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1 **Regional variation in livestock management in feeding habitat areas of red-**
2 **billed chough in Great Britain and the Isle of Man**

3 Nicholas N Jonsson^{1*}, Gillian Gilbert², Fiona S MacGillivray²,

4 1. University of Glasgow, Institute of Biodiversity, Animal Health and Comparative
5 Medicine, Glasgow, G61 1QH, UK

6 2. Royal Society for Protection of Birds, Centre for Conservation Science, 10 Park
7 Quadrant, Glasgow G3 6BS, UK

8

9 * Corresponding author. 464 Bearsden Rd. Bearsden, United Kingdom, G61 1QH

10 nicholas.jonsson@glasgow.ac.uk

11

12 **Abstract**

13 In Great Britain, red billed chough (*Pyrrhocorax pyrrhocorax*) breed in discrete
14 populations along the west coast: on Islay and Colonsay, in the Inner Hebrides of
15 Scotland; on the Isle of Man; in Wales; and in Cornwall. Chough are dependent on
16 pastures grazed by cattle and sheep, and their survival is therefore dependent on
17 sympathetic management of grassland. The Scottish population is in decline and all
18 other populations are growing or stable. Sixty-three farmers in these locations whose
19 farms were known to support feeding chough were asked questions about their farm
20 management using a structured, questionnaire-based personal interview. Islay farms
21 were significantly larger and had more grazing area, with the lowest stocking
22 densities. Welsh farms had the least cropping area and the smallest number of
23 cattle. Cornwall had the smallest number of sheep per farm. Welsh farms were more
24 likely not to house cattle during winter. Liver fluke in sheep and ticks and tick-borne
25 disease were a higher concern on Islay than other locations and abortion in sheep
26 was of highest concern on the Isle of Man. Islay farmers used between four and 13
27 times as many treatments per year as farmers at other locations and the application

28 rate of triclabendazole (TCBZ) was higher on Islay. The rate of application of other
29 products, including macrocyclic lactones ML, did not differ among locations. The
30 study described here shows clear differences in the farm grazing management, in
31 the priority given to animal health problems and in the frequency of application of
32 veterinary parasiticides among four locations that provide feeding habitat for chough
33 in the UK. These differences suggest that the viability of chough populations might
34 be favoured by higher intensity grazing, and by low rates of application of veterinary
35 parasiticides of either the TCBZ or synthetic pyrethroid SP, or both classes of
36 parasiticides.

37 Key words

38 Anthelmintic; acaricide; coleoptera; diptera; synthetic pyrethroids; triclabendazole

39 **Introduction**

40 Red billed chough (*Pyrrhocorax pyrrhocorax*, hereafter referred to as chough) breed
41 in four small, discrete populations along the west coast of Great Britain: on Islay and
42 Colonsay, in the Inner Hebrides of Scotland; on the Isle of Man; in Wales; and in
43 Cornwall, England. Chough are dependent on pastures grazed by cattle and sheep,
44 and their survival is therefore dependent on sympathetic management of grassland.
45 These populations are relatively isolated, with infrequent gene flow (Wenzel et al.
46 2012) and are localised to (but do not completely fill) a climatic zone which is
47 comparatively warm and humid with a reduced annual temperature range due to
48 oceanic influence (Monaghan et al. 1989). Scottish chough have declined by 35%,
49 whereas the GB and Isle of Man population overall has increased by 60% since
50 1992 (Hayhow et al., 2018). Unprecedentedly low first year survival from 2007,
51 during the post-fledging period threatens the viability of Scottish chough (Reid et al.

52 2008, 2011). Supplementary feeding led to increased survival, suggesting that food
53 availability was limiting (Bignal & Bignal 2011). Chough have a greater reliance on
54 invertebrate prey than other corvids, with evidence of chough on Islay having more
55 dung-associated insects in their diet than those elsewhere in Great Britain (Warnes
56 1982, Warnes & Stroud 1989, McKay 1996, MacGillivray et al. 2018). Observations
57 during the post-fledging period on Islay showed dung to be an important source of
58 food, significantly more so for young birds (Gilbert et al. 2019a). Dung invertebrates
59 formed the majority of the biomass of chough diets from dune pastures on Islay
60 during this period, and tipulid larvae the majority of chough dietary biomass on other
61 pastures (MacGillivray et al. 2018). Aphodius (dung beetle) larvae were scarce in the
62 diet, despite having been a major component in the 1980s, suggesting that their
63 availability had declined (MacGillivray et al. 2018).

64 Macrocytic lactones (ML), predominantly ivermectins, have long been known to
65 affect the abundance of dung-associated insects (Wall & Strong, 1987; Suarez et al.
66 2003; McCracken 1992; McCracken & Foster 1993; Adler et al., 2016; Bai et al.
67 2016), and organisations that promote conservation-friendly farming often
68 recommend its avoidance in animals on pasture (ECRDP, 2016). However, there are
69 reports in the literature that other veterinary parasiticides from distinct classes can
70 adversely affect dung-associated insect species (eg Beynon et al., 2012; 2015) and
71 these reports have not been translated into recommendations for avoidance or
72 reduction of use. We recently conducted a large scale field study in which we
73 compared invertebrate abundance in dung from cattle that had been treated with
74 deltamethrin (a synthetic pyrethroid, SP, used to treat fly and tick infestations), with
75 triclabendazole (TCBZ, a product used to control liver fluke infestations), and with
76 control, untreated dung, in two successive years. We recorded relatively few adult

77 dung invertebrates overall, and found that numbers of larvae, particularly Dipteran
78 larvae, were significantly reduced in both years by as much as 86% when the two
79 treatments were combined (Gilbert et al. 2019b).

