

Second generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in barn owls 2020

Lee A. Walker, Jacky S. Chaplow, Beverly A. Dodd, Elaine D. Potter, M. Gloria Pereira, Darren Sleep, and Alexander G. Hunt

Date 21/02/2022

- **Title** Second generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in barn owls 2020
- Client Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use

Confidentiality, © 2022 Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) copyright and UK reproduction

- UKCEH reference Project No. 05766
- This report should Walker, L.A., Chaplow, J.S., Dodd, B.A., Hunt, A., Pereira,
 be cited as M.G., Potter, E.D., Sleep, D., 2020. Second generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in barn owls 2019. UKCEH contract report to the Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) UK, pp. 26
 - UKCEH contact Lee A. Walker details UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Lancaster Environment Centre, Library Avenue, Bailrigg, Lancaster, LA1 4AP, UK

t: +44 (0)1524 595860 e: leew@ceh.ac.uk

Author Lee A. Walker, Jacky S. Chaplow, Beverly A. Dodd, Elaine D. Potter, M. Gloria Pereira, Darren Sleep, and Alexander G. Hunt

Contents

1	E>	cecutive Summary	2
2	In	troduction	3
	2.1 antic	Exposure of non-target predators and their prey to second generation coagulant rodenticides (SGARs) in Britain	3
	2.2	Changes in SGAR authorisations and implementation of stewardship	4
	2.3	Aims of the current study	5
3	M	ethods	6
4	Re	esults	8
	4.1	General summary of liver SGAR residue data for 2020 owls	8
	4.2	Number of owls with liver AR residues above and below 100 ng/g wet wt	9
		Concentrations of brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone and ∑SGARs in cohort of owls with residues <100 ng/g wet weight ("low" residues) and >100	
	ng/g	wet weight ("high" residues)	12
5	Di	scussion	16
6	Ac	cknowledgements	18
7	Re	eferences	19
A	ppen	dix 1 – Analytical method for determination of SGARs in liver tissues	22

1 Executive Summary

The current report is the sixth in a series of annual reports that describe the monitoring of second generation anticoagulant rodenticide (SGAR) liver residues in barn owls *Tyto alba* in Britain. This work is an element of an overarching monitoring programme undertaken to track the outcomes of stewardship activities associated with the use of anticoagulant rodenticides. The barn owl is used for exposure monitoring as it is considered a sentinel for species that are generalist predators of small mammals in rural areas. The specific work reported here is the measurement of liver SGAR residues in 100 barn owls that died in 2020 at locations across Britain. The residue data are compared with those from 395 barn owls that died between 2006 and 2012 (hereafter termed baseline years), prior to changes in anticoagulant rodenticide (AR) authorisations and onset of stewardship.

As in the baseline years, the compounds detected most frequently in barn owls that died in 2020 were brodifacoum, bromadiolone, and difenacoum. Overall, 88% of the owls had detectable liver residues of one or more SGAR.

Numbers of barn owls containing detectable residues of flocoumafen and difethialone. There was no significant difference in the proportion of barn owls with detectable liver residues of flocoumafen between the baseline years and 2020. There was a significantly higher proportion of barn owls with detectable liver residues of difethialone in 2020 compared to baseline years (5% vs 0.3%) but it was lower than in some of the intervening years (2016-2019).

The ratio of birds with "low" (<100 ng/g wet weight (wet wt.) vs "high" (>100 ng/g wet wt.) concentrations for any single SGAR or for \sum SGARs. There were significantly higher proportion of birds from 2020 with "high" concentrations of brodifacoum and summed SGARs (\sum SGARs) detected in their livers compared to baseline years.

Average concentrations of brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone and \sum SGARs in the cohort of owls with "low" residues (<100 ng/g wet wt.) and "high" residues (>100 ng/g wet wt.). There was no significant difference between barn owls from baseline years and from 2020 in the concentrations of either "low" or "high" residues for all residues summed (\sum SGARs), bromadiolone and difenacoum, or "high" brodifacoum residues. The median concentration of "low" brodifacoum residues was higher in birds from 2020 than in baseline years.

Overall, there were few differences in liver SGAR accumulation between barn owls that died in baseline years and in 2020, the eception being a potential increase brodifacoum residues. The lack of significant reductions in SGAR residues in barn owls in 2020 suggests that full implementation of stewardship since 2018 has yet to result in a statistically significant reduction in exposure of barn owls to SGARs.

