z
Tiermed Pathol. 1895;21:438-54.
2.   Mortier RAR, Barkema HW, Bystrom JM, Illanes O, Orsel K, Wolf R, et al. Evaluation of
age-dependent susceptibility in calves infected with two doses of Mycobacterium avium
subspecies paratuberculosis using pathology and tissue culture. Veterinary Research.
2013;44(1):94.
3.   Mortier RAR, Barkema HW, De Buck J. Susceptibility to and diagnosis of
Mycobacterium avium subspecies paratuberculosis infection in dairy calves: A review.
Preventive Veterinary Medicine. 2015;121(3):189-98.
4.   Council NR. Diagnosis and Control of Johne's Disease. Washington, DC: The National
Academies Press; 2003. p. 243.
5.   Nielsen S, Ersbøll A. Age at occurrence of Mycobacterium avium subspecies
paratuberculosis in naturally infected dairy cows. Journal of dairy science. 2006;89(12):4557-
66.
6.   Nielsen SS. Transitions in diagnostic tests used for detection of Mycobacterium avium
subsp. paratuberculosis infections in cattle. Veterinary Microbiology. 2008;132(3):274-82.
7.   Eppleston J, Begg DJ, Dhand NK, Watt B, Whittington RJ. Environmental Survival of
Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis in Different Climatic Zones of Eastern
Australia. Applied and Environmental Microbiology. 2014;80(8):2337-42.
8.   Aly SS, Thurmond MC. Evaluation of Mycobacterium avium subsp paratuberculosis
infection of dairy cows attributable to infection status of the dam. Journal of the American
Veterinary Medical Association. 2005;227(3):450-4.
9.   Whittington RJ, Windsor PA. In utero infection of cattle with Mycobacterium avium
subsp. paratuberculosis: A critical review and meta-analysis. The Veterinary Journal.
2009;179(1):60-9.
10.   Chang Y, de Jong MCM. A novel method to jointly estimate transmission rate and
decay rate parameters in environmental transmission models. Epidemics. 2023;42:100672.
11.   Chang Y, Hartemink N, Byrne AW, Gormley E, McGrath G, Tratalos JA, et al. Inferring
bovine tuberculosis transmission between cattle and badgers via the environment and risk
mapping. Front Vet Sci. 2023;10:1233173.
12.   Gamża AM, Hagenaars TJ, Koene MGJ, de Jong MCM. Combining a parsimonious
mathematical model with infection data from tailor-made experiments to understand
environmental transmission. Scientific Reports. 2023;13(1):12986.
13.   Gao Y, Boklund AE, Nielsen LH, Alban L, de Jong MCM. Estimating the impact of low
temperature on African swine fever virus transmission through contaminated environments.
Preventive Veterinary Medicine. 2023;219:105991.
14.   Larsen AB, Merkal RS, Cutlip RC. Age of cattle as related to resistance to infection
with Mycobacterium paratuberculosis. Am J Vet Res. 1975;36(3):255-7.
15.   Hagan W. Age as a Factor in Susceptibility to Johne's Disease. 34–40 p.
16.   Windsor PA, Whittington RJ. Evidence for age susceptibility of cattle to Johne's
disease. The Veterinary Journal. 2010;184(1):37-44.

17.   Rankin JD. The experimental infection of cattle with Mycobacterium johnei. IV. Adult
cattle maintained in an infectious environment. J Comp Pathol. 1962;72:113-7.

18.   Doyle T. Susceptibility to Johne's disease in relation to age. Vet Rec. 1953;65:363-5.

19.   Marcé C, Ezanno P, Seegers H, Pfeiffer DU, Fourichon C. Predicting fadeout versus
persistence of paratuberculosis in a dairy cattle herd for management and control purposes:
a modelling study. Veterinary Research. 2011;42(1):36.

20.   Biemans F, Tratalos J, Arnoux S, Ramsbottom G, More SJ, Ezanno P. Modelling
transmission of Mycobacterium avium subspecies paratuberculosis between Irish dairy
cattle herds. Veterinary Research. 2022;53(1):45.

21.   Olsen JE, Jørgensen JB, Nansen P. On the reduction of Mycobacterium
paratuberculosis in bovine slurry subjected to batch mesophilic or thermophilic anaerobic
digestion. Agricultural Wastes. 1985;13(4):273-80.