80 The present study was conducted to identify the priority areas of concern in relation
81 to animal health in the areas of chough habitat in mainland Great Britain and to
82 quantify their use in sheep and cattle. We also wished to determine the extent to
83 which livestock grazed pasture continuously through the year and the stocking
84 densities in each of the areas.

85 **Materials and Methods**

86 ***Data collection***

87 A questionnaire was designed for use in direct, personal interviews by trained staff
88 and was pilot-tested on three sheep/cattle mixed farmers from south-west Scotland
89 prior to minor modifications to improve the clarity of the questions. The
90 questionnaire, and anonymous data are available from the University of Glasgow
91 data repository (<http://dx.doi.org/10.5525/gla.researchdata.839>). Ethical approval
92 was granted under the University of Glasgow MVLS Ethics Committee (Application
93 200150194, 2016). Farms on which chough were known to feed were identified by
94 RSPB staff working in each of the areas and contacted by telephone or in person to
95 arrange an interview. Figure 1 depicts 10 km squares in which chough are present,
96 and which of those 10 km squares also had at least one farm for which questionnaire
97 data was obtained. There was the following proportion of 10 km chough breeding
98 squares, also with questionnaire data: Scotland 10/14, IoM 3/13, Wales 23/74 and
99 Cornwall 6/8. Responses were recorded on printed record sheets, which were
100 assigned a key and then transcribed in anonymised form, into an excel spreadsheet

101 prior to analysis using R (R core team 2016). Veterinary products were recorded in
102 the questionnaire by their trade name, which was subsequently referenced using the
103 Veterinary Medicines Directorate (VMD) Product Information Database
104 (<https://www.vmd.defra.gov.uk/ProductInformationDatabase/Default.aspx>) to
105 determine the active compound. For analysis, active compounds were aggregated
106 into the following groups: macrocyclic lactones, organophosphorous products,
107 synthetic pyrethroids, closantel, benzimidazoles, triclabendazole, nitroxylinil,
108 dicyclanil.

109 ***Data analysis***

110 All continuous data were initially checked for normality by plotting as histograms and
111 application of the Shapiro-Wilk test. Almost all variables showed strong right-
112 skewness and were not normally distributed, but their log-transformations were
113 normal. The area of land allocated for cropping was not readily transformed, so it
114 was converted to a categorical vector with three levels (“No Cropping”, “Cropping <
115 10 Ha”, “Cropping \geq 10 Ha”). The level of concern by farmers for each of the animal
116 health problems is a categorical variable and the statistical analysis was conducted
117 using contingency tables, with Fisher’s exact test, but means are presented for ease
118 of interpretation as if they were a continuous variable. This is justified on the basis
119 that results of almost all rating systems in common use are (incorrectly) presented to
120 the general public as if they were continuous variables. To determine whether
121 prioritisation by location was biased by any location-specific tendency to be
122 concerned about health issues in general, an index of concern was established for
123 cattle and sheep farmers. This index was an unweighted arithmetic mean of each
124 farmer’s priority scores for each of the health problems. These were then compared
125 among regions using the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test. The number of applications of

126 products was treated as a discrete, continuous variable and contrasts were drawn
127 among locations using the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test with no attempt at
128 transformation. Multivariate relationships were explored using nested generalized
129 linear models with total grazing area, number of livestock, livestock density nested in
130 location. However in all of the cases in which location was a significant factor in the
131 univariate analysis, the addition of the other variables did not substantially improve
132 the model fit. Hence, we present here only the results of univariate analysis, with
133 location as the only factor that was tested.

134 **Results**

135 Farms and data: 63 observations were recorded on 63 variables. The survey
136 covered 15 farms in Cornwall, 23 on Islay (including 3 on Colonsay and 1 on
137 Oronsay), 3 on Isle of Man and 22 in Wales (Figure 1). Table 1 summarises the farm
138 characteristics and shows that with the exception of months of housing for cattle
139 (among those farms that did house cattle), each characteristic differed significantly
140 by location. Islay farms were significantly larger and had more grazing area, with the
141 lowest stocking densities (Figure 2). Welsh farms had the least cropping area and
142 the smallest number of cattle (Figure 3). Cornwall had the smallest number of sheep
143 per farm. Welsh farms were more likely not to house cattle during winter.