2 Introduction

The current report is the sixth in a series of annual reports describing the magnitude of second generation anticoagulant rodenticide (SGAR) liver residues in barn owls *Tyto alba* in Britain. The background to, rationale for, and aims of the study remain unchanged from those described in previous reports. They are repeated here in Sections 2.1-2.3 so that the current report can be read as a stand-alone publication.

2.1 Exposure of non-target predators and their prey to second generation anticoagulant rodenticides (SGARs) in Britain

Avian and mammalian predators and scavengers in rural Britain are widely exposed to second generation anticoagulant rodenticides (SGARs) (McDonald et al., 1998; Newton et al., 1999; Shore et al., 2003a; Shore et al., 2003b; Shore et al., 2006; Walker et al., 2008a; Walker et al., 2008b; Dowding et al., 2010; Hughes et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2014; Ruiz-Suárez et al., 2016; Sainsbury et al., 2018). Defra's Wildlife Incident Investigation Scheme (WIIS)¹ and the Predatory Bird Monitoring Scheme (PBMShttp://pbms.ceh.ac.uk/) have suggest that exposure can lead to some mortalities. Exposure is generally thought to be secondary in most predators and scavengers but, as many species rarely feed on commensal rodents, exposure is likely due to feeding on non-target small mammal species (Rattner et al., 2014; Shore et al., 2015; Geduhn et al., 2016). In Britain, such non-target species are primarily wood mice Apodemus sylvaticus and bank voles Myodes glareolus, which will feed on bait they encounter (Brakes and Smith, 2005; Tosh et al., 2012). This exposure scenario may be most significant where SGARs are used around buildings and in open areas. The predominance of difenacoum and bromadiolone (compounds that historically were the only SGARs licensed for in and around buildings and open area use in Britain) in barn owl livers in past years is consistent with this assumption. However, these SGARs were also the most widely used compounds in Britain and residues in predators may simply reflect predominant usage (Shore, et al., 2015).

The barn owl can be considered as a sentinel for demonstrating exposure to SGARs in generalist predators of small mammals in rural areas in the UK and elsewhere; SGAR residues have been detected in this species in Canada, Denmark, France and Spain (López-Perea & Mateo, 2018). Monitoring of liver SGAR residues in barn owls in Britain has demonstrated increases in exposure largely through the 1980s and 1990s, and current widespread prevalence of residues (Walker, et al., 2014). However, there is no evidence of an associated adverse effect on barn owl populations. Previous declines in barn owl numbers are more likely to have been the indirect consequence of the earlier use of organochlorine pesticides and subsequent changes in the agricultural management of grassland (Smith and Shore, 2015). At the last comprehensive census of the population conducted during the period 1995-97, there was an estimated 4,000 breeding pairs of barn owls in the UK (Toms et al., 2001). More recently, the UK population has been estimated to be in the range 9,000 to

¹ Quarterly WIIS reports are available at <u>http://www.hse.gov.uk/pesticides/topics/reducing-environmental-impact/wildlife/wiis-quarterly-reports.htm</u>

^{© 2022} Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) UK

12,000 breeding pairs (Prescott et al., 2019). Additionally in 2015 the barn owl population status in the UK was moved from amber to green on the UK Bird of Conservation Concern assessment and IUCN threat status category of Least Concern indicating that the species occurs regularly in the UK (Stansbury et al., 2021).

2.2 Changes in SGAR authorisations and implementation of stewardship

Five SGARs are currently authorised for use in the United Kingdom - difenacoum, bromadiolone, brodifacoum, flocoumafen and difethialone. As previously stated, only difenacoum and bromadiolone were historically authorised for use both in and around buildings and in open areas in Britain. The other three compounds were restricted to indoor use as a mitigation measure to reduce unintentional primary and secondary exposure and poisoning of non-target species. However, a review of the available ecotoxicological data for the five SGARs concluded that they were indistinguishable in terms of environmental toxicity (risks to non-target species) and should be treated in the same way in terms of authorisation in the UK (Health & Safety Executive, 2012). This led to a change in the way authorisations are assessed and all five SGARs are currently eligible for broadly similar authorisations that can include in and around buildings and, potentially, open area use. However, industry has voluntarily agreed to make no applications for authorisations for the use of brodifacoum, difethialone and flocoumafen in open areas (A. Buckle pers. comm.).

