

# Dairy cow health and management in the transition period: the need to understand the human dimension.

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1 **Dairy cow health and management in the transition period: the need to understand the**  
2 **human dimension**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 During the transition from the dry period to lactation the dairy cow undergoes a  
18 period of physiological, metabolic and immunological change, and is at greater risk of  
19 developing disease, to the detriment of health, welfare and production. Many studies have  
20 been undertaken to determine appropriate management strategies to improve health and  
21 welfare during the transition period, however the incidence of disease, particularly metabolic  
22 disease, in this period remains high.

23 To date, a lack of research attention has been paid to the social factors which may  
24 affect the management of transition dairy cows. An understanding of farmer and advisor  
25 attitudes and behaviour, and the challenges they face in managing transition cows, may help

26 to direct farmers towards more effective disease prevention and control. It is also possible  
27 that transition cow morbidity may be due to complex interactions that are difficult to manage,  
28 despite efforts to implement best practice.

29 This review paper provides a brief overview of some of the management factors that  
30 may influence herd health during the transition period. It then investigates how social  
31 influences may relate to the uptake of transition management practices by exploring the use  
32 of qualitative interviews investigating farmer and stakeholder attitudes and behaviour in  
33 relation to cattle health and welfare, before focussing more specifically on farmer behaviour.  
34 Additionally, this paper explores farm advisor behaviour, and how that has been shown to  
35 influence farmer adherence to advice, which has particular relevance to transition cow  
36 management. It then suggests potential research strategies to investigate the human influences  
37 affecting the scale of the problem that may provide solutions to tackle the challenge of  
38 improving dairy cow health and welfare.

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## 49 **Introduction**

50           The transition period for a dairy cow is described by Grummer (1995) as the period  
51 from 3 weeks pre-calving until 3 weeks post-calving, a definition that has been widely  
52 accepted by other authors in this field (Drackley, 1999; Aleri et al., 2016; Atkinson, 2016).  
53 During this period important physiological, metabolic and nutritional changes take place, and  
54 it is when most metabolic disorders occur (Mulligan and Doherty, 2008). These metabolic  
55 disorders include ketosis, fatty liver syndrome, milk fever, metritis, mastitis, retained foetal  
56 membranes (RFM) and displaced abomasum (LeBlanc, 2010). How these physiological,  
57 metabolic and nutritional changes are managed is of great importance and is strongly  
58 associated with the incidence of metabolic diseases, milk yield and fertility in early lactation  
59 (Roche et al., 2018).

60           During the last two decades extensive research has been conducted to attempt to  
61 better understand the biology of the transition cow in order to address nutrient requirements  
62 and ascertain management strategies to cope with the metabolic and physiological changes  
63 that occur during the transition period (Horst et al., 1997; Drackley, 1999; Huzzey et al.,  
64 2007; Van Saun and Sniffen, 2014; Zebeli et al., 2015). Despite this, dairy cows continue to  
65 experience high rates of metabolic diseases that are detrimental to animal welfare and  
66 productivity (and have significant financial impacts to the farmer) (Suthar et al., 2013;  
67 Macrae et al., 2019). A review by Mulligan and Doherty (2008) suggested that incidence  
68 rates of metabolic diseases were unacceptably high, with rates in well-managed herds  
69 remaining similar to those published decades ago.

70           No single approach, it appears, consistently results in cows successfully adapting to  
71 the metabolic changes of lactation with minimal disease events (O'Boyle, 2008). For  
72 example, a recent study by Macrae et al., (2019) involving 1748 dairy herds in the UK

73 confirmed the overall prevalence of subclinical ketosis in the first 20 days of lactation to be  
74 28.5%, and the median herd prevalence of excessive negative energy balance (NEB) to be  
75 59.8% (using a  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate threshold of 1.0 mmol/L). When addressing ketosis alone,  
76 Van Saun and Sniffen (2014) reported a mean incidence risk of subclinical ketosis at 43%,  
77 with Bobe et al. (2004) suggesting that approximately 50-60% of transition cows experience  
78 mild to severe fatty liver syndrome, a condition closely linked to the onset of ketosis (Herdt,  
79 2000).