144 The priority given by farmers to health problems in cattle and sheep are summarised
145 in Tables 2 and 3 respectively. The first line of each table is an index of overall
146 priority, which did not differ significantly among locations for either sheep or cattle.
147 Most health problems were given more or less equal priority in each of the locations,
148 with the exceptions of fluke in sheep (highest on Islay, $P = 0.0099$), ticks and tick-
149 borne disease (TTBD) in cattle (highest on Islay, $P = 0.050$), and abortion in sheep

150 (highest on Isle of Man, $P = 0.047$). Islay farmers also tended to have the highest
151 concern regarding TTBD in sheep ($P = 0.06$) and fluke in cattle ($P = 0.06$). Concern
152 about diarrhoea in cattle and bovine viral diarrhoea virus (BVDV) in cattle tended to be
153 lower among Welsh farmers ($P = 0.06$ and 0.08 respectively).

154 Table 4 shows the median and mean numbers of TCBZ, SP and ML treatments
155 applied to cattle and sheep, by location. The greatest difference among locations
156 was noted for the application of SP products to cattle, of which Islay farmers used
157 between four and 13 times as many treatments per year as farmers at other
158 locations ($P = 0.00024$, see also Figure 4). The application rate of TCBZ was also
159 significantly higher on Islay ($P = 0.0085$). The rate of application of other products,
160 including ML did not differ among locations.

161 **Discussion**

162 The primary aim of the investigation was to draw contrasts among discrete regions
163 that support feeding chough with respect to farm characteristics (primarily indices of
164 grazing intensity), the priority areas of concern in relation to livestock health, and the
165 frequency of application of veterinary parasiticides to sheep and cattle. It is clearly
166 not possible to draw inferences of causality from a cross-sectional observational
167 study such as this, but the study was intended to generate hypotheses to be tested
168 by intervention studies. The main contrast of interest is between the Scottish farms
169 of the Inner Hebrides (here identified as “Islay”, including Oronsay and Colonsay), on
170 which the population of chough has been in steep decline in recent decades, and all
171 other populations, which have been stable or growing (Hayhow et al., 2018). The
172 study provides clear evidence that the Islay farms were larger, had lower overall
173 grazing intensity and used a higher rate of application of SP and TCBZ products.

174 Chough choose to feed in fields with higher livestock density as these have short
175 grazed vegetation, opening up easier access to soil invertebrates, as well as
176 providing a source of dung invertebrates (Gilbert et al. 2019). A high proportion of
177 out-wintered cattle results in the continuous presence of fresh dung in fields
178 throughout the year, which is favourable for a more diverse and abundant dung-
179 associated insect population (Lane & Mann 2016), hence is more favourable for a
180 reliable feed resource for chough. The SP and TCBZ product groups have both been
181 shown to cause depletion of dung-associated insects in the Hebridean environment
182 (Gilbert et al., 2019). Hence, our observations in relation to livestock management
183 are consistent with the hypothesis that the relatively poor performance of chough
184 populations in Scotland might be linked to the combination of high rates of
185 application of TCBZ and SP products, together with overall low stocking densities
186 and a high rate of housing of cattle over winter.

187 It is not surprising that there are differences in farm characteristics and health
188 priorities among the areas studied. The mix of agricultural activities carried out in
189 each of the locations, and how they are conducted, are at least partly determined by
190 physical geography, which differs substantially among them. According to the
191 Scottish Government, all of the Inner Hebrides of Scotland are classified as less
192 favoured areas, in the category of “severely disadvantaged” (Scottish Government,
193 2019). In contrast, few of the other areas of chough habitat in which farms were
194 surveyed were classified as less favoured areas and none as “severely
195 disadvantaged” (DEFRA, 2019). The larger size and lower overall stocking rates on
196 Islay probably reflect its lower potential for livestock production. Livestock farmers on
197 the island are subject to financial disadvantages relative to those on the mainland.
198 There is no market premium for island-produced store lambs or cattle, and the cost

219 of transportation to finishing units on the mainland is a penalty. Regardless of the
220 reasons for the difference, our survey showed that the average stocking density on
221 Islay farms was significantly lower than in other locations (see Table 1 and Figure 2).
222 Average stocking rate is not a good indicator of effective stocking rate from an
223 ecological perspective because stocking density is not homogeneous across a farm,
224 so some caution is required in interpretation. Nonetheless, the contrasts between
225 Islay and Isle of Man or Islay and Cornwall stocking density are marked. Previous
226 work on Islay has shown that chough did feed in fields in which the stocking density
227 exceeded 4.2 livestock units/Ha and did not feed in fields in which the stocking
228 density was 2.0 livestock units/Ha (Gilbert et al., 2019a). It may therefore be the
229 case that only relatively small areas of the large Islay farms provide good feeding
230 opportunities for chough.

