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1 **REVIEW**

2 Introduced deer and their potential role in disease transmission to

3 livestock in Australia

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20 ABSTRACT

The transmission of pathogens between wildlife and livestock is a globally recognised threat
 to the livestock industry, as well as to human and wildlife health. Wild cervids are
 susceptible to many of the diseases affecting livestock. This presents a challenge for wildlife
 and domestic animal disease management, because the frequent use of agricultural areas by
 wild cervids may hamper the effectiveness of disease control strategies.

Six deer species have established wild populations in Australia and are expanding in range
 and abundance. A comprehensive literature review of diseases impacting deer and livestock
 was undertaken, resulting in consideration of 38 pathogens. A qualitative risk assessment
 was then carried out to assess the overall risk posed by the pathogens to the livestock
 industry.

- 3. Five diseases (bovine tuberculosis, foot and mouth disease, malignant catarrhal fever, surra 32 and screw-worm fly infestation) ranked highly in our risk assessment. Of these five diseases, 33 only one (malignant catarrhal fever) is currently present in Australia, but all five are 34 notifiable diseases at a national level. Data on these diseases in deer are limited, especially 35 for one of the most abundant species, the sambar deer *Rusa unicolor*, highlighting a further 36 potential risk attributable to a lack of understanding of disease epidemiology.
- This paper provides a detailed review of the pathogens affecting both cervids and livestock
 in Australia, and applies a qualitative framework for assessing the risk posed by deer to the
 livestock industry. The qualitative framework used here could easily be adapted to assess
 disease risk in other contexts, making this work relevant to scientists and wildlife managers,
- 41 as well as to livestock industry workers, worldwide.
- 42 Keywords: Cervidae, disease, livestock, spillover, wildlife-livestock interface.
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49 **INTRODUCTION**

50 The transmission of pathogens between wildlife and livestock is globally recognised as a threat to 51 the livestock industry, as well as to human and wildlife health. The frequency of emerging (and re-52 emerging) infectious diseases in wildlife reservoirs has increased, posing new questions about 53 disease pathogenesis and epidemiology (Rhyan & Spraker 2010). Human-driven changes in land use, 54 encroachment into wildlife habitat, increasing distribution and abundance of invasive alien species, 55 climate change and intensified livestock production practices are all factors that can increase the 56 potential for disease outbreaks. Anthropogenic landscape modifications create new interfaces 57 between livestock and wildlife, potentially exacerbating processes that favour pathogen 58 transmission (Miller et al. 2013). The transmission of an infectious agent at the wildlife/livestock 59 interface may occur directly, through interspecies contact, or indirectly, through shared space or 60 vectors. Overabundance of native or invasive exotic species may exacerbate the risk of transmission 61 through increased population densities and increases in host contact rates (Gortázar et al. 2006).

62 Multi-host pathogens are very prevalent among the infectious agents of domestic mammals; 63 estimates suggest that 77% of pathogens infecting mammalian livestock are generalists that can 64 infect multiple host species (Cleaveland et al. 2001). For parasites, the incidence of host sharing is 65 variable but can be high: between 14 and 76% of nematode species found in various taxa of wild 66 hosts also infect domestic hosts, and between 42 and 77% of nematode species in various domestic 67 hosts are recorded as infecting wild hosts (Walker & Morgan 2014). As deer (family Cervidae) are 68 ungulates, closely related to economically important livestock species including cattle Bos taurus, 69 sheep Ovis aries and goats Capra hircus, it is unsurprising that they share many pathogens, including 70 several of major agricultural importance. Wild cervids present a unique challenge for wildlife disease 71 management, as they frequently share habitats and resources with domestic livestock. Previous 72 reviews by Conner et al. (2008) in North America and Böhm et al. (2007) in the UK have covered 73 many of these shared cervid-livestock infectious diseases in detail, but with a focus on the 74 implications for those local contexts. The potential role of deer as vectors of diseases and pathogens 75 in Australia was highlighted by Davis et al. (2016) but has not been examined in depth. Australian 76 agriculture currently experiences substantial benefits due to its freedom from many epidemic 77 diseases that impact livestock industries in other parts of the world. The issue of cervid-transmitted 78 disease in Australia is highly significant, as exotic disease incursion or outbreaks of emerging or 79 endemic disease could cause serious production losses, resulting in substantial economic impacts. 80 Transmission of disease by cervids could also prevent effective control, management or eradication 81 of a livestock disease, resulting in prolonged epidemics.

82 Globally, deer have been introduced to many countries and have become established in multiple 83 areas outside their native range (Clout & Russell 2008). Australia is no exception - in the mid-1800s, 84 multiple species were introduced to Australia from Europe and Southeast Asia, and now populations 85 of six deer species, chital Axis axis, hog deer Axis porcinus, red deer Cervus elaphus, fallow deer 86 Dama dama, Javan rusa Rusa timorensis, and sambar deer Rusa unicolor, are well-established and 87 increasing in geographic range and abundance (Davis et al. 2016). There are no reliable estimates of 88 deer abundance in Australia, but populations appear to be increasing in size. For example, deer 89 harvest statistics in the state of Victoria show that the reported number of deer harvested has 90 increased by an average of 15% per year since 2009, despite reduced harvest effort over this time 91 (Moloney & Turnbull 2018). There are several issues associated with population increases of deer 92 (reviewed by Burgin et al. 2015, Davis et al. 2016), including the expansion of deer into new areas 93 and consequent increases in disease risk, especially as these species have not yet reached their 94 maximum potential geographic ranges in Australia. Currently, wild deer are most commonly found in south-eastern Australia, however Davis et al. (2016) showed that deer have the potential to occupy 95 96 many parts of Australia from which they are currently absent, including parts of the arid interior 97 (Figure 1). In northern Australia, 75% of land is devoted to livestock production. This land contains 98 almost 50% of Australia's cattle population (PricewaterhouseCoopers 2011). If pathogens of 99 agricultural significance become established in wild deer populations, they will present a significant 100 threat to livestock production and markets.

101 We set out to review the global literature on diseases of agricultural significance known to occur in 102 wild deer populations, or to have documented potential to be transmitted to, and hosted by, any of 103 the six Australian deer species, as well as economically important livestock species, predominantly 104 sheep and cattle, but also pigs Sus scrofa domesticus, goats and horses Equus caballus. We do not 105 review the impact on farmed deer, as they comprise only a small percentage (<0.05%) of livestock. In 106 2010–11 (the latest year for which data are available) 45 073 deer were farmed in Australia (Animal 107 Health Australia 2017). In comparison, there are over 25 million cattle and 67.5 million sheep across 108 the continent (Meat and Livestock Australia, 2017). A large number of pathogens are theoretically 109 hosted by both deer and livestock; it has been necessary to restrict this review to those diseases that 110 have been relatively well studied or are of major economic importance. We conducted a qualitative 111 risk assessment by compiling information to assess the potential risks of each disease to the 112 Australian livestock industry, based on current understanding. The information we provide from our 113 risk assessment could assist decision-making around disease prioritisation, management and 114 surveillance, both in Australia and elsewhere in the world where deer and domestic livestock interact. Hence, this disease risk assessment framework could easily be adapted and used withinother contexts.