80 An understanding of the opinions and priorities of farmers implementing nutritional  
81 and management strategies is important, or scientific research findings may not be  
82 appropriately applied on farm (Lund and Algers, 2003). As Garforth et al. (2004) suggested,  
83 there is little value in scientific research if the mechanisms to link farmers with new  
84 knowledge are ineffective. Understanding farmer communication with their advisors, local  
85 conditions and attitudes, and restrictions on applying best practice may also be helpful. While  
86 this does not on its own solve the problem of transition diseases occurring at high levels, it  
87 may help to enhance understanding of barriers to certain behaviours and help tailor  
88 knowledge and advice so that it acknowledges farmer attitudes, motivations and goals. In  
89 their review of transition cow management, Mulligan and Doherty (2008) highlighted a need  
90 to engage qualitative research methodologies to develop and implement practical methods  
91 centred on the prevention of metabolic diseases during the transition period. A better  
92 understanding of farmer knowledge and motivations which impact the decisions and  
93 strategies implemented to manage transition cows on farm may therefore benefit cow health  
94 and performance.

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## 97 **Transition cow management strategies**

98 Challenges for the periparturient cow are complex and interlinked (Mulligan and  
99 Doherty, 2008), and to fully review the aetiology of the metabolic diseases and all of the  
100 associated management practices to avoid such diseases is beyond the scope of this review.  
101 Interested readers are recommended to study the work of, for example, Grummer et al.,  
102 (2004); McArt et al., (2013), Aleri et al., (2016), Atkinson (2016) and Lacasse et al., (2018).

103 Suggested management practices to reduce disease incidence include reducing  
104 movement to alternative cow groupings to minimise the influence of social stress, increasing  
105 cow comfort with adequately sized lying areas, having a minimum time in the close-to-  
106 calving pen, providing a spacious environment with adequate feed and water space and  
107 keeping the calving area as clean as possible (Cook et al., 2007). Nutrition is also vitally  
108 important, and transition diets should ensure optimal balance of mineral and micronutrients  
109 (Sinclair and Atkin, 2015; Weeratilake et al., 2019; Atkins et al., 2020), and energy and  
110 protein (Lean et al., 2013; Sinclair et al., 2014).

111 An overview of the nutritional and management factors which positively influence  
112 transition cow health and their potential solutions are illustrated in Figure 1 (based on  
113 literature from Cook et al., (2007), Mulligan and Doherty (2008), Lean et al., (2013) and  
114 Nordlund et al., (2014)). These various factors have been suggested as recommendations to  
115 help prevent transition cow diseases, but there appears to be conflicting findings between  
116 research studies. For example, Huzzey et al., (2006) found that decreasing stocking density  
117 increased time spent feeding, whereas Proudfoot et al., (2009) demonstrated that overstocking  
118 transition cows, so that cows had access to 0.3m/cow of feed space instead of 0.6m in the  
119 control group, did not adversely affect dry matter intake when using individual electronic  
120 feeders and fed twice daily.

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122

123 [Insert figure 1 here]

124

125           The success of these management practices in improving transition cow health and  
126 performance relies heavily on farmers correctly and consistently implementing them, and  
127 advisors effectively communicating knowledge to farmers in a way that they can interpret  
128 and specifically apply to their farm business (Bard et al., 2019). If farmer perception of  
129 transition cow diseases and the associated management practices is considered of little  
130 importance or significance to subsequent health and production, it is unlikely that they will be  
131 implemented correctly (Roche et al., 2019). It can also be hypothesised that farmers may be  
132 unaware that they have a transition cow problem, leading to inaction, as found, for example,  
133 when investigating farmer perception of dairy cow lameness (Richert et al., 2013).  
134 Considering the nature of metabolic diseases, many of which are subclinical and result in  
135 ‘hidden’ losses such as reduced milk yield, a lack of awareness of the scope of the problem is  
136 likely. Transition-related problems may not be straightforward to tackle because often there  
137 are multiple causes, and there is likely to be no single or simple solution which uniformly fits  
138 every dairy herd. Furthermore, if farmer-advisor relationships were explored in relation to  
139 transition cow management, this may reveal potential barriers to communication and  
140 knowledge exchange between the parties, and farmer-specific reasons as to why some advisor  
141 recommendations may not implemented successfully, as demonstrated later in this review  
142 paper.