231 The greater concerns about ticks and tick-borne diseases registered by farmers on
232 Islay are possibly a consequence of high densities of deer, although we have no
233 information on the relative densities of deer in the different locations. Red deer and
234 roe deer are definitive hosts in the UK for *Ixodes ricinus*, the main tick species of
235 concern to livestock owners in the UK, and a strong correlation between abundance
236 of deer and of *I ricinus* has been shown previously (Gilbert et al., 2012, for example).
237 Several farmers mentioned that the declining profitability of livestock production on
238 the island had resulted in the relatively recent conversion of several large estates
239 from predominantly livestock-grazing farms to sport-shooting estates, which was
240 followed by noticeable increases in the frequency of deer sightings on their own
241 farms. The economically important diseases known to be transmitted by this tick are
242 louping-ill virus, tick-borne fever (*Anaplasma phagocytophilum*), red-water (*Babesia*
243 spp) and tick pyaemia (*Staphylococcus aureus*). There is no recent, accessible

224 information regarding the occurrence of deer, ticks, or tick-borne diseases on Islay in
225 comparison with the other locations in the study, but the significantly higher level of
226 concern about ticks expressed by farmers on Islay suggests that there is a relatively
227 greater problem there with ticks and the diseases they transmit. The index of overall
228 concern about disease did not differ significantly among locations for either sheep or
229 cattle, however it should be noted that for both species, Islay had the numerically
230 higher mean score. Hence the possibility of a Type-II error (accepting the null
231 hypothesis when there is a true difference) must be considered. It is possible that
232 generally poor economic conditions for farmers on the island resulted in greater
233 sensitivity to health problems in general.

234 Islay farmers were more concerned with liver fluke (fasciolosis) in sheep than
235 farmers in other areas. There is no immediately obvious possible explanation for this
236 concern being higher in Islay than the other areas because historical data suggest
237 that, broadly speaking, each of the locations has a similarly high risk of fasciolosis
238 (Fox et al., 2011). *Fasciola hepatica*, the parasite that causes the disease, passes
239 one stage of its life-cycle in a snail intermediate host (*Galba truncatula*), which is
240 dependent on the presence of standing water in and around drains, streams, dams
241 or ponds or on generally wet conditions in fields. Predictions for the years 2020-2070
242 under climate change conditions suggest that the risk of fasciolosis will increase
243 more or less equally in each of the four areas where chough are currently found (Fox
244 et al., 2011). It is possible that the perceived higher risk of disease on Islay derives
245 from different management practices or from alternative hosts. French et al. (2016)
246 demonstrated a prevalence of liver fluke infection of red deer ranging from 9 to 53%
247 in the Scottish highlands. Hares have also been shown to be a reservoir of infection
248 with sometimes high prevalence, and to have the same genotypes of flukes as cattle

249 that were grazing in the same pasture (Walker et al., 2011). Wildlife hosts will act as
250 refugia for a parasite, enabling them to complete their life-cycle without exposure to
251 anthelmintic drugs that are applied to domestic livestock. The extent to which the
252 density of wildlife reservoirs varies among the locations in our study is not known.

253 The frequency of veterinary parasiticide application varied among the regions, but
254 there was also considerable variation within region. On Islay, where SP application
255 to cattle and TCBZ application to sheep were higher than in other areas, some farms
256 used no product or infrequent treatments, whereas others used very high rates of
257 application. It is not known whether this reflects true differences in the parasite
258 challenge or disease occurrence among farms, or is a result of different levels of risk
259 aversion among the farmers. For tick-borne diseases and liver fluke, there is no
260 simple method of safely and reliably assessing the risk of disease occurring in an
261 individual animal until it is too late. There are very few reports in the peer-reviewed
262 literature on the reasons why farmers are motivated to treat when they do.

263 Anthelmintic applications for sheep flocks in the UK have been reported to be
264 predominantly “blue-print” based, with treatments administered according to pre-
265 determined plans (Taylor, 2012), so treatments are usually prophylactic and
266 treatment frequency relates to risk-averseness of the farmer. On many farms, for
267 both problems, this can result in high frequency, suppressive treatments, as seen in
268 the present study. In the UK, the most widely accepted recommendations for
269 parasite control of sheep and cattle are provided by consortia of government and
270 non-government organisations from within the livestock industries (Taylor, 2012). For
271 sheep the consortium is SCOPS (Sustainable Control of Parasites in Sheep -
272 <https://www.scops.org.uk/>) and for cattle it is COWS (Control of Worms Sustainably -
273 <https://www.cattleparasites.org.uk/>). Both consortia make recommendations for the

274 control of fasciolosis, however they are not prescriptive and revolve around local and
275 seasonal knowledge of likely fluke challenge. The use of faecal egg-counts (counts
276 of the eggs of parasites in the faeces of the host) and faecal immunoassays to
277 indicate infection status are advocated, although the interpretation of both tests is
278 challenging. Sustainable control in the context of SCOPS and COWS relates to the
279 preservation of effective anthelmintic products by delaying drug resistance, and
280 whereas a major tenet of management of drug resistance is the reduction in
281 anthelmintic use, the emphasis in SCOPS and COWS is on correct treatment to
282 prevent under-dosing, according to 5 elements (“The five R’s - The RIGHT product
283 for the type of worm, the RIGHT animal, the RIGHT time, the RIGHT dose rate,
284 administered in the RIGHT way”). Recommendations relating to the environment in
285 SCOPS technical manual for sheep (Abbott et al., 2014) are restricted to the
286 following statement.