The changes in authorisations for anticoagulant rodenticide (ARs) have been accompanied by the development and implementation of an industry-led stewardship scheme <u>http://www.thinkwildlife.org/stewardship-regime/</u>. Stewardship is intended to coordinate and deliver best practice in terms of use of ARs and thereby minimise (and reduce from current levels) exposure and risk to non-target species (Buckle et al., 2017). The stewardship scheme in the UK is being implemented by the Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU- UK - <u>http://www.thinkwildlife.org/about-crru/</u>)

One element of stewardship is a requirement to monitor outcomes. This involves five elements:

- A periodic survey on the knowledge, attitudes and practices of all professional rodenticide users in order to observe changes over time. A baseline survey had been conducted in advance of regime implementation and follow-up studies were undertaken in 2017 and 2020.
- An annual report of WIIS data concerning vertebrate pesticides used in the UK.
- Reviews of the current state of knowledge of the distribution, severity and practical implications of anticoagulant resistance in UK rodents (Jones et al., 2019; Buckle et al., 2020).
- SGAR residues in the livers of barn owls from across Britain are monitored annually to determine whether there has been any change in exposure in this wildlife sentinel.
- The breeding success at 130 selected barn owl nest sites located across five regions of the UK are monitored to determine year on year fluctuations in nest productivity (see Prescott et al., 2019). This is to examine certain barn owl

breeding parameters in the presence of the SGAR residues found in the UK barn owl population.

This report relates to the monitoring of SGAR residues in barn owls.

The ways in which monitoring of SGAR residues in barn owls could be used to assess the impacts on non-targets of change in authorisation and associated stewardship were outlined in a report by Shore et al. (2014). That report described an analysis that examined how long it would take to detect change [of 10%, 20% and 50%] in liver SGAR concentrations from average levels of 395 barn owls that died between 2006 and 2012 (i.e. before the implementation of stewardship). The dataset of residues for 395 barn owls was considered to be a baseline against which to measure future change.

Annual monitoring of liver SGAR residues in barn owls is currently conducted in support of stewardship and uses birds that died in 2016 and in later years—changes in authorisations and implementation of stewardship relate to 2016 and thereafter. This report considers birds that died in 2020.

2.3 Aims of the current study

The rationale for using data on SGAR residues in barn owls that died between 2006 and 2012 as a baseline measurement against which future changes would be assessed is described by Shore et al. (2014). This time period was chosen partly because all measurements had been made using Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (LCMS), which is more sensitive than older fluorescence methods in terms of detecting residues (Dowding, et al., 2010; Shore, et al., 2015).

The current report describes liver SGAR concentrations in barn owls that died in 2020. In this report, we compare SGAR residues in a sample of 100 barn owls that died in 2020 with those in barn owls that died between the 2006 and 2012 (baseline) years. We also include, for information purposes, summaries of the data obtained for birds that died in 2015 (pre-stewardship) and the intervening years. The stewardship scheme for anticoagulant rodenticides came into force in mid-2016 as re-registration of products for use in the UK was completed with a requirement for proof of competence at point of sale. Further stewardship measures came into effect in 2017 and 2018.

3 Methods

We analysed 100 barn owls for liver SGAR residues. The owls were collected as part of the Predatory Bird Monitoring Scheme (PBMS). Carcasses were submitted to the PBMS by members of the public throughout the year and were from across the whole of Britain, although predominantly England (Figure 1). All barn owls received by the PBMS were autopsied and they were found to have died from various causes, but mainly from road traffic collisions or starvation. As with the 2019 cohort, in all but one bird, any haemorrhaging detected at postmortem in birds was always associated with signs of trauma and so there was no clear evidence that those individuals had died from anticoagulant rodenticide poisoning. The one remaining bird showed pooling of blood in the buccal cavity, heavy bruising on left pectoral muscle and subcutaneuos haemorrhaging, bruising on left wing muscle, and a small amount of haemorrhage in skull that are consistent with SGARs contributing to the death of the bird . The bird had been found in a brick barn and there were no obvious causes of physical trauma.