22.   EAMENS G, SPENCE S, TURNER M. Survival of Mycobacterium avium subsp
paratuberculosis in amitraz cattle dip fluid. Australian Veterinary Journal. 2001;79(10):703-6.

23.   Collins CH, Grange JM, Yates MD. Mycobacteria in water. Journal of Applied
Bacteriology. 1984;57(2):193-211.

24.   Hanifian S. Behavior of Mycobacterium avium paratuberculosis in Lighvan cheese
tracked by propidium monoazide qPCR and culture. LWT. 2020;133:109886.

25.   Klanicova B, Slana I, Roubal P, Pavlik I, Kralik P. Mycobacterium avium subsp.
paratuberculosis survival during fermentation of soured milk products detected by culture
and quantitative real time PCR methods. International Journal of Food Microbiology.
2012;157(2):150-5.

26.   Whittington RJ, Marshall DJ, Nicholls PJ, Marsh IB, Reddacliff LA. Survival and
dormancy of Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis in the environment. Appl
Environ Microbiol. 2004;70(5):2989-3004.

27.   Jorgensen JB. Survival of Mycobacterium paratuberculosis in slurry. Nord Vet Med.
1977;29(6):267-70.

28.   Corbett CS, de Jong MCM, Orsel K, De Buck J, Barkema HW. Quantifying transmission
of Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis among group-housed dairy calves.
Veterinary Research. 2019;50(1):60.

29.   Nigsch A, Robbe-Austerman S, Stuber TP, Paulina DPB, Gröhn YT, Schukken YH. Who
infects whom?—Reconstructing infection chains of Mycobacterium avium ssp.
paratuberculosis in an endemically infected dairy herd by use of genomic data. PLoS One.
2021;16(5).

30.   Vass-Bognár B, Bakony M, Baumgartner W, Khol JL, Jurkovich V. Association between
calf rearing technology and farm-level paratuberculosis infection in Hungarian dairy farms.
Preventive Veterinary Medicine. 2022;207.

31.   Weber MF, Kelton D, Eisenberg SWF, Donat K. Progress in Paratuberculosis Control
Programmes for Dairy Herds. Animals. 2024;14(7):1127.

32.   Mitchell RM, Whitlock RH, Gröhn YT, Schukken YH. Back to the real world:
Connecting models with data. Preventive Veterinary Medicine. 2015;118(2):215-25.

33.   Sweeney RW, Whitlock RH, Hamir AN, Rosenberger AE, Herr SA. Isolation of
Mycobacterium paratuberculosis after oral inoculation in uninfected cattle. Am J Vet Res.
1992;53(8):1312-4.

34.   Payne JM, Rankin JD. A Comparison of the Pathogenesis of Experimental Johne's
Disease in Calves and Cows. Research in Veterinary Science. 1961;2(2):175-9.

35.   Payne JM, Rankin JD. The Pathogenesis of Experimental Johne's Disease in Calves.
Research in Veterinary Science. 1961;2(2):167-76.

36.   Rankin JD. The Experimental Infection of Cattle with Mycobacterium Johnei: I. Calves
Inoculated Intravenously. Journal of Comparative Pathology and Therapeutics. 1958;68:331-
IN24.

37.   Rankin JD. The Experimental Infection of Cattle With Mycobacterium Johnei: II. Adult
Cattle Inoculated Intravenously. Journal of Comparative Pathology and Therapeutics.
1961;71:6-IN1.

38.   Stuart P. Vaccination Against Johne's Disease in Cattle Exposed to Experimental
Infection. British Veterinary Journal. 1965;121(7):289-318.

39.   Gilmour NJL, Nisbet DI, Brotherston JG. Experimental oral infection of calves with
Mycobacterium johnei. Journal of Comparative Pathology. 1965;75(3):281-6.

40.   Gilmour NJL, Angus KW. The specificity and sensitivity of the fluorescent antibody
test in cattle experimentally infected with Mycobacterium avium and Mycobacterium johnei.
Research in Veterinary Science. 1976;20(1):6-9.