287 “Where fluke infection is present, identification and exclusion of snail habitats
288 from livestock offers some measure of control. Drainage eliminates the snail
289 and offers an effective means of control, but the proliferation of environmental
290 schemes to protect wetland areas has reduced the opportunities for this to be
291 implemented. Simply keeping stock off the wettest fields in the autumn and
292 the winter, when the incidence of disease is at its highest, can reduce the risk
293 from fluke.”

294 SCOPS and COWS are relatively silent regarding ticks. SCOPS makes no
295 recommendations for tick control in sheep. COWS states only the following (COWS,
296 2019).

297 “A range of pour on pyrethroids or MLs may give protection, although none in
298 the UK have a label claim for cattle against ticks at present, so must be used
299 under the cascade system. Products will need to be reapplied at regular
300 intervals during the tick season to achieve sustained protection.”

301 In practice, as elucidated from the survey and from personal experience of one of the
302 authors (NNJ), producers who are concerned about the risk of ticks in sheep and
303 cattle try to exclude susceptible younger stock from fields in which they know the risk
304 of tick infestation is very high (usually those with poorest quality grazing and high
305 densities of bracken, gorse and heather). In addition to this they use prophylactic
306 treatments during the times of year when they consider the risk of infestation to be
307 high. The rate of application of TCBZ and SP on farms on Islay was higher than on
308 farms in all other locations. Both compounds have been shown to significantly and
309 substantially reduce the abundance of dung-associated insects (Gilbert et al.,
310 2019b). The wide range in frequency of applications used in a relatively small
311 location suggests that a) there is very large inter-farm variation in parasite challenge,
312 b) some farmers are using more treatments than necessary, or c) some farmers are
313 using fewer treatments than necessary. At present, in the absence of any reliable
314 quantitative information on parasite challenge or on the true effect of commonly used
315 treatment strategies, each of the three possibilities seems to be quite likely true.

316 Cross-sectional, observational studies are subject to bias due to unbalanced sample
317 selection. Thus, although the coverage of all farms on which chough were known to
318 feed differed among areas (Scotland 10/14, IoM 3/13, Wales 23/74 and Cornwall
319 6/8), in selecting farms known to RSPB staff to be used by feeding chough, and
320 which were believed to provide proportional representation of the types of habitat
321 encountered in each area, we have attempted to minimise bias. However it is

322 possible that a) RSPB staff were more inclined to contact farmers with whom there is
323 already a relationship, and that this differential approach rate differed among
324 locations, or b) the participation refusal-rate by farmers who were contacted by
325 RSPB differed by location. It is not possible to definitively verify equivalence of these
326 factors among locations although there is no immediately obvious reason why
327 location-specific differences would be expected. The limited size of the dataset, its
328 unbalanced design and the diversity of product use ensured that multivariate
329 analysis would be relatively uninformative. This was not considered to be a problem
330 in light of the objectives of the study. It is expected that the effect of location on
331 animal health priority and on the frequency of parasiticide application is a
332 consequence of location-specific geo-climatic and socio-economic factors interacting
333 with farm management factors, including the stocking density and the propensity to
334 housing of livestock. Identifying these factors and their interactions, and quantifying
335 their importance with a view to designing effective interventions is the focus of our
336 on-going work in this area.

337

338 The study described here shows clear differences in the farm grazing management,
339 in the priority given to animal health problems and in the frequency of application of
340 veterinary parasiticides among four locations that are occupied by chough in the UK.
341 These differences are consistent with the hypothesis that the viability of chough
342 populations is favoured by higher intensity grazing, and by low rates of application of
343 veterinary parasiticides of either the TCBZ, SP, or both classes of parasiticides.

344 **Competing interests**

345 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Table 1. Summary of median and mean of farm characteristics by location, with estimate of p-value and significance from analysis of variance using log-transformed data, with the exception of cropping area, which is derived from a contingency table of three levels of grazing area (“No Cropping”, “Cropping < 10 Ha”, “Cropping ≥ 10 Ha”).

Characteristic	Location				p-value	sig
	Islay n=24	Cornwall n=15	Isle of Man n=3	Wales n=22		
Median Farm Area (Ha)	500	105	101	162	0.00063	**
Mean Farm Area (Ha)	718	167	158	225		
Median Grazing Area (Ha)	445	100	101	142	0.00019	***
Mean Grazing Area (Ha)	668	114	144	191		
Median Cropping Area (Ha)	10	7.0	6.0	0.0	7.1×10 ⁻⁶	***
Mean Cropping Area (Ha)	26.4	37.5	12.8	1.9		
Median Max N Sheep	550	0	720	360	0.0022	**
Mean Max N Sheep	805	82	557	460		
Median Max N Cattle	170	100	200	33	0.016	*
Mean Max N Cattle	169	152	217	68		
Median Livestock Units/Ha	0.44	1.3	2.6	0.72	0.0020	**
Mean Livestock Units/Ha	0.61	1.3	2.5	1.0		
Median Months Housed (Cattle) ^a	6.0	4.5	6.0	5.0	0.14	NS
Mean Months Housed (Cattle) ^a	5.50	4.42	5.33	4.91		
House Cattle?						
Yes	7/23	1/15	3/3	6/22	0.004	**
Some	9/23	11/15	0/3	5/22		
No	7/23	3/15	0/3	11/22		

^a Means and medians for the number of months that cattle were housed are derived only from farms that did house cattle.