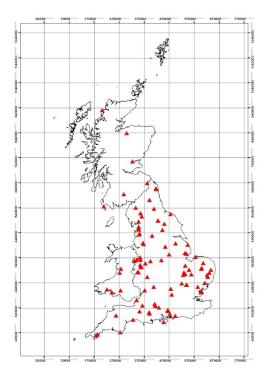


Figure 1. Provenance of the barn owls that died in 2020 and were analysed for liver SGAR residues

The composition of the 100 birds collected in 2020 was 31 adults (17 males, 14 females) and 69 first-years (39 males, 30 females); first year birds were individuals hatched in the current or previous year. Overall, the percentage of adults in the 2020 sample was 31% and so within the confidence limits of the baseline dataset (mean: 29.5%, 95% confidence limits: 20.4 - 38.7%). Age has an effect on the magnitude of residues accumulated by barn owls (Walker et al., 2014) and consistency between years in the proportion of adults in the sample is therefore important. For birds received by the PBMS and not analysed, tissue samples are retained in the PBMS tissue archive.

Liver subsamples were analysed for difenacoum, bromadiolone, brodifacoum, flocoumafen and difethialone. Chemical determination of residues was by Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry and a summary of the analytical methods can be found in Appendix 1 of this report. AR concentrations in this report are given as ng/g wet weight (wet wt.) throughout. Data used from the report by Shore et al. (2014) were multiplied by 1000 to convert them from μ g/g wet wt. to ng/g wet wt.; for example, 0.1 μ g/g wet wt. is equivalent to 100 ng/g wet wt. Limits of detection (LoD) for each compound were 1.5 ng/g wet wt. for all compounds except difethialone that had a LoD of 3.0 ng/g wet wt., which is consistent over the baselineand monitoring period. Mean (± SD) recovery for deuterated bromadiolone and brodifacoum standards that were added to each of the 100 samples was 76.6±5.9 and 79.4±5.3%, respectively.

Shore et al. (2014) outlined how new data on residues should be compared to the baseline dataset. For statistical reasons, this involves dividing the residue data into two populations: (i) so called "low" residues which are <100 ng/g wet wt. and include non-detected values (assigned a numerical value of zero), and (ii) "high" residues which are >100 ng/g wet weight. These two datasets were analysed separately. This approach was used for liver difenacoum, bromadiolone and brodifacoum residues and for summed concentrations (\sum SGARs); summed residues were calculated as the arithmetic sum of the residues of any of the five SGARs that were measured. For flocoumafen and difethialone, there were few barn owls in the baseline dataset with liver residues of either compound and statistical comparison with concentrations in later years was not possible. Change in exposure to each of these two compounds was assessed through comparison of the proportion of birds with detectable residues in baseline and in subsequent years.

Overall, three metrics of change were assessed as per Shore et al. (2014):

- a) Change in the ratio of birds with detectable residues of flocoumafen and difethialone
- b) Changes in the ratio *number of owls with "high" concentrations: number of owls with "low" concentrations* for brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone, ∑SGARs
- c) Change in "low" and "high" concentrations of brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone, and summed SGARs (∑SGARs)

A summary of the proportion of birds with detectable residues of flocoumafen and difethialone in 2018 (metric (a)) is given in Section 4.1. This metric is also given for the other SGARs and for \sum SGARs but for information only. The above metrics for (b) and (c) are reported in sections 4.2 and 4.3, respectively. Comparisons between baseline years and 2020 for the proportions of birds that had detectable residues were by Fisher's Exact test. Comparisons of liver SGAR concentrations between owls that died in baseline years and in 2020 were conducted by Mann-Whitney U tests. A probability level of P<0.05 was taken as statistically significant.

Although comparison between the baseline and current year is the metric required for stewardship reporting, change over years can also be informative and the change in metrics from baseline is shown for years 2015 to 2020 for information (Figures 3-6). This is the first year that time trend analysis was conducted on prevalence and magnitude of detected residues and the magnitude of residues.

4 Results

4.1 General summary of liver SGAR residue data for 2020 owls

As in the baseline and subsequent years, the compounds detected most frequently in barn owls that died in 2020 were bromadiolone, difenacoum and brodifacoum. Between 56% and 76% of 2020 owls contained detectable residues of each of these compounds (Table 1). Overall, 88% of owls in 2020 had detectable liver residues of one or more SGAR. The equivalent figure in the baseline years was 81% and it has varied between 78% (2016) and 94% (2015) subsequently (Figure 2). Some 73% of the owls in 2020 had multiple compounds in their livers.

