

# Seed contamination in sheep: new investigations into an old problem

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## Seed contamination in sheep: new investigations into an old problem

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## 1 Seed contamination in sheep: new investigations into an old problem

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14 **Short title:** Seed contamination in sheep: new investigations15 **Word count:** 5108 (count includes abstract, article body, references, acknowledgements and figure caption list)16 **Summary text for table of contents**

17 Seed contamination of sheep fleece and carcasses causes significant production losses. Recent studies indicate  
18 distribution and frequency of carcass damage across Australia are associated with the distribution of barley and  
19 brome grass populations, and varies with state, region, year, animal and climate factors. Reviewing the literature  
20 on this issue highlights areas requiring future research, including the investigation of effective weed  
21 management strategies for current Australian conditions.

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26 **Abstract.** Seed contamination significantly impacts production capacity and animal welfare in Australian sheep  
27 flocks and causes considerable financial loss to producers and processors across sheepmeat value chains. Seven  
28 grass weed species contribute to seed carcass contamination in Australia, with barley grass (*Hordeum* spp.)  
29 identified as a key perpetrator. Herbicide resistance and variable dormancy emerging in southern Australian  
30 barley grass populations are thought to enhance its capacity for successful pasture invasion, further exacerbating  
31 the potential for seed contamination in sheep. This article reviews the current literature regarding the impact and  
32 incidence of seed contamination on sheepmeat production, with particular reference to key grass weed species  
33 prevalence across Australia. Data is presented on recent incidence of carcass contamination across years, where  
34 incidence varied between 11 and 80% from 2009 to 2013, contracting to between 2 and 60% during 2014 and  
35 2015. Key areas requiring future research are defined. Understanding the biology of key grass weeds, historical  
36 influences and economic consequences associated with seed contamination in sheep may assist in defining  
37 future risks to sheep production and improve weed management. Furthermore, examining more recent data  
38 describing the current status of seed contamination across Australia and associations with causal weed species  
39 may aid the development of critical weed management strategies in highly infested regions, subsequently  
40 limiting the extent of future seed contamination.

41 **Additional keywords:** Sheepmeat, Sheep pelts, Carcass, Meat processing, Grasses

**42 Introduction**

43 Seed contamination in sheep refers to the penetration of body tissues by the seeds of certain grass weeds  
44 during grazing, which is an increasing problem within the Australian sheep industry. Affected sheep suffer  
45 considerable physical injury, including penetration of external tissues, carcass and internal organs.

46 Consequently, an array of costs and losses are borne by producers and sheepmeat processors (Cornish and Beale  
47 1974; Collins *et al.* 2013; Smith 2014). Affected sheep exhibit reduced growth rates, considerable weight loss  
48 and mortality (Dodd 1919; Atkinson and Hartley 1972; Hartley and Bimler 1975) and contamination of wool  
49 results in price discounts due to extra wool processing costs (Lunney 1983; Nolan *et al.* 2014).

50 Of the seven annual grass weed species known to contribute to seed contamination (Collins *et al.* 2013), barley  
51 grass (*Hordeum* spp. Link.) and brome grass (*Bromus* spp. Roth.) are frequently associated with carcass damage  
52 (Atkinson and Hartley 1972; Tozer *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, recent evidence suggests invasion capability has  
53 increased in barley grass and brome grass populations, a result of growing herbicide resistance and variable

54 dormancy patterns in many Australian populations (Gill and Blacklow 1985; Fleet and Gill 2012; Boutsalis *et*  
55 *al.* 2014; Owen *et al.* 2015; Shergill *et al.* 2015b; Shergill *et al.* 2017a; Shergill *et al.* 2017b). These factors  
56 present challenges for effective management of both species, and lack of control may result in increased  
57 incidence of carcass damage.

58 This review examines historical and recent literature regarding factors influencing seed contamination and  
59 impacts upon sheepmeat production, so as to assist in identifying future research needs and / or mitigation  
60 strategies to reduce invasive grass infestation and carcass contamination.