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## 146 **Qualitative interview research in animal health and welfare**

147           There is an ongoing requirement for social science studies to evaluate farm animal  
148 health and welfare, and the use of qualitative interviews has become increasingly common as  
149 a way of determining whether the findings and recommendations are being applied on farm  
150 and to determine drivers for disease incidence at herd level (e.g. Shortall et al., 2018;  
151 Donadeu et al., 2020; Robinson, 2020). Qualitative interviews are often used to examine  
152 social processes, meanings or experience by capturing the depth and breadth of participants'  
153 experiences and perspectives (Mason, 2006). There are other research methodologies from  
154 the social sciences that have and can be used to investigate animal health issues (these will be  
155 briefly considered later in this paper); we focus here on interviewing.

156           Determining farmer attitudes can help to establish the barriers to best practice by  
157 uncovering the diversity of views that people hold (May, 2018). Understanding the attitudes  
158 underpinning farmers' actions are essential pre-requisites for improving outcomes in disease  
159 control and animal welfare, and this has proven a fruitful research area for bovine husbandry  
160 and health in recent years (Robinson, 2020) and is therefore highly likely to have merit when  
161 considering transition cow management. For example, Palczynski et al., (2020a) determined  
162 that farmers were receiving inadequate instructions on calf feeding and weaning, and  
163 recommended that more consistent recommendations were required from veterinary and  
164 nutritional advisors. In the light of this, it is possible that farmers may also be receiving  
165 inadequate instructions, or a lack of focussed advice, on transition management from their  
166 advisors. Additionally, Fischer et al., (2019) established that antibiotic use and misuse was  
167 mainly determined by the strength of the farmer-veterinarian relationship, and the  
168 effectiveness of the veterinarians' communication skills within that relationship. This  
169 suggests that the farmer-veterinarian relationship and veterinary communication skills may  
170 also influence the way farmers treat their transition cows.



171 By conducting interviews during a lameness intervention study, Atkinson (2020)  
172 established that farmer attitude influenced incidence, and farmers that had the lowest  
173 lameness incidence in their cows felt that it was within their control, had a better  
174 understanding that lameness affected their business, and could better estimate the extent of it  
175 in their herd. These findings agree with a study by Leach et al., (2010), who determined that  
176 farmers' perception and awareness of lameness influenced their success in reducing its  
177 incidence, and that farmers often underestimate the extent of the problem in their herds. This  
178 suggests that farmer perception and awareness of metabolic diseases may influence their  
179 transition management success, particularly given the unseen nature of subclinical metabolic  
180 diseases. Social science studies therefore demonstrate that by determining farmer and related  
181 stakeholder opinions, one can elucidate possible barriers to the implementation of optimal  
182 transition cow management strategies and uncover ways of facilitating positive behavioural  
183 change and improved cattle health and welfare outcomes.

184

### 185 **Studying farmer behaviour**

186 Many behavioural studies aim to identify farmer attitudes in order to create a  
187 persuasive message or stage an intervention resulting in an intended change of behaviour  
188 (Kristensen and Jakobsen, 2011). An attitude is produced by emotional and behavioural  
189 beliefs (ideas that a person holds as being true, deeply held and difficult to change), and is an  
190 intrinsic frame of mind affecting one's thoughts or behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Only with a  
191 positive attitude towards a task will there be motivation, engagement and intention to  
192 complete it (Jain, 2014). This is not to be confused with an opinion, which is an external and  
193 explicit response to something, and that is changeable through experience, knowledge and  
194 persuasion (Tourangeau and Galešić, 2008).

195           Traditional methods of attempting to change farming practice and behaviour include  
196 the introduction of legislation to implement and enforce certain practices or standards (Barnes  
197 et al., 2013); financial penalties such as deductions in milk payments for high somatic cell  
198 counts (SCC) (or premiums for the reverse) (Vaarst et al., 2002; Valeeva et al. 2007); and  
199 advisor-based extension methods to educate farmers in new practices such as the BVD-Free  
200 England campaign (Armstrong et al., 2018). Although these traditional methods are effective  
201 at facilitating large scale changes quickly, they are not always popular or well implemented  
202 (Morgans et al., 2019). While penalties and premiums have been shown to be significant  
203 drivers for farmers to improve mastitis management, factors related to farm performance and  
204 the individual farmer were equally motivating, such as taking pleasure in having healthy  
205 animals (Valeeva et al., 2007) and being a ‘good farmer’ (Swinkels et al., 2015). This  
206 highlights the importance of understanding the intrinsic motivations of the farmer.