Table 1. Proportion of barn owls that died in 2020 and had non-detected and detected liver bromadiolone, difenacoum, brodifacoum, \sum SGARs and multiple SGAR residues.

	Brom ¹	Difen ¹	Brod ¹	∑SGARs	multiple residues
non-detected	39	43	24	12	27
detected	61	57	76	88	73
% detected	61%	57%	76%	87%	73%

¹ Brom: bromadiolone, Difen: difenacoum, Brod: brodifacoum

One of the metrics for stewardship is the proportion of barn owls with detectable liver flocoumafen or difethialone residues in 2020 compared with in baseline years. Similarly to previous monitoring years, except 2016, there was a significantly higher proportion of birds with detectable liver residues of difethialone in 2020 than in baseline years (Fisher exact test, P=0.002). Flocoumafen had the same level of prevalence in 2020 as in baseline years, namely 3% of birds had detectable residues of this compound (Table 2). Linear regression analysis on the proportion of barn owls that had detected residues indicated that for both flocoumafen and difethialone there was not a significant time trend ($F_{1,5}\leq 2.56$, $P\geq 0.171$).

Table 2. Proportion of barn owls that had non-detected and detected liver concentrations of flocoumafen and difethialone

	Flocoum	nafen	Difethialone			
-	Baseline	2020	Baseline	2020		
non-detected	383	97	394	95		
detected	12	3	1	5		
% Detected	3%	3%	0.3%	5%		
P-value ¹	1		0.0016			

¹ P-value determined by Fisher's exact test.

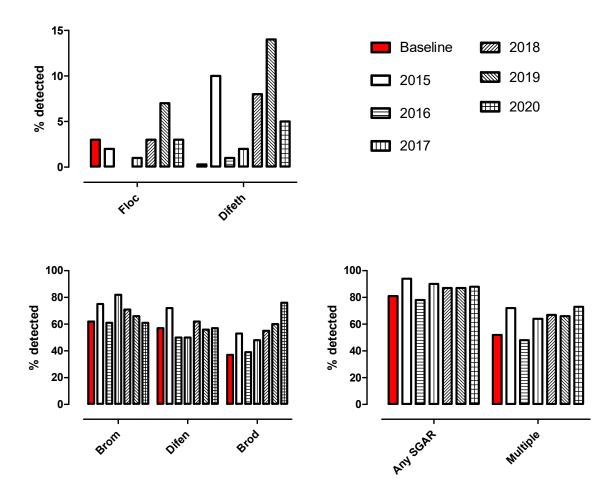


Figure 2. Percentage of barn owls with detected residues of SGARs in their liver. No birds found in 2016 had detectable residues of flocoumafen in their liver. Brom: bromadiolone; Difen: difenacoum; Brod: brodifacoum; Floc: flocoumafen, Difeth: difethialone.

4.2 Number of owls with liver AR residues above and below 100 ng/g wet wt.

This analysis was conducted for brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone and Σ SGARs only.

For bromadiolone and difenacoum there was no significant difference between barn owls from baseline years and 2020 in the ratio of birds with "low" (<100 ng/g wet wt.) vs "high" (>100 ng/g wet wt.). However, there was a significantly higher proportion of birds with "high" concentrations of brodifacoum and Σ SGARs (Table 3 and Figure 3).

The percentages of owls with "high" residues in all six monitoring years/periods are shown in Figure 3. This is the first year during the monitoring period that the values for brodifacoum, exceeded 6% and that the value for Σ SGARs exceeded 20%. There was no statistically significant correlation between the proportion of owls with "high" bromadiolone, difenacoum, or Σ SGARs concentrations and year for baseline through to 2020 (P>=0.302).

Linear regression analysis on the proportion of barn owls that had "high" concentration detected indicated that there was no statistically significant time trend for bromodialone, difenacoum or \sum SGARs (F1,5≤2.72, P≥0.160). This was also the case for brodifacoum, but the analysis was close to significance (F1,5≤5.71, P=0.062) and spearman rank correlation analysis showed a positive relationship between proportion of birds with "high" brodifacoum concentrations and year (Spearman r=0.927, P=0.007). Visual inspection of the data (Fig. 3) suggests that these relationships are highly reliant upon the result for 2020, which appears to be notably high compared to other years.