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Table 2. Mean score given to each health problem of cattle by location, with p-value and significance from Fisher's exact test of contingency tables. GIT -gastrointestinal tract, TBD – tick borne disease, BVDV - bovine viral diarrhoea virus.

Health Problem	Location				p-value	sig
	Islay	Cornwall	Man	Wales		
Overall Index (mean)	2.30	2.08	2.02	1.75	0.10	NS
Minerals	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.2	0.42	NS
GIT Nematodes	3.2	2.6	2.7	2.1	0.13	NS
Fluke	4.0	2.2	3.0	3.0	0.06	.
TBD	3.0	1.8	1.7	1.5	0.05	*
Respiratory	2.0	2.1	1.0	1.6	0.67	NS
Johnes disease	2.5	2.0	2.3	1.8	0.59	NS
Diarrhoea	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.2	0.06	.
Abortion	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.3	0.04	NS
Lameness	2.0	2.1	2.3	1.4	0.21	NS
Sudden Death	1.4	1.8	1.3	1.2	0.15	NS
Plant Poisoning	1.3	2.0	1.3	1.3	0.16	NS
Predation	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.3	0.36	NS
Flies	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.3	0.38	NS
BVDV	2.1	2.7	2.7	1.5	0.08	.

Table 3. Mean score given to each health problem of sheep by location, with p-value and significance from Fisher's exact test of contingency tables. GIT -gastrointestinal tract, TBD – tick borne disease,

Health Problem	Location				p-value	sig
	Islay	Cornwall	Man	Wales		
Overall Index (mean)	2.62	2.12	2.13	2.21	0.20	NS
Minerals	3.0	1.8	3.0	2.3	0.19	NS
GIT Nematodes	3.5	2.8	2.7	2.6	0.47	NS
Fluke	4.5	1.7	2.0	3.3	0.0099	*
TBD	3.7	1.7	1.7	2.9	0.06	.
Respiratory	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.4	0.75	NS
Diarrhoea	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3	0.55	NS
Abortion	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.4	0.047	*
Lameness	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	0.78	NS
Sudden Death	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.7	0.26	NS
Plant Poisoning	1.4	1.6	1.0	1.1	0.25	NS
Predation	3.2	2.0	3.0	2.9	0.20	NS
Flies	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.5	0.44	NS

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Table 4. Mean and median number of treatments with some major parasiticides (SP – synthetic pyrethroid; TCBZ - triclabendazole, ML – macrocyclic lactone) applied to sheep and cattle, by the location, with Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test *p*-value and significance.

Location	Isle of				p-value	Significance
	Cornwall	Islay	Man	Wales		
Cows SP Mean	0.20	1.39	0.33	0.13	0.00024	***
Med	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00		
Sheep SP Mean	0.60	1.78	0.67	1.17	0.28	NS
Med	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Cows TCBZ Mean	0.33	0.83	1.33	0.00	0.14	NS
Med	0.00	0.00	2.00	0.00		
Sheep TCBZ Mean	0.60	1.70	1.00	0.44	0.0085	**
Med	0.00	2.00	1.00	0.00		
Cows ML Mean	0.73	0.96	1.33	1.06	0.88	NS
Med	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		
Sheep ML Mean	0.00	0.57	1.33	0.67	0.21	NS
Med	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00		

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464 Figure 1. Map of distribution of chough in mainland Great Britain and the Isle of Man,
465 showing 10 km squares in which there are confirmed and possible breeding or non-
466 breeding sites (red or black circles) and 10 km squares where chough are known to
467 feed and which contained at least one farm for which questionnaire data were
468 obtained. (Distribution map is from *Bird Atlas 2007-11*, a joint project of BTO,
469 BirdWatch Ireland and the Scottish Ornithologists' Club. Maps reproduced with
470 permission from the BTO.)

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473 Figure 2. Box and whisker plots showing the grazing area (left), the stocking density
474 (centre) and the area reserved for cropping (right) by location.

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478 Figure 3. Box and whisker plots showing the livestock densities (maximum total
479 number on farm at any time) and periods of housing (months per year) by location.