### 61 **Seed contamination in sheep**

62 Seed contamination of sheep commonly occurs as a consequence of management or seasonal influences  
63 (Collins *et al.* 2013; George 1972; Kelly *et al.* 2016, Kelly 2016). When seeds dislodge from the plant's  
64 inflorescence due to disturbance by grazing, seed awns adhere to the fleece and animal movement aids seed  
65 transport to the skin, resulting in body tissue penetration (Fig.1). Grass seed dispersal often corresponds with  
66 highest rates of seed contamination (Warr 1980), which causes significant injury (Dodd 1919; Mulham and  
67 Moore 1970; Hartley and Atkinson 1972; Hartley and Bimler 1975; Little *et al.* 1992). The issue presents many  
68 welfare and production challenges which are not often realised until slaughter when carcass damage becomes  
69 visible.

70 *Insert Fig 1 here*

### 71 **Problematic weed species contributing to seed contamination**

72 The introduced and widely distributed weed, barley grass (*Hordeum* spp. Link.), has been historically  
73 problematic in contributing to seed contamination (Dodd 1919). Also implicated were the native grasses; spear  
74 grass (*Austrostipa* spp (Lindley) S.W.L. Jacobs and Everett), wire grass (*Aristida* spp. R. Br.) and silver grass  
75 (*Vulpia bromoides* (L). Gray) (Dodd 1919). Despite almost 100 years of research, all of these species continue  
76 to cause carcass damage (Collins 2013). While Storksbill (*Erodium* spp. (L.) L'Hér), Chilean needle grass  
77 (*Nasella neesiana* (Trin. & Rupr.)) and brome grass infestations (*Bromus* spp. Roth) also result in seed  
78 contamination, the following species; *Hordeum* spp., *Vulpia* spp., *Stipa* spp., and *Erodium* spp. are considered  
79 by sheepmeat processors as the major carcass contaminants in Australia (Collins 2013).

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80 Brome grass and barley grass are currently listed within the top twenty residual weeds of southern Australian  
81 grain growing regions (Llewellyn *et al.* 2016). Interestingly, certain populations of these grasses are spreading  
82 due to herbicide resistance (Owen *et al.* 2015; Shergill *et al.* 2015a, 2016b; Shergill *et al.* 2017a; Shergill *et al.*  
83 2017b) and variable seed dormancy patterns (Fleet and Gill 2012; Kleemann and Gill 2013) as a result of  
84 repeated herbicide exposure, changing farming practices (Fleet and Gill 2012; Recasens *et al.* 2016) and  
85 potential adaptation to variable climatic conditions (Smith 1968; Gill and Blacklow 1985). Brome grass and  
86 barley grass now inhabits over 1.4 million hectares and 244,000 hectares, respectively (Llewellyn *et al.* 2016).

87 Three barley grass subspecies are commonly found in Australia. They are collectively referred to as the  
88 *Hordeum murinum* complex (Cocks *et al.* 1976) comprised of *H. leporinum* Link. *H. glaucum* Steud. and *H.*  
89 *murinum* L. (Cocks *et al.* 1976). A less common fourth subspecies, *H. hystrix* Roth., is also noted within  
90 Australian National Herbarium collections (D Albrecht, pers. comm.).

*Distribution of problematic weed species*

92 *Hordeum* spp. (and *Vulpia* spp) are among the five most prevalent pasture weeds across the New South  
93 Wales perennial pasture zone (Dellow *et al.* 2002). Together with *Bromus* spp., they are common to southern  
94 New South Wales cropping regions (Lemerle *et al.* 1996; Broster *et al.* 2012b). *Bromus rigidus* frequently  
95 invades cropping fields, while *B. diandrus*, another injurious *Bromus* species, often occupies roadsides and  
96 disturbed areas (Kleemann and Gill 2006). *Hordeum glaucum* invades drier, semi-arid regions (<425 mm annual  
97 rainfall), *Hordeum leporinum* commonly occupies regions above 425 mm annual rainfall and *Hordeum*  
98 *murinum* most frequently inhabits Tasmania (Cocks *et al.* 1976). In Western Australia, both *Hordeum* spp. and  
99 *Bromus* spp. have colonised up to 64% of cropping fields (Borger *et al.* 2012), with 1-3% invading summer  
100 fallows (Michael *et al.* 2010). However, in northern NSW and Queensland *Hordeum* spp. are scarce, occurring  
101 in less than 1% of arable fields (Osten *et al.* 2007). Together, both species are noted at a frequency of less than  
102 10% in Tasmania (Broster *et al.* 2012a).