and "high" (>100 ng/g wet wt.) concentrations of SGARs in their liver										
	Bromadiolone		Difenacoum		Brodifacoum		∑SGAR			
Conc.	Baseline	2020	Baseline	2020	Baseline	2020	Baseline	2020		
<100 ng/g	376	94	375	100	381	84	329	72		
"low"										
>100 ng/g	19	6	20	0	14	16	66	28		
"high"										
% high	4.8%	6%	5.1%	0%	3.5%	16%	17%	28%		
P-value ¹	0.61	2	0.01	9	<0.00	01	0.01	5		

Table 3. Number of barn owls that had "low" (non-detected and <100 ng/g wet wt.) and "high" (>100 ng/g wet wt.) concentrations of SGARs in their liver

¹ P-value determined by Fisher's exact test, P<0.05 are considered statistically significant

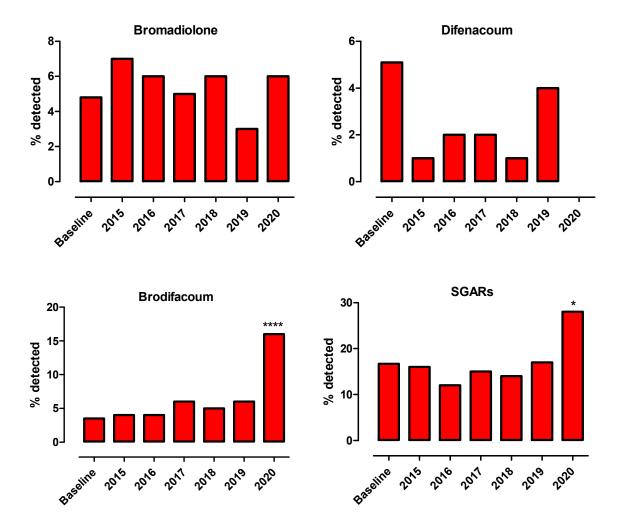


Figure 3. Proportion of barn owls with "high" (>100 ng/g wet wt.) liver SGAR concentrations. No birds found in 2020 had "high" residues of difenacoum in their liver. Statically significant differences between baseline and a subsequent year are indicated (* = P<0.05, **** = P<0.0001).

4.3 Concentrations of brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone and ∑SGARs in the cohort of owls with residues <100 ng/g wet weight ("low" residues) and >100 ng/g wet weight ("high" residues)

For Σ SGARs, there was no significant difference between barn owls from baseline years and 2020 in the magnitude of either "low" or "high" residues (Tables 4 and 5). This was also true for "low" residues of bromadiolone and difenacoum and "high" residues of bromadiolone, while there were too few birds with "high" residues in order test whether the magnitude of residues were significantly different between baseline years and 2020 for difenacoum. For brodifacoum, the "low" residues were significantly higher in birds from 2020 compared with the baseline years, but there was no significant difference between 2020 and baseline years for the magnitude of "high" residues.

Although comparison between the baseline and current year is the metric required for stewardship monitoring, change over years can also be informative and is shown in Figures 4 and 5. There were few apparent temporal trends — the 75th percentile and median concentrations for "low" concentrations tended to be lowest in year 2016 and 2017 (Figure 4). The descriptive statistics for "high" concentrations have generally been similar among years (Figure 5). The exception to these observations is for "low" brodifacoum concentration where the last two years are significantly higher than the base line and there is a positive correlation between median concentration and year (Spearman rank correlation, P<0.001).

Table 4. Median, 25th percentile (Q1), and 75th percentile (Q3) concentrations (ng/g wet wt.) of bromadiolone, difenacoum and brodifacoum in barn owl livers. Non-detected values were assigned a score of zero. Sample numbers (N) given in Table 3.

		Brom	adiolo	ne²	Difenacoum ²		Brodifacoum			
Conc.		Median	Q1	Q3	Median	Q1	Q3	Median	Q1	Q3
< 100	Baseline	5.0	0.0	17.8	3.1	0.0	12.3	0.0	0.0	5.9
ng/g wet wt.	2020	2.5	0.0	15.8	2.0	0.0	9.0	5.7	0.0	20.2
(low)	MW value ¹	16660			17863			9845		
	P-value	0.374			0.446			<0.0001		
> 100	Baseline	179	114	224	136	115	160	347	133	923
ng/g wet wt.	2020	124	118	166	ND	-	-	405	252	545
(high)	MW value ¹	39						110		
	P-value	0.266						0.950		

¹ Mann-Whitney U value

² None of the 100 barn owls tested had detected "high" residues of difenacoum and so it was not possible to compare between concentrations for the baseline years and 2020 for this compound.