117 Figure 1.

- 118 Current (red; West 2011) and potential distribution (greyscale) of the six deer species established in
- the wild in Australia (republished from Davis et al. 2016). The potential distributions were estimated
- using the Climatch algorithm (Invasive Animals CRC 2011).

121 METHODS

122 Literature review

123 We identified peer-reviewed and grey literature from studies worldwide that have reported 124 pathogens infecting wild deer (Cervidae) populations and known or have potential transmission risks 125 to economically important ungulate livestock in Australia. Our assessment, out of necessity, included 126 pathogens not known to occur in Australia, but known to infect both livestock and wild Cervidae 127 elsewhere. We briefly report on important literature regarding each parasite or pathogen fulfilling 128 these criteria. Our intention was to cast the widest possible net and to identify pathogens that fulfil 129 the stated criteria for inclusion, without providing a thorough assessment for arrival or 130 establishment risks in Australia. We also consulted earlier reviews on this topic from within Australia 131 (Animal Health Australia 2011, Davis et al. 2016) and elsewhere (Simpson 2002, Böhm et al. 2007, 132 Conner et al. 2008) to identify pathogens of interest. Previous reviews on this topic from Australia 133 have been relatively brief - our work expands on these by conducting a thorough assessment of the 134 literature to compile potential diseases shared by deer and livestock, and then prioritising the risk to 135 the livestock industry through a risk assessment process.

We searched online databases (Web of Science, Scopus, Google Scholar) for references using combinations of the following search strings: 'deer', 'cervidae', 'spillover', 'disease', 'livestock', pathogen', 'parasite', 'source', and 'infection'. We also used the terms 'deer ("pathogen name")' and 'cervidae ("pathogen name")'. Full search strings are provided in Appendix S1.

We use the term 'maintenance hosts', for directly transmitted pathogens only, to describe hosts in which the disease persists by vertical transmission (mother to offspring) or by horizontal transmission (from one individual to another) within the species, without the need for any external source of reinfection. We use 'spillover hosts' to describe where the occurrence of the disease within a host population requires an external source of reinfection. Spillover hosts may further be characterised as 'dead-end' hosts if they play no further role in disease transmission (Coleman & Cooke 2001). Disease in spillover and dead-end hosts typically disappears, as disease is eliminated from the maintenance host. However, in some cases spillover hosts can act as amplifying hosts, increasing the transmission risk to other wildlife hosts or to livestock. The transmission of infection across the wildlife/livestock interface tends to occur predominantly through a spillover effect (livestock infect wildlife) or via a spillback effect where wildlife reinfect livestock (Conner et al. 2008).

152 Disease risk assessment

153 We evaluated several criteria (likelihood of deer being susceptible, being infected, transmitting the 154 disease to livestock, and being infected by livestock) to rank the overall risk posed by the selected 155 pathogens to the livestock industry, using a similar approach to Hartley et al. (2013). We expressed 156 these qualitative 'likelihood scores' as high, medium or low. With the first category ('susceptible'), 157 we evaluated the degree to which there is certainty that the six deer species we considered are 158 susceptible to the pathogen. With 'infected' we evaluated the likelihood of the deer species 159 acquiring the infection, given that they are exposed to the pathogen. The 'transmitting the disease 160 to livestock' criterion was used to express the likelihood that, once it was present in deer 161 populations, the pathogen would be transmitted to livestock species. We used a gradient of 162 likelihood scores, where we considered pathogens that are transmitted exclusively by direct physical 163 contact to have a lower score than pathogens that are transmitted indirectly (for example by 164 environmental contamination, which only requires shared habitat to spread the infection), which in 165 turn were considered to have a lower likelihood than infections that are spread by vectors (where 166 the assumption was made that suitable vectors exist in Australia). Our reasoning for this is that we 167 consider very close physical contact of deer and livestock to be rarer (although anecdotal evidence 168 indicates that it does sometimes occur) than situations where pasture or supplemental food is 169 shared, for example, the use of feed troughs by deer. The category 'being infected by livestock' 170 reported the likelihood of deer becoming infected, given that a disease is present in livestock. 171 Factors that we took into consideration included whether management actions would be put in 172 place to control infection in livestock, that may consequently also reduce the risk of infection to 173 deer.

174 In contrast to Hartley et al. (2013), we separated the category 'infected' into three intermediate 175 steps to allow a more transparent assessment, as well as to facilitate an update of our assessment 176 when new information becomes available. The three steps were then combined to obtain an 177 average 'infected' score. We detail these intermediate steps as follows:

Presence: whether the pathogen is present in Australia (or alternatively, the likely risk of it being introduced and becoming established). For pathogens not yet present, likely risks were assessed (as described in Appendix S2) using information that is publicly available through Biosecurity Import Risk

181 Analyses (Australian Department of Agriculture and Water Resources 2018).

182 Distribution: we considered the geographical distribution (based on detected cases) of pathogens

already present in Australia, or, alternatively, the likelihood of them becoming widespread should

184 they arrive in Australia. We paid particular attention to whether the known (or potential)

185 distribution of the pathogen would match the known and potential distribution of deer.

Transmission: the route of transmission plays an important role in the probability of transmission of diseases, as well as in disease management. We focussed on transmission within each deer species (i.e. intra-species transmission) and its influence on the epidemiology of the disease (e.g. highly contagious diseases were given higher scores).

190 In addition to the criteria used by Hartley et al. (2013), we included 'impact', where we attempted to 191 predict the potential additional economic impact that a disease would have on livestock farming (in 192 this case, the economic impact on the predominant livestock farmed in Australia, sheep and cattle), 193 should deer become an additional route of transmission to those already recognised. The impact 194 depends on the clinical consequences of the disease, the management actions (e.g. containment, stamping out, slaughter, vaccination), and the costs resulting from these. Generally speaking, 195 196 diseases that are currently common, and whose management would not dramatically change if deer 197 were implicated in their transmission, were scored as having a low impact, while exotic diseases that 198 would require extensive intervention or cause dramatic loss were scored as high.