207           A systematic review investigating farmer behaviour by Rose (2018) emphasised the  
208 positive influence of trained facilitators on farmer decision-making and highlighted the  
209 importance of ‘knowledge exchange’ between advisors and their farm clients. This approach  
210 seeks to understand farmers’ local environments and barriers to change and create farmer-  
211 centred solutions based on their individual intrinsic motivations (Bopp et al., 2019).  
212 According to Kristensen and Jakobsen (2011), knowledge should be tailored to context, and  
213 when practices are more in line with farmer goals and priorities, farmers are more likely to  
214 adopt them (Derks et al., (2013). Important behavioural constructs affecting farmer  
215 behaviour include self-efficacy, feeling in control of decision-making (Ellis-Iversen et al.,  
216 2010; O’Kane et al., 2017) and self-identity, which is the extent to which the behaviour is  
217 considered to be part of one’s self (Terry et al., 1999). This is in line with recommendations  
218 from Bard et al., (2019) who outlined that influencing farmer behaviour involves  
219 understanding their rooted beliefs, and empowering them to make their own decisions,

220 because behaviours associated with social identity are more likely to persist (Charng et al.,  
221 1988).

222 Farmer attitude, however, does not always match behaviour, as reported by Thompson  
223 et al., (2020), who observed space provided for housed dairy cows. Approximately half of the  
224 farmers in their study provided their cows with less space than their cited minimum value  
225 (Thompson et al., 2020). This suggests that other factors may play a part in management  
226 decision making, such as habits and social norms (Shortall et al. 2018). Thompson et al.,  
227 (2020) established that although farmers believed loafing space was important, barriers exist  
228 which prevent implementation, and while exploring these barriers would be beneficial, they  
229 are likely to be centred around context-bound factors such as cost, practicality and the  
230 individual farm layout. The evidence emerging from the qualitative social science literature  
231 on farmer behaviour shows that interviewing farmers can provide a different way of  
232 approaching problems and providing possible solutions, with the overall aim of improving  
233 the wellbeing of the animals they care for. This has relevance for the investigation of  
234 transition dairy cow management by farmers and their advisors.

235

### 236 **Uptake of management practices related to the transition dairy cow**

237 To the authors' knowledge there have been no social science studies conducted to  
238 understand the management of transition dairy cows in Europe. Recently, however, a  
239 qualitative North American study was published by Mills et al., (2020) where they used semi-  
240 structured interviews to identify barriers to optimal transition cow management in Canada.  
241 Mills et al. (2020) identified four main themes relating to barriers to improve transition  
242 management: farmer attitudes to the health and welfare of transition cows; farmer and  
243 stakeholder definitions of the transition period and information sources which could improve  
244 that; factors influencing transition cow management, with stocking density being a key

245 aspect; and finally, the involvement and influence of the farm veterinarian. Mills et al.  
246 (2020), while not including non-veterinary advisors in their study, emphasised a need to  
247 investigate the perspectives of nutritionists, feed representatives and business consultants.  
248 This has yet to be undertaken for transition cow management, but it is likely that these non-  
249 veterinary advisors exert a considerable influence over farmer decision-making in this area  
250 (Lowe 2009) that is likely to develop as the veterinarian becomes more consultancy- based,  
251 and farmers outsource farm services to other professionals (Woodward et al. 2019).

252         The animal feed industry promotes the use of different transition cow supplements  
253 including drenches, calcium binders, boluses, protected amino acids, choline, ‘fresh cow  
254 drinks’ for recently-calved cows, and a variety of methods for mineral supplementation  
255 (Sinclair and Atkins 2015). This variety and choice of products could be confusing to  
256 farmers. Ingram (2008) suggested that when farmers consider practices to be more  
257 knowledge-intensive and demand more attention to detail and observation than conventional  
258 practices, they can be off-putting to adopt. In addition to the variety of products being  
259 marketed, some transition cow management strategies also demand considerable attention to  
260 detail for implementation. For example, pre-calving cows on a dietary cation-anion balance  
261 diet to prevent milk fever must be fed a diet strictly monitored in anionic salt concentrations,  
262 which requires regular and time-consuming forage mineral analysis, and measurement of  
263 urinary pH (DeGaris and Lean, 2008).