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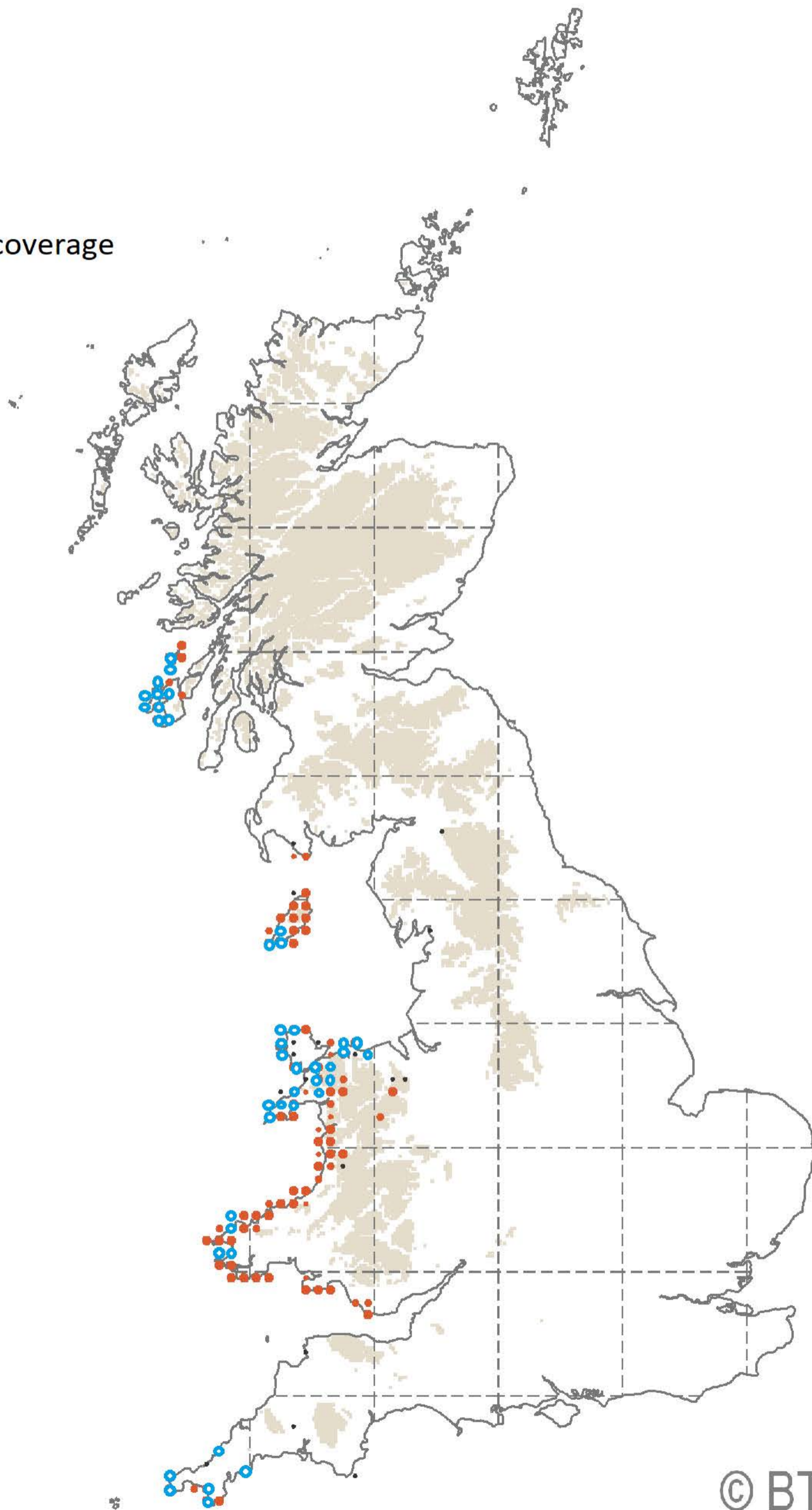
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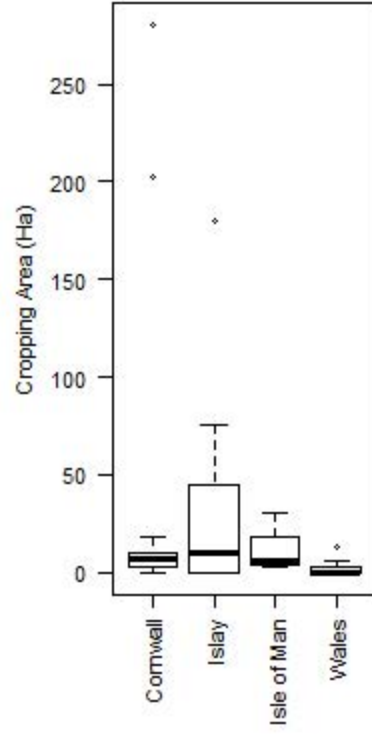
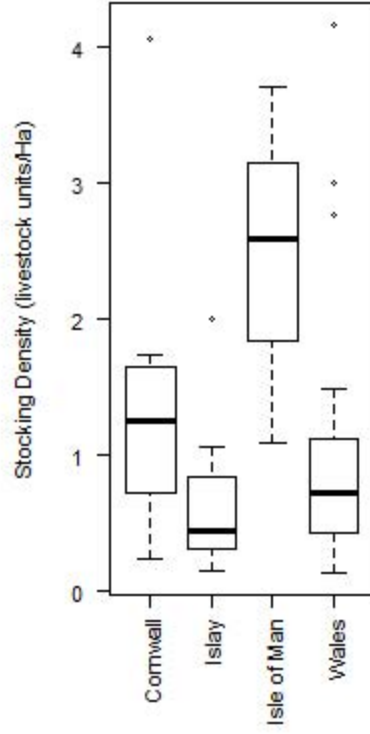
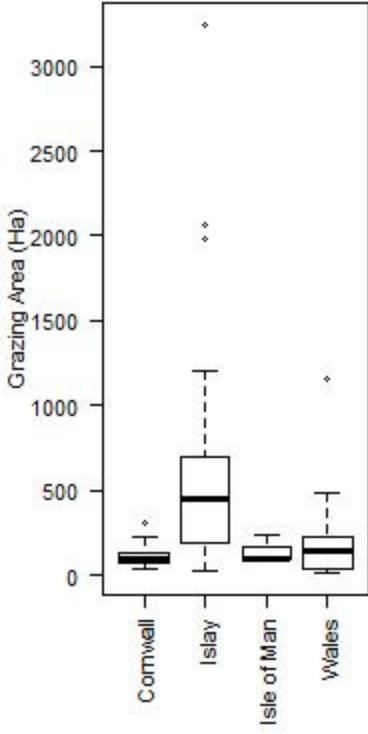
485 Figure 4. Box and whisker plots showing the number of synthetic pyrethroid (SP)
486 treatments applied to individual cattle in each year (left) and of triclabendazole
487 (TCBZ) treatments applied to individual sheep in each year (right) by location.