**103 Production loss, morbidity and animal welfare concerns associated with seed contamination**

104 Previous reports highlight reduced growth rates and live weight losses of up to 11.5kg per head within three  
105 months in contaminated sheep (Mulham and Moore 1970; Campbell *et al.* 1972; Hartley and Atkinson 1972,  
106 1973a; Hartley and Bimler 1975; Hartley 1976; Hamilton 1978; Little *et al.* 1992). Significant weight loss leads  
107 to reduced reproductive capacity in adults and restricts progeny growth (Behrendt *et al.* 2011). Seeds penetrate

108 eyes causing inflammation (Dodd 1919; George 1972), blindness (Hartley and Atkinson 1972), facial injuries  
109 (George 1972; Hartley and Bimler 1975; Hartley 1976), skin abscesses and ulcerations (Dodd 1919; Belschner  
110 1925; Loughnan 1964; Barry 1971). Seeds penetrating internal organs may also cause peritonitis, pleurisy  
111 (Dodd 1919; Loughnan 1964) and tetanus (Belschner 1925), while lameness occurs from seed penetration of the  
112 feet. Generalised inflammation and fever commonly occurs from seed wound infections and mortality rates are  
113 often significant (Mulham and Moore 1970; Cornish and Beale 1974; Hartley and Bimler 1975). Seed  
114 contamination also impacts animal welfare, where sheep may experience increased flystrike susceptibility and  
115 significant physical discomfort associated with seed injury (Dodd 1919; Loughnan 1964; Campbell *et al.* 1972).

#### 116 **Animal factors leading to seed contamination**

117 Numerous physiological factors appear to influence seed contamination in sheep. Young animals and sheep  
118 with heavily wrinkled skin are predisposed to heavy contamination compared to older sheep or those carrying  
119 less skin wrinkle (Dodd 1919; Mulham and Moore 1970; Campbell *et al.* 1972; Shugg and Vivian 1973;  
120 Cornish and Beale 1974; Hartley and Bimler 1975). Studies also highlight the predisposition of Merino wool to  
121 seed attachment compared to Romney and Border Leicester wool types (Atkinson and Hartley 1972; Hartley  
122 and Atkinson 1973b; Shugg and Vivian 1973; Hartley and Bimler 1975; Hartley 1976), although seed  
123 attachment was not necessarily associated with fibre diameter (Hartley and Atkinson 1973b). Skins with longer  
124 wool commonly attract higher seed burdens in contrast to skins with shorter wool (Mulham and Moore 1970;  
125 Hartley and Atkinson 1973b; Shugg and Vivian 1973; Cornish and Beale 1974; Little *et al.* 1992; Mason *et al.*  
126 2008; Mason and Behrendt 2009). Despite this, skins with longer wool generally attract higher prices due to the  
127 value placed on these skins in some markets (Mason *et al.* 2008).

#### 128 **Economic impacts of seed contamination in sheep**

129 The economic impacts of seed contamination on farm have not been fully evaluated in Australia. Previous  
130 literature describes significant carcass, skin and wool price discounts incurred by producers as a result of seed  
131 contamination (Cornish and Beale 1974; Sloane *et al.* 1989; Collins 2013). Discounts between \$0.10 to \$1/kg  
132 carcass weight are commonly applied within abattoirs (Collins 2013), reducing carcass value per animal by up  
133 to \$6 per head (Little *et al.* 1992). In addition, costs associated with live weight loss on meat yield, fertility and  
134 wool production (Killeen 1976; Kellaway 1973), morbidity (Dodd 1919; Holmes 1993) and mortality (Dodd  
135 1919; Campbell *et al.* 1972; George 1972) are also significant. Secondary costs include those associated with

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136 altered management to accommodate contaminated animals (Collins *et al.* 2013), herbicide application for weed  
137 control (Sloane *et al.* 1989) and reduced pasture availability for live weight gain after herbicide application  
138 (Hartley *et al.* 1974).