41.   Johnson D, Muscoplat CC, Larsen A, Thoen C. Skin testing, fecal culture, and
lymphocyte immunostimulation in cattle inoculated with Mycobacterium paratuberculosis.
Am J Vet Res. 1977;38(12):2023-5.

42.   Lepper A, Wilks C, Kotiw M, Whitehead J, Swart K. Sequential bacteriological
observations in relation to cell–mediated and humoral antibody responses of cattle infected
with Mycobacterium paratuberculosis and maintained on normal or high iron intake.
Australian veterinary journal. 1989;66(2):50-5.

43.   Uzonna JE, Chilton P, Whitlock RH, Habecker PL, Scott P, Sweeney RW. Efficacy of
commercial and field-strain Mycobacterium paratuberculosis vaccinations with recombinant
IL-12 in a bovine experimental infection model. Vaccine. 2003;21(23):3101-9.

44.   Waters WR, Miller JM, Palmer MV, Stabel JR, Jones DE, Koistinen KA, et al. Early
Induction of Humoral and Cellular Immune Responses during Experimental
Mycobacterium avium subsp. *paratuberculosis* Infection of Calves. Infection
and Immunity. 2003;71(9):5130-8.

45.   Stabel J, Palmer M, Whitlock R. Immune responses after oral inoculation of weanling
bison or beef calves with a bison or cattle isolate of Mycobacterium avium subsp.
paratuberculosis. Journal of wildlife diseases. 2003;39(3):545-55.

46.   Sweeney RW, Whitlock RH, McAdams S, Fyock T. Longitudinal Study of ELISA
Seroreactivity to Mycobacterium Avium subsp. Paratuberculosis in Infected Cattle and
Culture-Negative Herd Mates. Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation. 2006;18(1):2-6.

47.   Stewart DJ, Vaughan JA, Stiles PL, Noske PJ, Tizard MLV, Prowse SJ, et al. A long-term
bacteriological and immunological study in Holstein-Friesian cattle experimentally infected
with Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis and necropsy culture results for
Holstein-Friesian cattle, Merino sheep and Angora goats. Veterinary Microbiology.
2007;122(1):83-96.

48.   van Roermund HJW, Bakker D, Willemsen PTJ, de Jong MCM. Horizontal transmission
of Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis in cattle in an experimental setting: Calves
can transmit the infection to other calves. Veterinary Microbiology. 2007;122(3):270-9.

49.   Burnham K, Anderson. Information and Likelihood Theory: A Basis for Model
Selection and Inference. In: Burnham KP, Anderson DR, editors. Model Selection and
Multimodel Inference: A Practical Information-Theoretic Approach. New York, NY: Springer
New York; 2002. p. 49-97.

Supporting information

S1 Data. Collected experimental data from previous research.

S1 Figure. Scheme of Compartmental Model in Model A and Model B. Both

models include six compartments: susceptible individuals ($S_a(t)$), transiently

infectious ($Itr_a(t)$), latently infected ($L_a(t)$), low-shedding infectious ($Il_a(t)$), high-

shedding infectious ($Ih_a(t)$), and resistant individuals ($R_a(t)$), all indexed by age a at

time t. The environmental compartment differs between the models: in Model A, all

infectious states shed at the same rate (sh) but generate distinct environments

($E_{Itr}(t)$, $E_{Il}(t)$, $E_{Ih}(t)$) with varying transmission rates (β_{Itr}, β_{Il}, β_{Ih}), while in Model

B, shedding rates differ by infectious state (sh_{Itr}, sh_{Il}, sh_{Ih}), with a constant

transmission rate (β). The diagram shows solid arrows for transitions between

individual states (though not simulated in the 3-month study), dashed arrows for

MAP shedding and decay in the environment, and dotted arrows representing the

exposure of susceptible calves. The force of infection rate ($\lambda_a(t)$) is the key

component.

S1 File. Validation of estimated decay rate parameter using culture-based

experimental data on *MAP* viability in cattle excretions.

S2 File. A Comparative Analysis with A Previously Published Transmission

Model

Figure

Figure

Model A. Transmission rate parameters for Itr, Il, and Ih.

Model B. Shedding rate parameters for Itr, Il, and Ih.

MAP decay rate in the environment

Likelihood
— — 95%CI
● Critical values
✳ Best-fit value

Figure

Figure

Figure

Figure