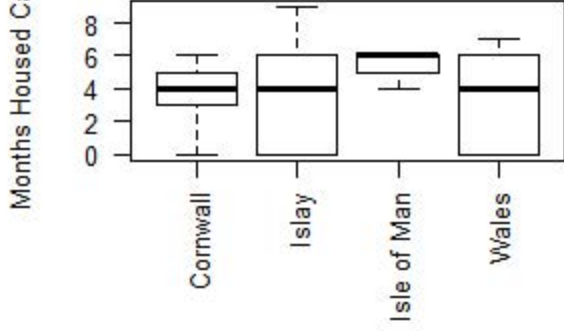
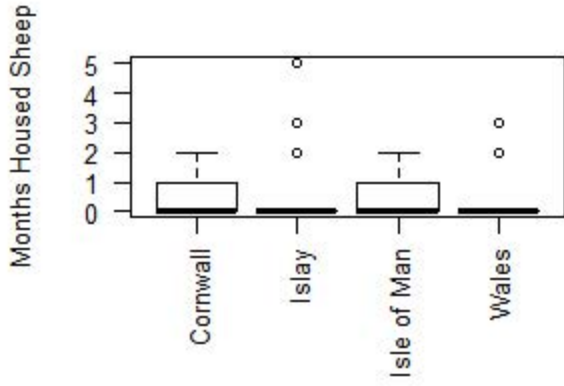
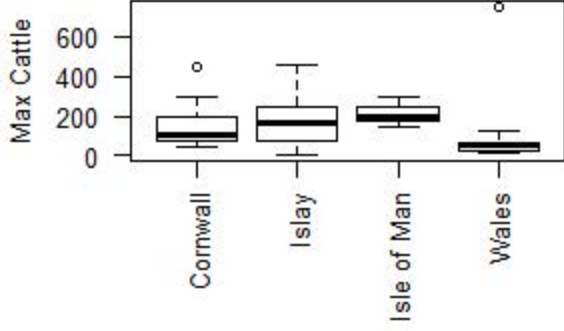
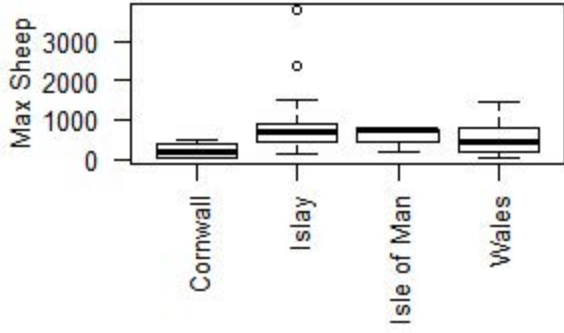
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Breeding Distribution 2008–11

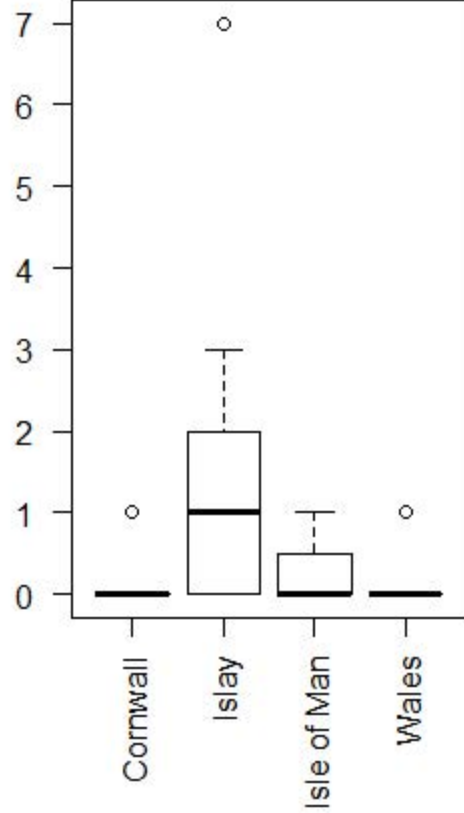
- Non-breeding
- Possible
- Probable
- Confirmed
- Questionnaire coverage







Number of SP treatments - cattle



Number of TCBZ treatments - sheep