**139 Impact of seed contamination upon the sheepmeat processing sector**

140 Seed contamination is a key factor affecting abattoir profitability (Collins 2013), where incidence tends to be  
141 variable across years and is subject to seasonal influences upon seed production (Cornish and Beale 1974;  
142 Collins 2013). Seed contamination leads to carcass rejection by export markets, downgrading of meat products  
143 and the potential for loss of export licenses (Loughnan 1964; Shugg and Vivian 1973; Cornish and Beale 1974;  
144 Smith 2014). Sheepmeat markets require total seed removal from contaminated carcasses, reducing carcass  
145 weight by up to 4-5 kg and reducing meat yield as a consequence of excessive trimming (Loughnan 1964;  
146 Shugg and Vivian 1973). Additional trimming reduces throughput from slower chain speeds and increases  
147 labour costs by 60% (Collins 2013; Collins *et al.* 2013; Smith 2014). Although one sheepmeat processor  
148 reported an annual cost of \$3 million to their business due to seed contamination (Collins 2013), many  
149 processors have estimated the cost to be \$20-30 per carcass (Collins 2013). Seed contamination also affects pelt  
150 quality (Loughnan 1964; Mulham and Moore 1970; Rumball 1970; Atkinson and Hartley 1972) and value  
151 (Atkinson and Hartley 1972), which reduces market options (Collins *et al.* 2013).

**152 Current trends in carcass seed contamination in Australia***153 Regional prevalence of seed contamination and associations with distribution of key grass weeds*

154 Recent studies performed by the authors have utilised a national database (curated by Animal Health  
155 Australia) to explore the current factors affecting incidence and distribution of seed contamination in sheep  
156 carcasses across Australia. Analysis results revealed variable incidence across states and regions, with  
157 contamination noted most frequently across mainland states in contrast to Tasmania (Kelly *et al.* 2016; Kelly  
158 2016). Contamination was associated with barley and brome grass distribution across the mixed farming and  
159 pastoral zones, a logical result given the presence of large adjoining sheep and cropping enterprises and the  
160 prevalence of both weed species across southern cropping regions (Llewellyn *et al.* 2016). Significant  
161 contamination of sheep in the high rainfall zone was also noted, suggesting the distribution of other key grass  
162 weeds producing penetrating seeds within this biogeographic zone. Also identified were significant effects of  
163 sheep sex and age on incidence of contamination (Kelly *et al.* 2016; Kelly 2016). Higher frequencies of



164 contamination were noted in both sexes over two years of age and entire males sold for slaughter (cast for age  
165 rams) in contrast to younger sheep of either sex, likely due to the repeated exposure to seed in older animals as a  
166 result of the length of time on farm in contaminated paddocks. Incidence of seed contamination was also  
167 significantly influenced by both climatic factors and altitude, likely reflective of the variable ecological  
168 requirements of weeds associated with contamination and the seasonal variation in seed production and  
169 contamination (Kelly 2016).

#### 170 *Impact of year on the regional incidence of seed contamination*

171 The results of this study also revealed significant differences in contamination across years throughout  
172 Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and South Australian regions between 2009 and 2015 ( $P < 0.001$ , Fig.  
173 2).