264         Diet formulation and methods of feeding and housing differ between farms, so  
265 strategies may need to be adapted specifically to each farm based on its size, available labour,  
266 housing type, forage and other resources, and the associated knowledge must therefore be  
267 situated (Hassanein and Kloppenburg, 1995; Ingram, 2008). Knowledge has been shown to  
268 be better when it is anchored in a local situation, as it encompasses barriers and constraints  
269 that are specific to that area (Chenais and Fischer, 2018). Decontextualised knowledge is

270 difficult for farmers to understand and enact as behavioural change (Hamilton, 2018). It is  
271 likely that there is no “one size fits all” approach to transition management, because the best  
272 decision depends on the internal logic and context-bound reality on each dairy farm  
273 (Kristensen and Jakobsen, 2011).

274 As concluded by Bard et al., (2019), veterinary advice was more likely to enact  
275 change if it was delivered from a trusted advisor, encompassed a shared farmer-veterinarian  
276 understanding, and was interpreted in a way that was meaningful to that farmer and his/her  
277 unique circumstances on a local level. Scientific knowledge also plays a role, as outlined by  
278 Ritter et al., (2019), who recently concluded that farmers with post-secondary education were  
279 more satisfied with veterinary consultancy, perhaps because they had a deeper understanding  
280 and/or were more confident, and therefore more likely to adopt veterinary advice. The  
281 literature outlines that different forms of knowledge, both situated and scientific, combine  
282 with motivation, and when the factors interlink, they construct the necessary steps of utilising  
283 the available knowledge, adapting it to the individual’s needs, and building farmer confidence  
284 to aid in the decision-making process. This has been illustrated in Figure 2 (adapted from  
285 Valeeva et al., 2007, Rose, 2018 and Thomas et al., 2020).

286  
287 [Insert figure 2 here]

288  
289 Farmers are also exposed to multiple sources of knowledge and advice to which they  
290 attribute varying levels of perceived influence and credibility. Veterinarians and non-  
291 veterinary advisors such as nutritionists, dairy business consultants and animal feed sales  
292 representatives with differing levels of scientific knowledge and practical experience will  
293 undoubtedly influence farmer decision-making (Ellingsen et al., 2012; Bruijnjs et al., 2013).  
294 Although the veterinarian may be considered to be the farmer’s most trusted advisor (Enticott

295 et al., 2012), there are many unregulated consultants who visit farms and offer similar advisor  
296 services (Atkinson 2010; Ruston et al., 2016). Farmers are likely to be influenced by non-  
297 veterinary advisors if their input is considered credible and the advisor has legitimacy  
298 (Sutherland, 2013; Eastwood et al., 2017). Conflicting knowledge and different advice from  
299 multiple advisors can place farmers in a state of cognitive dissonance (Kristensen and  
300 Jakobsen 2011). This is an under-researched area, and although there are notable examples  
301 of research papers considering the influence of veterinary advice (e.g. Kaler and Green, 2013;  
302 Bellet et al., 2015; Robinson, 2020), there is a dearth of qualitative research examining non-  
303 veterinary advisors and their role and influence on livestock health (Mills et al., 2020).  
304 Interestingly, Bruijnjs et al. (2013) reported that feed advisors and foot trimmers appeared to  
305 have most influence on farmers' intentions to improve dairy cow foot health, rather than  
306 veterinarians. The range of advisor-influencers on dairy farmer behaviour are illustrated in  
307 Figure 3 (based on Garforth et al., 2013; Ruston et al., 2016; Mills et al., 2020; Palczynski et  
308 al., 2020b; Burton, 2004; Rose, 2018; Fischer et al., 2019). No research has yet been  
309 conducted that investigates the influence of non-veterinary advisors such as nutritionists and  
310 dairy farm consultants on farmer decision-making regarding transition cow management.  
311 Conducting research in this area may help advisors to tailor their knowledge transfer to  
312 farmers, allow for maximum uptake of knowledge, and increase the probability of adopting  
313 optimal management practices based on scientific evidence.