Table 5. Median, 25^{th} percentile (Q1), and 75^{th} percentile (Q3) concentrations (ng/g wet wt.) of $\sum SGARs$ in barn owl livers. Non-detected values were assigned a score of zero. Sample numbers (N) given in Table 3.

		Sum SGAR						
Conc.		Median	Q1	Q3				
"Low"	Baseline	15.4	2.8	38.5				
	2020	19.5	3.8	44.8				
	MW value ¹	11035						
	P-value	0.361						
"High"	Baseline	171	123	272				
	2020	221	134	446				
	MW value ¹	751						
	P-value	0.154						
¹ Mann-Whitney U value								

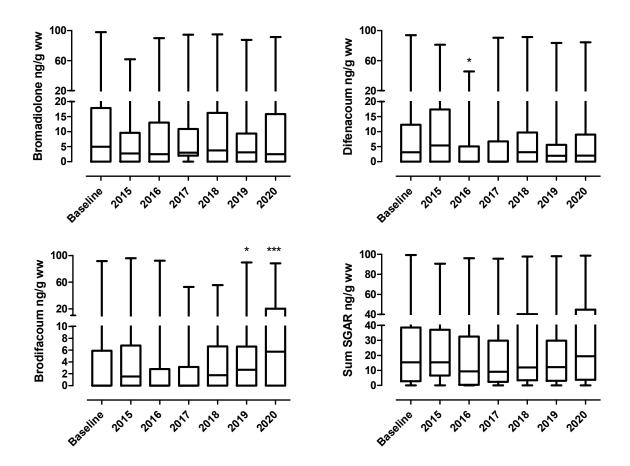


Figure 4. Box and whiskers plot of brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone and \sum SGARs liver concentrations in the cohort of owls with residues <100 ng/g wet weight ("low" residues) found dead in the 2006-2012 (Baseline), and single years 2015 to 2020. Horizontal line, box and whiskers represent median, 25-75th quartile range and minimum maximum range, respectively. Statically significant differences between baseline and a subsequent year is indicated (* = P<0.05, *** = P<0.001).

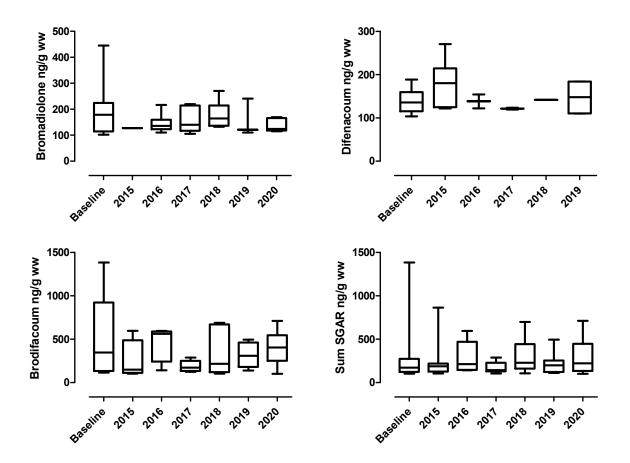


Figure 5. Box and whiskers plot of brodifacoum, difenacoum, bromadiolone and \sum SGARs liver concentrations in the cohort of owls with residues >100 ng/g wet weight ("high" residues) found dead in the 2006-2012 (Baseline), and years 2015 to 2020. Horizontal line, box and whiskers represent median, 25-75th quartile range and minimum maximum range, respectively. No comparisons with Baseline concentrations were significant.

5 Discussion

Overall, there were few differences in liver SGAR metrics between barn owls that died in baseline years and those that died in 2020. However the metrics relating to brodifacoum suggest an increase in exposure to this compound in 2020.

The one bird that showed haemorrhaging at necropsy not associated with signs of trauma had a brodifacoum liver concentration of 649 ng/g wet weight, and \sum SGAR liver concentration of 655 ng/g wet weight. Given the necropsy observations and the relatively high SGAR concentration in its liver, it is possible to conclude that SGAR exposure contributed to the death of this bird. However this is only the second incidence of this kind since monitoring for the rodenticide stewardship began in 2016, over which time 500 birds have been analysed in total.