199 We did not carry out a separate disease risk assessment for each deer species. However, we report 200 notable differences when we expect these to occur. Most deer species found in Australia are known 201 to use agricultural land (Lindeman & Forsyth 2008), especially when this occurs adjacent to, or is 202 interspersed with, native forest areas, which are preferred deer habitat. Disease susceptibility and 203 social behaviour were the two main factors evaluated when assessing differences between species. 204 With the exception of sambar and hog deer, the deer species in Australia are gregarious, which 205 generally facilitates higher contact rates and the spread of highly transmissible pathogens (Sah et al. 206 2018). In the absence of information on the relative abundance of deer, we therefore assumed that 207 in situations of equivalent density, these gregarious species would pose a greater risk to livestock.

The overall risk assessment ranking was calculated using an average rating of the probability of
 occurrence (through combining the scores from the 'susceptible', 'infected', 'infecting livestock' and

- 210 'being infected by livestock' categories) and then ranking this against the potential 'impact' of the
- 211 pathogen, using the risk assessment matrix shown in Table 1.
- 212 Table 1. Risk assessment categories used for assessing the overall risk (a combination of the
- 213 probability of occurrence and the impact) posed by pathogens infecting wild deer for the livestock
- 214 industry in Australia. The probability of occurrence was a combined score from the 'susceptible',
- 215 'infected', 'infecting livestock' and 'being infected by livestock' categories (see text for details).

	Impact		
Probability of occurrence	Low	Medium	High
Low	Low	Low	Medium
Medium	Low	Medium	High
High	Medium	High	High

217 **RESULTS**

218 Literature review

In total, we documented eight bacterial, eight viral and one prion disease known to infect both the deer species that occur in Australia and livestock. All species of deer host a wide range of parasites, and we documented 19 endoparasites (13 helminths and six protozoans) and two ectoparasites which are known to infect both livestock and the deer species of interest. For each disease, we documented the host species, the transmission routes, whether the disease is present in Australia, and a list of relevant references from the literature (Table 2).

225 Disease risk assessment

From the list of documented pathogens (Table 2), the overall risk assessment (combination of probability of occurrence and impact) was assessed as 'high' for five pathogens, 'medium' for 11 pathogens and 'low' for 21 pathogens (Table 3). We describe below details on those diseases ranked as 'high', while comprehensive information and literature on the remaining pathogens (scored as 'low' or 'medium') can be found in Appendix S3.

231 Mycobacterium bovis (bovine tuberculosis)

232 Mycobacterium bovis, the causative agent of bovine tuberculosis (bTB), has one of the broadest host 233 ranges of all known pathogens (O'Reilly & Daborn 1995). Bovine tuberculosis is primarily a 234 respiratory disease and a prominent disease of cattle. It is found in most livestock species (cattle, 235 sheep, goats, pigs, deer and horses) and can become zoonotic. It is transmitted primarily by direct 236 contact via infectious aerosols in farmed deer and livestock, but can also be spread through contact 237 with urine and faeces in wild deer (Böhm et al. 2007). Mycobacterium bovis's broad host range 238 includes many wildlife species such as common brushtail possums Trichosurus vulpecula in New 239 Zealand (Coleman 1988), European badgers Meles meles in the UK (Gallagher & Clifton-Hadley 240 2000), bison Bison bison in Canada (Nishi et al. 2006) and African buffalo Syncerus caffer in southern 241 Africa (Cross & Getz 2006). Epidemiological studies of bTB in wild deer populations have occurred in 242 New Zealand (Nugent 2011), Europe (de Mendoza et al. 2006) and the USA (Schmitt et al. 1997).

There is evidence that *Mycobacterium bovis* strains can spillover from livestock into wild deer hosts (particularly fallow deer and red deer), and then spillback, reinfecting domestic livestock (Coleman & Cooke 2001, de Mendoza et al. 2006, Nugent 2011). There is also evidence that bTB can be maintained in free-ranging cervid populations without infected livestock involvement (Schmitt et al. 1997, O'Brien et al. 2006), although there is a scarcity of data showing this for red, fallow, sambar or hog deer. Wild deer populations appear to have the capacity to act as maintenance hosts for *Mycobacterium bovis*, particularly if they reach high densities (Coleman & Cooke 2001, Nugent 2011), or are highly aggregated (Ramsey et al. 2014), leading to outbreaks of bTB in livestock (Schmitt et al. 1997, Ramsey et al. 2014). Evidence from New Zealand suggests that deer could play a role in initiating new outbreaks of bTB outside infection areas through dispersal, or can reinitiate infection after it has been eliminated in other hosts by acting as a long-lived reservoir of infection (Ryan et al. 2006, Nugent et al. 2015).

255 Bovine tuberculosis formerly occurred in livestock in Australia, but was eliminated through an 256 intensive test and slaughter program (Cousins & Roberts 2001). An integral part of the success of the 257 eradication program was the culling of wild water buffalo Bubalus bubalis, which reduced this 258 species to low numbers and eliminated it as a maintenance host and source of reinfection for cattle 259 (Cousins & Roberts 2001). A lack of other established wildlife hosts was also seen as a crucial factor 260 for this success. Failure to eradicate bTB elsewhere (New Zealand, the UK) has generally been 261 attributed to the presence of a significant wildlife reservoir (i.e. possums and badgers) causing 262 continual spillback of disease to livestock populations (Tweddle & Livingstone 1994, Palmer 2007). 263 There has only been one known outbreak of Mycobacterium bovis in deer in Australia, which 264 occurred in three farmed herds of fallow deer and was successfully eliminated through a test and 265 slaughter program (Robinson et al. 1989).

266 Successful bTB control strategies tend to focus around test and slaughter or segregation of infected 267 animals, although these strategies are complicated when there is a wildlife reservoir involved. 268 Culling may decrease transmission by decreasing the population density of the reservoir host. 269 However, it may not always be an effective method in controlling outbreaks, or be publicly 270 supported (O'Brien et al. 2011). Vaccination of livestock against Mycobacterium bovis tends to occur 271 when test and slaughter campaigns are not feasible, but the effectiveness of vaccination in wildlife 272 hosts is yet to be proven (Siembieda et al. 2011). Any outbreak of bTB in wild deer populations 273 would present a significant risk to the Australian livestock industry and would be costly to eradicate, 274 resulting in substantial financial losses.