174 Insert Figure 2 here

175 Carcass contamination frequency across all states ranged between 11 and 80% between 2009 and 2013 and  
176 contracted during 2014 and 2015, to between 2 and 60%. The array of regions exhibiting contamination also  
177 generally increased from 2013 to 2015, likely a reflection of season and flock management (Collins 2013;  
178 George 1972). In 2009, the combination of significant rainfall events and warmer conditions signifying the end  
179 of the millennium drought (Bureau of Meteorology 2009, 2011, 2012) likely created conditions favourable for  
180 annual weed competition and proliferation (Kelly *et al.* 2016), leading to increased physical contact with sheep  
181 grazing these regions. Wetter seasonal conditions also led to increased sheep and lamb numbers (Caboche and  
182 Thompson, 2013) and reduced sheep slaughter numbers, leading to high retention of sheep on farm during 2010  
183 and 2011 (Thomas and Matthews 2016), where exposure to ample seed produced by thriving weed populations  
184 was likely. This may explain the higher contamination frequency in certain regions during 2012, where  
185 slaughter of animals (likely contaminated with seed from the previous years), had increased due to dry  
186 conditions prevailing in the latter half of the year (Bureau of Meteorology 2012; Caboche and Thompson, 2013;  
187 Thomas and Matthews 2016;). The broader pattern of contamination observed between 2013 and 2014 possibly  
188 reflects the slaughter of previously contaminated sheep sourced from numerous regions with high weed  
189 infestation rates. During 2015, the reduced contamination across numerous states and regions may reflect higher  
190 lamb slaughter occurring earlier, due to seasonally dry conditions (Ashton *et al.*, 2016), thereby reducing lamb  
191 exposure to seed. Given previous findings noting high frequencies of contamination in older sheep, reduced

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192 adult sheep slaughter during 2015 may also have contributed to lower contamination incidence during that year  
193 as a consequence of adults being retained on farm for flock re-building (Berry, 2015; Thomas and Matthews  
194 2016).

**195 Implications and future research directions**

196 Climate variability, conservation tillage, and reliance on herbicides for weed management are factors likely to  
197 favour the spread of annual grass weeds across southern Australia, thus enabling selection for highly  
198 competitive biotypes. The increasing prevalence of seed dormancy and herbicide resistance occurring  
199 concurrently within grass weed populations will present additional challenges due to the lack of efficacious  
200 herbicide options (Shergill *et al.* 2015a). As sheep numbers increase across cereal cropping and pasture zones of  
201 Australia, these regions face increased rates of future carcass damage, potentially presenting risks for  
202 maintaining market access for quality sheepmeat products.

203 With the Australian sheep industry experiencing a re-building phase, older animals may be retained for longer  
204 periods. Creating safe paddocks for housing older animals will be important, as these animals potentially  
205 contribute to the spread of weed populations and high levels of carcass damage observed in Australian abattoirs.  
206 The procedural differences in data reporting between abattoirs highlights the importance of standardising data  
207 collection protocols during processing for more comprehensive monitoring of carcass damage.

208 Reducing the problem of seed contamination over the longer term will be achieved by effective and proactive  
209 control of causative weeds on farm and encouraging the establishment and productivity of competitive pasture  
210 species. It is increasingly important to ensure research and outreach efforts address early season weed  
211 management before seed set, with particular emphasis in heavily infested regions.

212 Given the increasing spread of barley grass across southern Australia and its dominant role in sheep carcass  
213 damage, cost effective cultural and chemical management strategies should target *Hordeum spp.* Currently,  
214 species distribution across Australia is unknown and complicated by misidentification (Cocks *et al.* 1976).

215 Therefore, accurate subspecies identification across all biogeographic regions would be valuable to develop  
216 species-specific control strategies for *Hordeum spp.* Given the frequency of barley grass infestations within  
217 legume pastures used for sheepmeat production, future research regarding the development of integrated control  
218 strategies and the identification of chemically diverse herbicides for barley grass control is needed within typical

219 legume pastures. This is exacerbated by the increased prevalence of herbicide resistance in many populations  
220 (Owen *et al.* 2012; Shergill 2016; Shergill *et al.* 2016a; Shergill *et al.* 2017a; Shergill *et al.* 2017b).

221 To determine economically viable control strategies for weed management and reduce seed contamination  
222 rates, there is a need to develop an improved understanding of the changing nature of barley grass phenology in  
223 response to variable population dynamics. Studies relating barley grass density to morphology, phenology and  
224 fecundity will be critical, in addition to the use of dynamic bio-economic modelling to examine control  
225 efficiency and mitigation of seed contamination over the longer term.

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- 416 **Figures**
- 417 Fig 1. Significant penetration of the skin by barley grass seeds across the body of a young Merino sheep located  
418 in Central West New South Wales (photo courtesy of K. Behrendt).

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419 Fig.2. Distribution and total density of sheep carcasses showing seed contamination during years 2009 to 2015.  
420 Darker discolouration indicates higher density of contamination.