314

315 [Insert figure 3 here]

316

### 317 **Studying advisor behaviour**

318 Advisor communication has emerged to be a pertinent factor when addressing farmer  
319 adherence to advice and uptake of practices (Jansen et al., 2010). This was analysed by Ritter

320 et al. (2019) who determined that farmer preparedness to adopt veterinary advice was  
321 positively associated with their satisfaction, and negatively associated with the dominance of  
322 the veterinarian during the farm visit. Behavioural models such as the theory of planned  
323 behaviour suggest that intrinsic motivation is important in achieving compliance (Ajzen,  
324 1991), and when advice addresses the goals of the farmer it builds on their intrinsic  
325 motivation to implement change (Jansen and Lam, 2012). Derks et al., (2013) established that  
326 veterinarians were, however, reluctant to ask their clients about their goals. It was unclear  
327 why, but it was suggested that some veterinarians are reluctant to set targets as they feel they  
328 could be judged unfavourably if these goals are not met.

329         Veterinarians are aware of their influence and the requirement to be proactive, but  
330 they often struggle to maintain this in daily practice (Mee, 2007). The extent of this was  
331 highlighted by Ruston et al. (2016), where veterinarians reported difficulties in influencing  
332 farmer behaviour change, and despite coming under pressure to shift their role of ‘fire-  
333 fighter’ to a more preventative herd-health advisor, veterinarians were not promoting disease  
334 prevention services effectively to farmers. Jansen et al. (2010) outlined that veterinarians are  
335 poor at active listening, however as Kristensen and Jakobsen (2011) explained,  
336 communication skills are not part of the traditional veterinary curriculum, and the purpose is  
337 not to transfer their own knowledge, but to empower the farmer to make their own decisions,  
338 as discussed earlier. The literature therefore demonstrates a requirement for veterinarians  
339 (and other non-veterinary advisors) to invest in improving their communication skills, and to  
340 understand the different farmer learning styles and psychology behind behavioural changes  
341 and motivation (Atkinson, 2010).

342         Prevention of disease requires the engagement of the farmer, the veterinarian, and  
343 non-veterinary advisors (Garforth et al., 2004; DEFRA, 2012) to be coupled with effective  
344 and targeted knowledge exchange, training, and change of attitudes towards transition disease

345 prevention (Mulligan and Doherty, 2008). This includes veterinary and non-veterinary  
346 advisors communicating with each other (Smith and Hollis, 2007). This is not always put into  
347 practice, as Ruston et al. (2016) found that veterinarians felt threatened by non-veterinary  
348 advisors that also offered preventative herd health measures. Although veterinarians  
349 perceived these non-veterinary advisors to be amateurish, little was done to ensure  
350 occupational dominance (Ruston et al., 2016). Challenges in collaboration of inter-  
351 professional practice can be seen in parallel in other areas of veterinary practice including  
352 small animal practice (Kinnison et al. 2014), working with farriers (Moyer et al., 2012) and  
353 with equine physiotherapists (Bergenstrahle and Nielsen, 2016). These difficulties centre on  
354 power, status, the appreciation of professional roles, and lack of (or poor) communication  
355 (Kinnison et al., (2014). To the authors' knowledge, no research has been conducted  
356 investigating communication between dairy veterinarians and livestock nutritionists.  
357 However, May et al., (2017) suggested that veterinarians and nutritionists can effectively  
358 work together in the American feed-lot when 'blame' is removed, and the focus is primarily  
359 on how advisors can collectively solve farm challenges. When farmers frequently had a  
360 "round table discussion" with their veterinarian, their preparedness to adopt veterinary advice  
361 increased (Ritter et al., 2019).