275 Aphthae epizooticae (foot and mouth disease)

Aphthae epizooticae, causing foot and mouth disease (FMDV), is a highly contagious viral pathogen that spreads rapidly among livestock, particularly when animals are housed close together. It affects cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, and farmed deer, and is spread via the respiratory route, although small quantities of the pathogen are excreted in the faeces, urine, saliva and other fluids of infected hosts. There are seven different viral serotypes of FMDV that are disease-causing, and they can persist in the environment for long periods of time when conditions are favourable (Davies 2002). Although

most infected hosts can recover, outbreaks in livestock can have significant economic impacts (Knight-Jones et al. 2013). Infected animals can excrete the virus for up to four days before showing clinical signs. FMDV tends to have a higher transmission rate in cattle than in sheep, as cattle tend to be more susceptible to the disease (Keeling et al. 2001). Outbreaks have historically occurred in several parts of the world, including Europe, Africa, Asia and the Middle East, and attempts to control FMDV have a long history (Sutmoller et al. 2003).

288 Although FMDV has been detected in many wildlife species, it appears to cause clinical disease 289 almost exclusively in livestock (Weaver et al. 2013). Experimental studies in the 1970s showed that 290 all deer species in the UK, including red and fallow deer, were susceptible to FMDV transmission 291 when exposed to infected cattle, and could transmit the disease within their own species as well as 292 to sheep and cattle (Sutmoller et al. 2003). Susceptibility of deer species to FMDV can vary and, 293 while infection in red and fallow deer is generally subclinical (Simpson 2002), disease persistence can 294 be high in these two species, increasing transmission risk to livestock. Red deer, for example, shed 295 similar amounts of the virus to sheep and cattle (Haigh et al. 2002). FMDV infection has been 296 recorded in six deer species including red and fallow deer (Haigh et al. 2002), and in captive sambar 297 deer (Weaver et al. 2013). While there is clear experimental evidence of disease transmission 298 between wild cervids and domestic livestock and vice versa, there is however limited evidence of 299 this occurring under natural conditions (Weaver et al. 2013, Dhollander et al. 2016). Outside of 300 Africa, where African buffalo are maintenance hosts, FMDV is maintained mainly in domestic 301 ruminants, and wildlife occasionally become infected accidentally by spillover (Bengis et al. 2002). 302 Epidemiological modelling of FMDV spread in deer in Europe has concluded that cervid populations 303 are unlikely to be able to maintain FMDV for long periods of time without reinfection from domestic 304 hosts (Dhollander et al. 2016). However, virus circulation may be prolonged when cervid population 305 densities are high. Disease transmission between deer and domestic livestock is most likely to occur 306 through direct contact between hosts.

307 Australia is currently free of FMDV and it is a notifiable disease in all states and territories. The 308 introduction of this disease would have enormous economic impacts, with the costs of an outbreak 309 of FMDV in Australia estimated to be up to A\$5.2 billion (Buetre et al. 2013). Due to concerns around 310 these economic impacts, epidemiological modelling for FMDV spread in feral pigs in Australia has 311 been undertaken (Pech & Hone 1988, Doran & Laffan 2005), and suggests that very high culling rates 312 of pigs would be required for eradication of FMDV. No literature could be located documenting 313 comparable modelling of FMDV infection in deer in Australian. FMDV excretion can peak before 314 clinical signs occur, which means the disease would be very difficult to contain or eradicate if there 315 was an incursion into Australia, as its spread is rapid.

316 In livestock, FMDV control methods are normally focused around intensive culling (slaughter and 317 disposal of susceptible livestock) on infected farms and surrounding farms, vaccination, and strict 318 biosecurity controls for personnel who have contact with infected animals (Sutmoller et al. 2003). 319 There has been widespread use of vaccination programs in Europe to control the disease, which can 320 be effective if maintained. As different serotypes are dominant in different parts of the world, 321 control through vaccination can be difficult because vaccines that are effective against one serotype 322 will not protect against others. Epidemiological modelling has been used to support decision-making 323 processes during FMDV outbreaks in livestock, particularly in the UK (Keeling 2005), and could be a 324 useful tool for modelling similar outbreaks in wildlife. Control strategies for FMDV outbreaks in 325 wildlife are varied. Culling programs to remove infected animals and reduce density have been used 326 in Mongolian gazelles Procapra gutturosa, while fencing has been successfully used to manage 327 FMDV transmission between African buffalo and livestock (Weaver et al. 2013).

328 Herpesviruses (malignant catarrhal fever)

329 Malignant catarrhal fever (MCF) is an infectious viral disease in the gammaherpesvirus group, often 330 affecting domestic cattle and deer. Three types of the MCF herpesvirus have been identified as 331 causing disease, with sheep and wildebeest *Connochaetes* spp. identified as asymptomatic carriers 332 or natural hosts (Heuschele et al. 1984). These two natural hosts act as reservoirs, causing spillover 333 infection in other species that then experience severe clinical disease. A feature of MCF in cattle is 334 that outbreaks are unpredictable and sporadic, and infection typically occurs following close contact 335 with sheep that are actively shedding (Callan & Van Metre 2004). Transmission is predominantly 336 respiratory, and direct contact with a natural host is not necessarily required - wind-borne infection 337 has also been documented (Haigh et al. 2002). Vertical transfer of infection between a female and 338 her offspring (transplacentally) can also occur. All herpesviruses can establish latent infections 339 (where there is a dormant phase to their life cycle, Engels & Ackermann 1996), which allows the 340 virus to persist in a population for long periods, with periodic reactivation then posing a risk for 341 transmission to domestic or wild animals.

Wildlife hosts infected with MCF include mostly wild ruminants (Heuschele et al. 1984) and there is abundant evidence that MCF occurs in free-ranging cervids (Heuschele et al. 1984, Li et al. 1996). Indeed, MCF is considered one of the most important diseases of farmed deer due to its high mortality rates (Reid & Buxton 1984). MCF has been reported in 14 species of deer, including five of the Australian species – red, fallow, chital, sambar and hog deer (Heuschele et al. 1984, Semiadi et al. 1994, Haigh et al. 2002). Stress seems to play a significant role in disease outbreaks, with infection peaking when conditions are crowded and during winter and spring, when deer may be in

poorer condition (Haigh et al. 2002). Deer appear to be particularly susceptible and death often occurs within 48 hours of the first clinical signs (Jesser 2005). However, the evidence suggests that deer are not significant maintenance hosts, but tend to be spillover hosts, acquiring the infection primarily from sheep (Reid et al. 1979).

MCF occurs sporadically in Australia and mainly in cattle. Outbreaks in captive deer have been documented in Australia (Tomkins et al. 1997), and lesions consistent with MCF were described by Presidente (1978) in captive Javan rusa deer in Victoria, but the virus could not be isolated and confirmed as that causing MCF. No effective treatment or vaccine for MCF has been described. In the absence of a vaccine, the best strategy appears to be limiting contact between susceptible species, for example, deer and the natural host, sheep (Callan & Van Metre 2004).