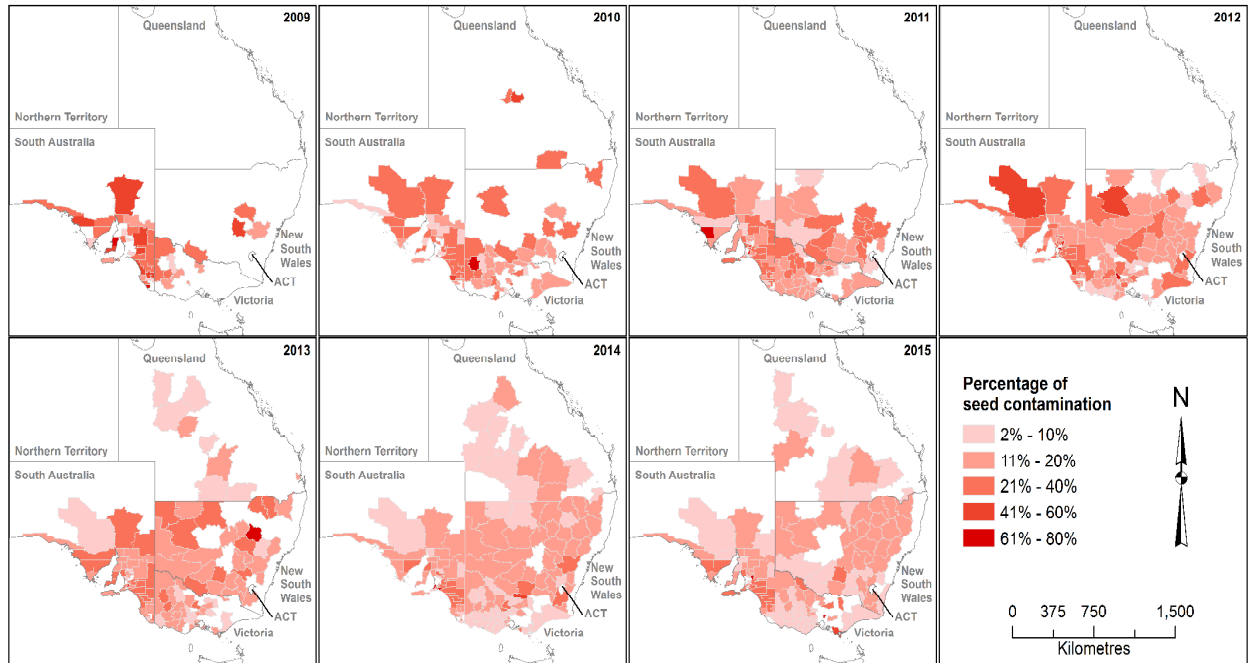
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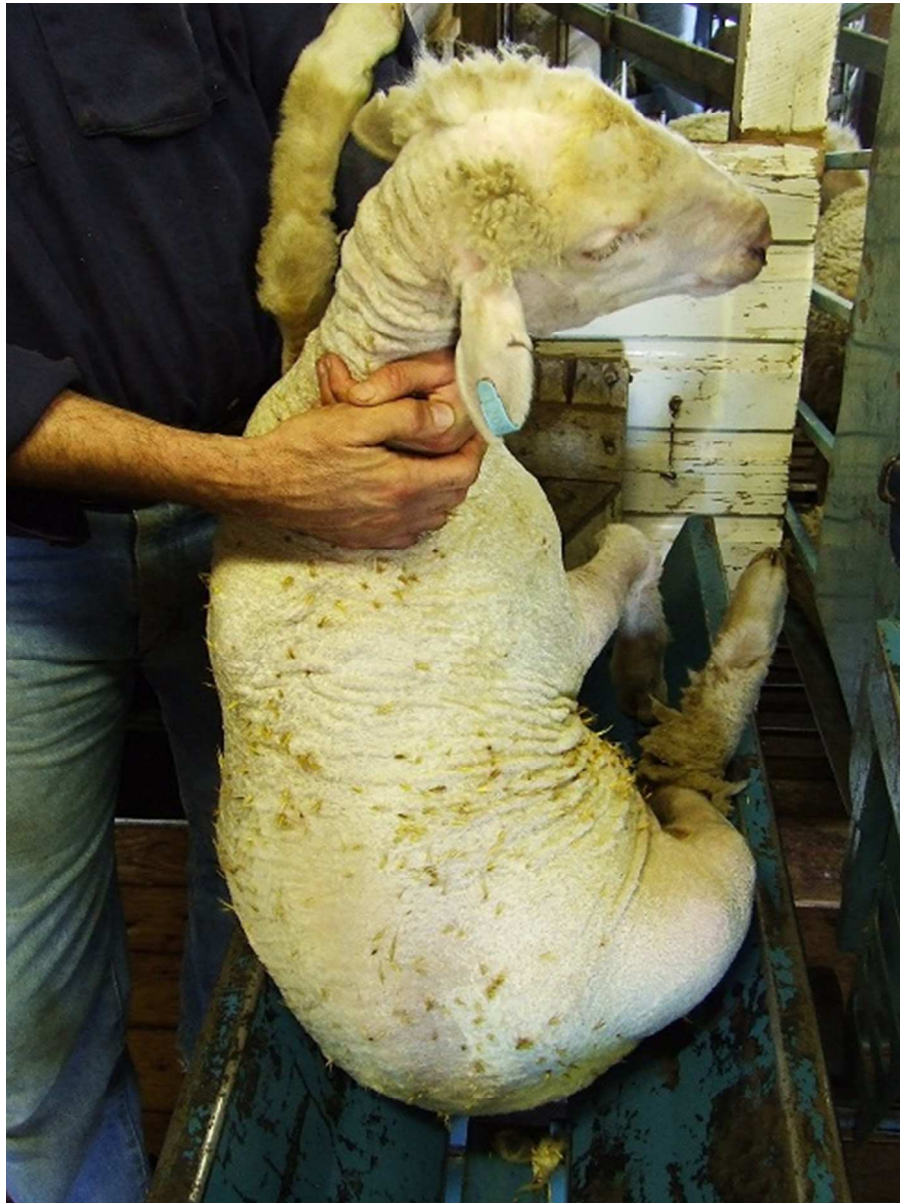