362

### 363 **Investigating the human dimension to transition cow management**

364 This review has demonstrated the breadth of work already taken across multiple  
365 themes in relation to farmer and advisor attitudes and behaviours, and this section considers  
366 avenues for research specifically to investigate the human dimension of transition cow  
367 management. Possible social science research methods to investigate how human influences  
368 may relate to the uptake and implementation of transition-related management practices



369 include conducting questionnaires, focus groups and semi-structured individual interviews  
370 with dairy farmers and their farm-advisors. Each of these methods have their undoubted  
371 merits but may also offer specific drawbacks. Questionnaires allow a wider reach to  
372 participants and provide opportunity for what may be considered more objective quantitative  
373 analysis, but they fail to provide in-depth insight into a participant's attitude, even when  
374 'open' questions are asked (Beiske, 2007). Focus group interviews offer more discussion with  
375 other participants, allowing natural conversation to emerge between participants based on  
376 prompts from a group moderator, and provide multiple views in one interview. While this  
377 approach better reflects real world interaction, some participants may be discouraged from  
378 discussing their opinions and experiences in the company of others (Gibbs 1997). Semi-  
379 structured individual interviews are, in the opinion of the authors, a powerful tool to allow  
380 researchers to explore participants' responses further, whilst maintaining relevance to the  
381 topic guide and retaining an element of privacy and specificity at the level of the individual.  
382 Logistically, individual interviews are easier to conduct with farmers and other relevant  
383 stakeholders, avoiding the inherent challenges in gathering groups of people at mutually  
384 convenient times, and overcoming the potential reluctance of sharing commercially-sensitive  
385 information with others if assured of anonymity.

386         Following these considerations, a mixed methods approach could be employed  
387 whereby a farm audit could be conducted to include nutritional, cattle and housing  
388 measurements on participants' farms, to assess nutritional and management risk factors  
389 pertaining to metabolic diseases. This would allow comparisons to be made between farmer  
390 perceptions and understanding of their current transition cow health and management  
391 practices and what is actually happening on the farm, while also providing the opportunity to  
392 benchmark against current scientific recommendations. Such a study may aim to investigate  
393 whether farmers are aware of the scope of their metabolic problems, the related risk factors,

394 and how to solve them. Furthermore, if farmers are not aware, it may investigate what  
395 contributes to this lack of awareness or inaction. On the contrary, if farmers are aware of  
396 their risk factors, and are successfully acting to reduce metabolic diseases, such a study  
397 would provide valuable direction on what can be learned from farmers. This will assist in  
398 developing behavioural intervention strategies, and address some of the external people  
399 factors that influence farmer behaviours (such as advisor relationships and behaviour).  
400 Establishing advisor attitudes and opinions and understanding what influences them to  
401 provide focussed transition advice may also help to uncover reasons for the ongoing high  
402 incidence of metabolic diseases on dairy farms.

403

#### 404 **Conclusions**

405         The overall aim of this review has been to hypothesise, based on previous research on  
406 related cattle health and welfare themes and other aspects of farm business, that social  
407 influences may relate to the uptake and implementation of transition management practices at  
408 farm level. The review of the literature on the transition cow demonstrates the scale of the  
409 problem which remains to be solved, and we have argued that social science research  
410 methodologies, particularly individual interviewing, could usefully elucidate what motivates  
411 farmers to adopt particular methods of management in relation to the transition dairy cow,  
412 what prevents them from taking on improved practices and why transition cow management  
413 approaches remain suboptimal on many dairy farms, despite farmer and advisor intervention.  
414 Veterinarians and nutritionists are persuasive and powerful actors influencing farmer goals  
415 and priorities, and subsequently farmer behaviour, attitudes and experiences in relation to  
416 transition cow management also need to be investigated. As qualitative research has helped  
417 to identify various social factors which influence management of several other areas of dairy  
418 cow health and welfare, the reliability and depth of insight that interviewing provides makes

419 it repeatable and relevant for transition cow health. Additionally, how much farmer decision-  
420 making is influenced by non-veterinary advisors such as nutritionists is an important area for  
421 investigation using social science research methods, particularly as non-veterinary advisors  
422 continue to develop specialist roles alongside or in competition with veterinary practices.  
423 These ‘people factors’ in transition cow health remain an important and largely unexplored  
424 area of research which needs to be addressed if the conundrum of why the ever-increasing  
425 volumes of scientific research findings and knowledge are not improving transition cow  
426 health can be solved. Reducing metabolic disease prevalence is vitally important if dairy  
427 production is to be more efficient and sustainable in the future, and for cow welfare to be  
428 substantially improved.

429

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433

#### 434 Conflict of interest statement

435 None of the authors have a financial or personal relationship with other people or  
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