359 Trypanosoma evansi (surra)

360 Trypanosoma evansi is a protozoan that causes the disease trypanosomiasis or surra in vertebrate 361 animals. Trypanosoma evansi is transmitted mechanically by various species of tabanid flies 362 (horseflies). It is found over a wide range of climates, but is more common in the tropics. The main 363 host species affected by *Trypanosoma evansi* depends on the predominant mammalian species in a region, as it has a wide host range (Reid 2002). Trypanosoma evansi has become established in wild 364 365 reservoirs all over the world, mostly as a consequence of moving infected livestock. Deer, including 366 sambar and hog deer (Desquesnes et al. 2013), are susceptible to Trypanosoma evansi, however 367 reports of surra in deer are not particularly common. As deer may tolerate a heavy burden 368 of Trypanosoma evansi without showing any clinical signs, they can be an efficient reservoir of the 369 pathogen (Reid et al. 1999).

370 The only known introduction of Trypanosoma evansi into Australia was in camels Camelus 371 dromedarius and Camelus bactrianus imported from India to Port Hedland, Western Australia, in 372 1907 (Reid 2002), and this incursion was rapidly eradicated through the slaughter of infected 373 animals. Today, the likely route of introduction would be via eastward spread into Papua New 374 Guinea and then across the islands of the Torres Strait (Reid 2002). Trypanosoma evansi is a 375 substantial threat for Australia and has the potential to become endemic, firstly because tabanid 376 vectors are common, and secondly because there are large populations of potential reservoir hosts, 377 such as feral pigs, in many areas where livestock occur (Reid 2002). It is a notifiable disease in all 378 states and territories. Although small outbreaks of surra have been eradicated in Australia and 379 elsewhere, no country is known to have eliminated the disease once it has become well established 380 (Desquesnes et al. 2013). Increasing populations of feral deer would be likely to act as reservoirs and 381 could contribute to disease establishment, should it reach Australia.

382 Chrysomya bezziana (screw-worm fly infestation)

383 The Old World screw-worm fly Chrysomya bezziana is a parasitic insect pest that is endemic to the 384 tropical regions of Asia, the Middle East and Africa. The insect reproduces by laying its eggs in open 385 wounds and mucus membranes of mammals. Upon hatching, the fly larvae eat the living flesh of the 386 host, causing injury (cutaneous myiasis), secondary infections and in extreme cases, death. 387 Chrysomya bezziana has been found in free-ranging sambar deer in India (Radhakrishnan et al. 2012) 388 and in captive Persian fallow deer (Dama dama mesopotamica, Mombeni et al. 2014). In Papua New 389 Guinea, Javan rusa deer are likely to be maintenance hosts of Chrysomya bezziana (Spradbery & 390 Tozer 2013). No literature on its occurrence in other wild deer species could be located. Currently 391 the Australian mainland is free of Chrysomya bezziana, and although its distribution is relatively 392 static, its range includes Australia's tropical northern neighbours such as Indonesia, Malaysia and 393 Papua New Guinea. Due to the close geographical location of Chrysomya bezziana range and the 394 shipping traffic to and from Australian ports, there is a risk of introduction of this species to Australia 395 through importation of the insect, particularly in northern Australia (Welch et al. 2014). Increasing 396 populations of wild deer would be likely to act as reservoirs and further contribute to spread of the 397 parasite, should it reach Australia.

398 **DISCUSSION**

Diseases of deer and potential threats to Australian livestock

400 In total, we considered eight bacterial, eight viral, one prion, 13 helminth, six protozoan, and two 401 ectoparasitic diseases (Table 2, Appendix S3) affecting deer and livestock species. Many of the 402 pathogens are zoonoses and pose a risk of disease in humans as well. There is substantial literature 403 describing infectious diseases in deer, but very little of this is focused on deer in Australia. Indeed, 404 there is a scarcity of recent information describing basic screening of diseases in deer found in 405 Australia. Also of note was the deficiency of information available in the literature about the 406 pathogens infecting Asian deer species, such as sambar deer or hog deer, which makes it difficult to 407 assess their susceptibility and their potential contribution to disease risk in Australia. By far the 408 overwhelming majority of studies of cervid diseases relevant to Australia have come from research 409 in the UK on red and fallow deer (reviewed by Böhm et al. 2007).

We focused this review on a range of infectious agents that have the potential to be shared between domestic livestock and wild deer and are likely to be of economic importance to livestock farming. Given the current paucity of information, we found it particularly difficult to estimate the impact of diseases that are currently present within Australia, and for which an increase in deer abundance or

414 range may affect their incidence. The overall disease risk for the majority of pathogens was found to 415 be low, which was supported by the lack of evidence for clinical infection in deer to date. However, 416 some diseases, such as anthrax and bluetongue, which are currently present in Australia, are 417 considered to be medium risk based on a relatively low risk of transmission to or from livestock and 418 the moderate potential economic impacts they could have if wild deer were to play a role in future 419 outbreaks. Risk may be greatly underestimated if there is significant uncertainty around diseases 420 scored as 'medium' or 'low' due to limited knowledge of these diseases. The impact of variation in 421 knowledge and disease ranking would be worthy of further investigation.

422 Of the pathogens we considered, the majority are transmitted by contact with, or ingestion of, 423 contaminated excretory products in the environment, mostly via the faecal-oral route. Experimental 424 and natural transmission studies in deer have provided disease-specific evidence for the 425 transmission of many of the pathogens we examined. However, common susceptibility to a disease 426 does not necessarily equate to shared infection. Few studies have examined the natural 427 transmission of pathogens between livestock and deer, and modes of transmission are still not fully 428 understood in many cases (Frölich et al. 2002). The existence of a pathogen in either wild deer or 429 domestic ruminants is irrelevant to establishment of the disease in the other if the two populations 430 do not interact, either directly or indirectly (Hartley et al. 2013). A recent review by Pruvot et al. 431 (2014) also suggests that transmission route can be important when assessing the risk of pathogens 432 spreading between domestic and wild animals; indirectly transmitted pathogens are more easily 433 shared between species than directly transmitted ones, because they do not require a strict 434 temporal or spatial sympatry. Future work in Australia should focus on quantifying contact rates 435 between deer and livestock, in order to improve estimates of infection likelihood. This can be done 436 by using proximity loggers or animal-borne cameras, as demonstrated by Lavelle et al. (2014), or by 437 using molecular markers (Streicker et al. 2010, Allison et al. 2013, Faria et al. 2013).