Fig 1. Significant penetration of the skin by barley grass seeds across the body of a young Merino sheep located in Central West New South Wales (photo courtesy of K.Behrendt).

171x228mm (72 x 72 DPI)

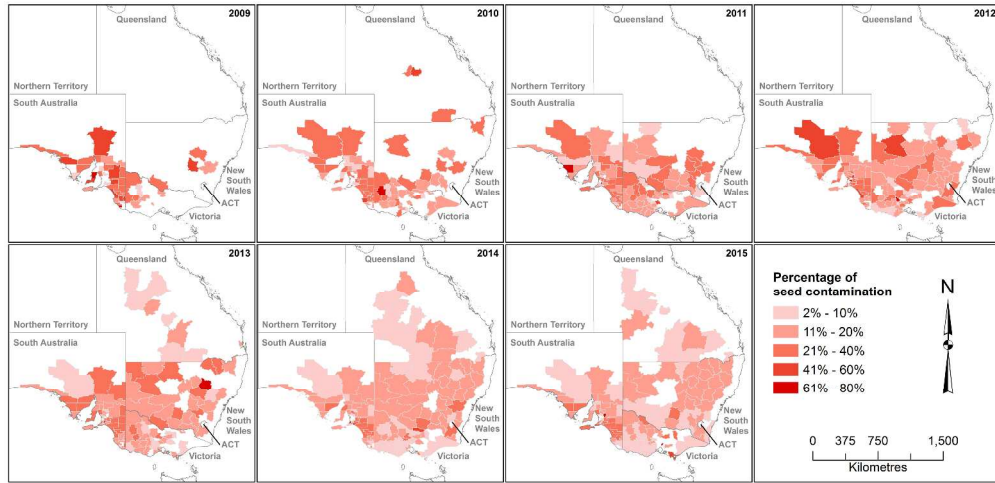


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