438 Influence of deer ecology and density on disease risk

439 The behavioural ecology of each deer species influences its exposure risk to different diseases. 440 Sharing of habitat with livestock, as has been reported in sambar deer in Victoria, Australia 441 (Lindeman & Forsyth 2008), increases the risk of transmission via fomites, vector and aerosol spread. 442 Riparian habitat within agricultural regions can exacerbate disease risk, as deer may concentrate in 443 these areas, increasing between-group contact rates and spatial overlap (Nobert et al. 2016). Social 444 behaviour affects transmission between wild deer, as the number of contacts between conspecific 445 individuals influences the ability of a disease to become established (Hartley et al. 2013). Most deer 446 species present in Australia are gregarious (with the exception of sambar deer and hog deer),

forming large groups and thus increase the probability of disease spread (Animal Health Australia 2011, Sah et al. 2018). This may be especially relevant for two of the highly ranked diseases, bovine tuberculosis and foot and mouth disease. Male cervids may contribute disproportionately to the risk of transmission, through contact with multiple females during the breeding season across a range of spatial scales; or through contact with infectious agents at scent stations (Conner et al. 2008). Moreover, breeding interactions may leave male deer in poor condition and susceptible to disease.

453 The size of the host's home range influences the potential for disease transmission to livestock and 454 other deer herds, as it indicates the likely extent of movement of individual infected animals, and 455 therefore the geographical range over which each animal could transmit disease. In cervids, juvenile 456 males disperse from their natal home range, which could also contribute to the spread of disease 457 and movement of infection into new areas (Conner et al. 2008). Seasonal changes in food availability 458 may result in animals frequently making short-distance movements to more suitable habitats or 459 food sources (Conner et al. 2008), which may bring them into contact with livestock or cause them 460 to transmit disease to deer in uninfected areas. Unfortunately, little is known about the home range 461 sizes and seasonal movements of any of the deer species in Australia.

462 Current and future range expansions of deer into new locations may result in disease establishment 463 there, as these new environmental conditions may be more suitable for certain diseases. Range 464 expansions will also increase the risk of deer encountering other cervid species, livestock and farmed 465 deer. If deer expand into areas of high livestock density, disease establishment and maintenance in 466 the host deer population and spillback to livestock will become more likely (Böhm et al. 2007). The 467 risk of both direct and indirect disease transmission will be influenced by host density, and there is 468 likely to be a greater risk of transmission in areas of both high livestock density and high deer 469 density. Increasing deer abundance means an increased number of hosts available for the 470 transmission of disease, and a higher contact rate between hosts. These issues are likely to be 471 particularly relevant for three of the highly ranked diseases, bovine tuberculosis, foot and mouth 472 disease and malignant catarrhal fever, because high host densities can result in the disease 473 becoming established in the deer population. When sympatric host species share the same 474 infectious disease, multiple transmission pathways are possible (Woolhouse et al. 2001, Barron et al. 475 2015). Under such circumstances, multiple hosts can act as one large heterogeneous host 476 population, potentially exacerbating disease transmission and spread (Dobson 2004). Consequently, 477 increases in deer abundance may exacerbate the potential for disease persistence and spread in 478 livestock-deer communities.

479

480 Conclusion

481 Deer have the potential to play a significant role in the epidemiology of multiple livestock diseases, 482 both those that are currently present in Australia, and those that are absent, but have the potential 483 to become established in the future. Of the 38 pathogens we reviewed, five of these classify as of a 484 high risk for transmission by deer to Australian livestock. Of these five diseases, only one (malignant 485 catarrhal fever) is currently present in Australia, but all five are notifiable diseases at a national level. 486 Our review has revealed that there is little understanding or discussion of disease risks in deer within 487 the Australian literature. This is especially concerning as deer populations are large and expanding, 488 and it is likely that the eradication of exotic diseases through culling would be very challenging. 489 Furthermore, sambar deer and hog deer pose potential risks due to the dearth in understanding of 490 the ecology and disease epidemiology of these two species.

491 Our disease risk assessment can assist decision-makers by outlining high, medium and low risks of 492 diseases of concern. However, improvements in disease monitoring of Australian deer are required 493 to provide timely knowledge on disease incursion and spread, in order to minimise the risk of 494 impacts on both humans and livestock. At present, there are no disease surveillance programs 495 targeting deer in Australia. Hence, the feasibility of large-scale surveillance strategies for detecting 496 incursions of exotic disease or outbreaks of endemic disease in Australian deer populations should 497 be investigated. Large-scale surveillance programs of wild deer could be based on hunter-harvested 498 deer or on other forms of passive surveillance (e.g. public reporting of moribund or dead deer). 499 Successful examples of such passive surveillance programs utilising hunter-harvested deer include 500 bovine tuberculosis surveillance programs in France (Rivière et al. 2015) and in lower Michigan, USA 501 (O'Brien et al. 2006). These programs could serve as models for a surveillance program in Australia.

We apply the disease risk assessment to the Australian context, and provide a framework that can easily be adapted to different contexts. For example, in other locations where livestock farming is less extensive than in Australia, the three categories ('presence', 'distribution' and 'transmission') which are used to calculate the 'infected' score, can be altered as required. Our review highlights how a qualitative risk assessment can be used to ascertain which diseases pose the highest risk and where gaps in knowledge inhibit our understanding and risk of disease transmission, making our approach relevant to scientists, wildlife managers, and livestock industry workers worldwide.

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516	
517	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
518	
519	Additional supplemental material may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the
520	end of the article.
521	
522	Appendix S1. Web of Science, Scopus and Google Scholar search terms used to review the literature
523	on the pathogens of deer and livestock and disease risk.
524	Appendix S2. Notes on the process of assessing the risk of disease entry into Australia.
525	Appendix S3. Summary details on diseases ranked as 'low' or 'medium' in the disease risk
526	assessment.
527	

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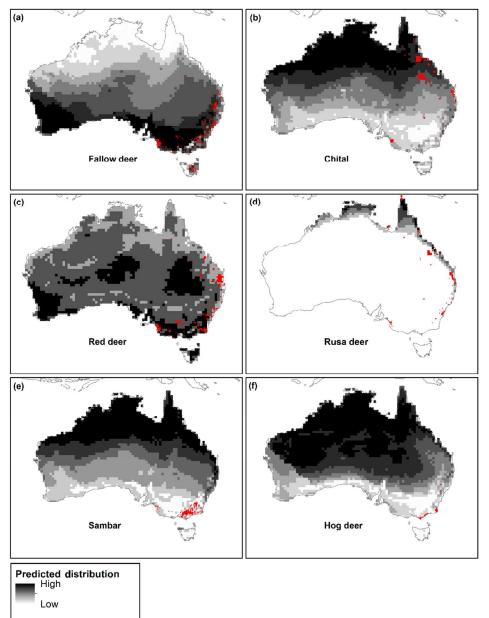
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Figure 1.

Current (red; West 2011) and potential distribution (greyscale) of the six deer species established in the wild in Australia (republished from Davis *et al.* 2016). The potential distributions were estimated using the Climatch algorithm (Invasive Animals CRC 2011).



Current distribution

Table 2. Pathogens and parasites of concern for both deer and livestock species in Australia, and their likely transmission routes. Vertical transmission takes place from mother to offspring

* Infected under experimental transmission only

combined due to similar epidemiology and clinical signs

Pathogen	Disease	Host deer species	Host domestic species	Transmission route	Present in Australia?	References
Bacterial						
Mycobacterium bovis	Tuberculosis	Red deer, fallow deer chital	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Respiratory, faecal-oral, urinary-oral, contact with infected skin/wounds	No	Coleman & Cooke 2001 Simpson 2002 Böhm et al. 2007 Siembieda et al. 2011 De Lisle et al. 2001
<i>Mycobacterium avium</i> spp. complex	Johne's disease Paratuberculosis	Red deer, fallow deer, chital, sambar	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer	Faecal-oral, vertical	Yes	Mackintosh et al. 2004 Simpson 2002 Böhm et al. 2007 Siembieda et al. 2011 Coelho et al. 2013
Leptospira spp.	Leptospirosis	Red deer, fallow deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Urinary-oral, ingestion (e.g. water)	Yes	Mackintosh et al. 2002 Böhm et al. 2007 Siembieda et al. 2011 Miller et al. 2013 Ellis 2015
Salmonella spp.	Salmonella	Red deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Faecal-oral, ingestion	Yes	Mackintosh et al. 2002 Sanchez et al. 2002 Böhm et al. 2007
Brucella spp.	Brucellosis	Red deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Reproductive-oral	Yes	Corbel 1997 Böhm et al. 2007 Conner et al. 2008
Bacillis anthracis	Anthrax	Red deer, fallow deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, horses	Ingestion (e.g. soil, water)	Yes	Mackintosh et al. 2002 Siembieda et al. 2011
Yersinia spp.	Yersiniosis	Red deer, fallow deer, chital	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Faecal-oral, ingestion	Yes	Mackintosh et al. 2002 Jerrett et al. 1990 Böhm et al. 2007 Mair 1973
Chlamydia spp.	Chlamydiosis	Red deer, fallow deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs	Faecal-oral, urinary-oral	Yes	Mohamad & Rodolakis 2010 Salinas et al. 2009

Pathogen	Disease	Host deer species	Host domestic species	Transmission route	Present in Australia?	References
N:						
Viral						
Aphthae epizooticae	Foot-and-mouth	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Respiratory,	No	Haigh et al. 2002
	disease	fallow deer,	goats, pigs, deer	faecal-oral,		Simpson 2002
		sambar		urinary-oral		Sutmoller et al. 2003
						Böhm et al. 2007
Flavivirus	Louping ill	Red deer	Sheep, cattle	Vector –borne	No	Simpson 2002
			(occasionally),	(tick)		Callan & Van Metre 2004
			pigs, horses, deer			Böhm et al. 2007
Orbivirus	Epizootic	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Vector –borne	Yes	Haigh et al. 2002
	haemorrhagic	fallow deer	deer	(midge)		Maclachlan et al. 2015a
	disease,					Maclachlan et al. 2015b
	bluetongue					
Ephemerovirus	Bovine ephemeral	Red deer	Cattle	Vector –borne	Yes	St George 1988
	fever			(unknown)		Nandi & Negi 1999
						Haigh et al. 2002
Pestivirus	Bovine viral	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral,	Yes	Haigh et al. 2002
	diarrhoea disease	fallow deer	goats, deer	urinary-oral,		Simpson 2002
			0	reproductive-oral,		Böhm et al. 2007
				vertical		
Parapoxvirus	Parapoxvirus	Red deer	Cattle, sheep,	Contact with	Yes	Horner et al. 1987
,			goats, deer	infected		Haigh et al. 2002
			0	skin/wounds		Scagliarini et al. 2011
Gammaherpesvirus	Malignant catarrhal	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Respiratory,	Yes	Heuschele et al. 1984
,	fever	fallow deer,	pigs, deer	vertical		Mackintosh 1992
		sambar,		wind-borne		Haigh et al. 2002
		hog deer				.
Alphaherpesvirus	Infectious bovine	Red deer,	Cattle, deer	Respiratory,	Yes	Nettleton et al. 1988
,	rhinotracheitis,	fallow deer	,	vertical		Engels & Ackermann 1996
	cervid herpesvirus					Haigh et al. 2002
						Callan & Van Metre 2004
Prion diseases						
	Chronic wasting	Fallow deer*,	NA	Respiratory,	No	Williams et al. 2002
	disease	red deer		faecal-oral,		Williams 2005
				urinary-oral,		Hartley et al. 2013

Pathogen	Disease	Host deer species	Host domestic species	Transmission route	Present in Australia?	References
		·		contact with infected material		
Parasites - Nemato	des					
Ostertagia spp.		Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral	Yes	Presidente 1978
		fallow deer	goats, deer.			Bisset 1980
						Barth & Matzke 1984
						Taylor et al. 2007
Haemonchus spp.		Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral	Yes	McKenzie 1985
		fallow deer,	goats, deer			Ferté et al. 2000
		hog deer				Taylor et al. 2007
						Chintoan-Uta et al. 2014
Spiculopteragia spp).	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral	Yes	Andrews 1973
		fallow deer,	goats, deer			Rehbein & Haupt 1994
		sambar				
<i>Cooperia</i> spp.		Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral	Yes	Taylor et al. 2007
		fallow deer,	goats, deer			Tapia-Escárate et al. 2015
		sambar				
Dictyocaulus spp.		Red deer,	Cattle, deer	Faecal-oral	Yes	Simpson 2002
		fallow deer,				Johnson et al. 2003
		sambar				Taylor et al. 2007
Oesophagostomum	1	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral	Yes	Andrews 1973
spp.		fallow deer,	goats, pigs, deer			Taylor et al. 2007
		sambar				Tapia-Escárate et al. 2015
Trichostrongylus sp	р.	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Faecal-oral	Yes	Taylor et al. 2007
		fallow deer,	goats, pigs, deer			Tapia-Escárate et al. 2015
		sambar,				
		hog deer				
Elaphostrongylus ce	ervi	Red deer	Sheep, goats, deer	Intermediate host	No	Handeland et al. 2000
				(gastropod)		Böhm et al. 2006
						Taylor et al. 2007
Parasites - Tremato	odes					
Fasciola spp.	Liver flukes	Red deer,	Cattle, sheep,	Intermediate host	Yes	Samuel et al. 2001
		fallow deer,	deer	(gastropod)		Taylor et al. 2007
		sambar				Malcicka 2015
Dicrocoelium	Lancet fluke	Red deer,	Sheep, deer	Intermediate	No	Samuel et al. 2001
dendriticum		fallow deer		hosts (gastropods		

Pathogen	Disease	Host deer species	Host domestic species	Transmission route	Present in Australia?	References
		•		and ants)		
Paramphistomes	Rumen flukes	Red deer, fallow deer	Cattle, sheep, deer	Intermediate host (gastropod)	Yes	Skuce & Zadoks 2013 O'Toole et al. 2014
Parasites - Cestodes						
Taenia hydatigena		Red deer, fallow deer, sambar	Cattle, sheep, goats, deer	Faecal-oral	Yes	Samuel et al. 2001 Taylor et al. 2007
Echinococcus granulosus		Red deer, fallow deer	Sheep	Faecal-oral	Yes	Jenkins 2005 Taylor et al. 2007
Parasites - Protozoa						
Giardia spp. and Cryptosporidium spp. [#]	Giardiasis Cryptosporidiosis	Red deer, sambar	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Faecal-oral	Yes	Samuel et al. 2001 Ryan & Power 2012
Neospora caninum	Neosporosis	Red deer, fallow deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer, horses	Faecal-oral, vertical	Yes	Donahoe et al. 2015 Dubey 1999
Trypanosoma evansi	Surra	Sambar, hog deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer	Vector –borne (tabanid flies)	No	Reid 2002 Desquesnes et al. 2013
Sarcocystis spp.		Red deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer	Faecal-oral	Yes	Levine & Tadros 1980 Kutkienė 2003
Eimeria spp.		Red deer, fallow deer	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer	Faecal-oral	Yes	Daugschies & Najdrowski 2005
Parasites - Ectoparasite	25					
Rhipicephalus microplus	Cattle tick infestation	Red deer	Cattle	Direct	Yes	George 1990 Barré et al. 2002
Chrysomya bezziana	Screw-worm fly infestation	Fallow deer, sambar	Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, deer	Direct	No	Spradbery & Tozer 2013 Welch et al. 2014

Table 3. Qualitative assessment of disease risk for deer and livestock in Australia. The pathogens and parasites are listed in Table 2, the method for the overall assessment is explained in Table 1. 'Susceptible' refers to the degree to which there is certainty that the six deer species considered are susceptible to the pathogen. 'Infected' refers to the likelihood of these deer species acquiring the infection given that they are exposed to the pathogen (based on whether the pathogen is present or has a likely risk of being introduced into Australia, the geographical distribution of the pathogen and its route of transmission). Risks are tabulated for the likelihood that, once present in deer populations in Australia, this pathogen will infect livestock, and conversely, the likelihood of deer being infected if the pathogen is present in livestock. 'Impact' refers to the potential additional economic impact that a disease would have on Australian livestock farming, should deer become an additional route of transmission.

Pathogen	Disease	Susceptible	Infected	Infecting livestock	Being infected by livestock	Impact	Overall assessment
Bacterial							
Mycobacterium bovis	Tuberculosis	High	Medium	Medium	Low	High	High
Mycobacterium avium spp. complex	Johne's disease Paratuberculosis	High	High	Medium	Low	Low	Medium
Leptospira spp.	Leptospirosis	High	High	Low	Medium	Low	Medium
Salmonella spp.	Salmonella	Medium	High	Low	Medium	Low	Low
Brucella spp.	Brucellosis	Medium	High	Low	Medium	Low	Low
Bacillis anthracis	Anthrax	High	Medium	Low	Low	Medium	Medium
Yersinia spp.	Yersiniosis	Medium	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Chlamydia spp.	Chlamydia	Medium	High	Low	Medium	Medium	Medium
Viral							
Aphthae epizooticae	Foot-and-mouth disease	High	High	Medium	Medium	High	High
Flavivirus	Louping ill	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low
Orbivirus	Epizootic haemorrhagic	High	Medium	Low	Low	Medium	Medium

Pathogen	Disease	Susceptible	Infected	Infecting livestock	Being infected by livestock	Impact	Overall assessment
	disease, bluetongue						
Ephemerovirus	Bovine ephemeral fever	High	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Pestivirus	Bovine viral diarrhoea disease	High	High	Medium	Medium	Low	Medium
Parapoxvirus	Parapoxvirus	High	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Gammaherpesvir us	Malignant catarrhal fever	High	Medium	Low	Medium	High	High
Alphaherpesvirus	Infectious bovine rhinotracheitis, cervid herpesvirus	High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Prion diseases							
	Chronic wasting disease	High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Parasites - Nematodes							
Ostertagia spp.		High	High	Low	Medium	Low	Medium
Haemonchus spp.		High	High	Low	Medium	Low	Medium
<i>Spiculopteragia</i> spp.		High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Cooperia spp.		High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Dictyocaulus spp.		High	High	Medium	Low	Low	Medium
Oesophagostomu m spp.		High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Trichostrongylus spp.		High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low

Pathogen	Disease	Susceptible	Infected	Infecting livestock	Being infected by livestock	Impact	Overall assessment
Elaphostrongylus cervi		High	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Parasites - Trematodes							
Fasciola spp.	Liver flukes	High	High	Medium	Medium	Low	Medium
Dicrocoelium dendriticum	Lancet fluke	High	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Paramphistomes	Rumen flukes	High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Parasites - Cestodes							
Taenia hydatigena		High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Echinococcus granulosus		High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Parasites - Protozo	a						
Giardia spp. and Cryptosporidium spp.	Giardiasis Cryptosporidiosis	High	High	Low	Medium	Low	Medium
Neospora caninum	Neosporosis	High	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Trypanosoma evansi	Surra	High	Medium	High	Medium	High	High
Sarcocystis spp.		High	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Eimeria spp.		Low	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Parasites - Ectopasites							
Rhipicephalus microplus	Cattle tick infestation	Low	Medium	Low	Low	Low	Low
Chrysomya	Screw-worm fly	High	High	High	High	Medium	High

Pathogen	Disease	Susceptible	Infected	Infecting livestock	Being infected by livestock	Impact	Overall assessment
bezziana	infestation						