As in baseline years, residues of one or more active ingredients were present in most barn owls in 2020 but most residues (72% for \sum SGARs) were < 100 ng/g wet wt. There were only four statistically significant differences between baseline years and 2020 in terms of prevalence or magnitude of detectable concentrations. These were increased prevalence of difethialone, increased prevalence of brodifacoum and \sum SGARs in the cohort of owls with residues >100 ng/g wet weight ("high" residues), and an increase in median concentrations of brodifacoum residues <100 ng/g wet weight ("low" residues).

The rise in difethialone presence reflects that this SGAR was new to the market in baseline years. Overall, detection rates remain relatively low even in 2020.

As with the 2019 sample, the increase in the concentrations of brodifacoum in the "low" residues cohort partly reflected an increase in the proportion of owls with detectable "low" residues compared with baseline (Fisher's exact test, P<0.0001) with a reciprocal reduction in birds with no brodifacoum detected in their livers. This is consistent with there having been a small rise in exposure to this compound when comparing 2020 with baseline years and is illustrated in Figure 6. It is evident from these metrics and correlation analysis that exposure to brodifacoum may be increasing.

The lack of reductions in SGAR residues in barn owls in 2020 suggests that implementation of stewardship since 2016 has yet to result in a statistically significant reduction in exposure of barn owls to SGARs, and in the case of brodifacoum there is evidence that exposure in increasing.

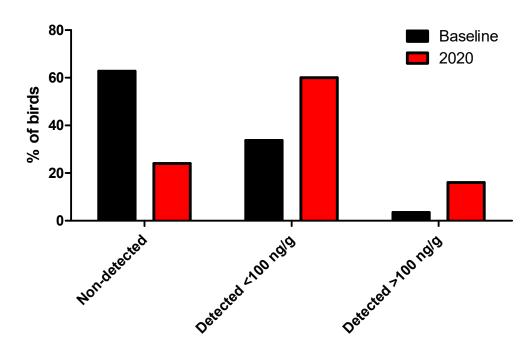


Figure 6. Percentage of birds in baseline years and 2020 that had either non-detected, detected but low residues, or detected but high residues of brodifacoum present in their livers.

6 Acknowledgements

This project was funded by the Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) UK.

We thank the Predatory Bird Monitoring Scheme (PBMS) for provision of barn owl livers for analysis. The PBMS collection of owl carcasses was supported by the Natural Environment Research Council award number NE/R016429/1 as part of the UK-SCAPE programme delivering National Capability.

The PBMS is a citizen science project and relies on members of the public to submit bird carcasses to the scheme. Their efforts are key to the success of the PBMS and projects, such as the current one, which are dependent on the samples collected, and we thank all members of the public who have sent in bird carcasses.

7 References

Brakes, C.R., Smith, R.H., 2005. Exposure of non-target small mammals to rodenticides: short-term effects, recovery and implications for secondary poisoning. Journal of Applied Ecology 42, 118-128.

Buckle, A., Prescott, C., Davies, M., Broome, R. (2017) The UK Rodenticide Stewardship Regime. A model for anticoagulant risk mitigation? In: Proceedings of the Ninth International Conference on Urban Pests. Davies, M., Pfeiffer, C., Robinson, W.H. (Eds.). Aston University, Birmingham, 9-12 July 2017. Pp. 165-170. http://www.icup.org.uk/report/ICUP1201.pdf (last accessed 7th November 2019)

Buckle, A., Jones, C., Talavera, M., Prescott, C., 2020. Anticoagulant resistance in rats and mice in the UK – summary report with new data for 2019-20. Vertebrate Pests Unit, The University of Reading, Report No. VPU/20/02. 19 pp. https://www.thinkwildlife.org/downloads/ (last accessed 30th October 2020).

Dowding, C.V., Shore, R.F., Worgan, A., Baker, P.J., Harris, S., 2010. Accumulation of anticoagulant rodenticides in a non-target insectivore, the European hedgehog (Erinaceus europaeus). Environmental Pollution 158, 161-166.

Geduhn, A., Esther, A., Schenke, D., Gabriel, D., Jacob, J., 2016. Prey composition modulates exposure risk to anticoagulant rodenticides in a sentinel predator, the barn owl. Science of the Total Environment 544, 150-157.

Health & Safety Executive, 2012. Consideration of the environmental risk from the use of brodifacoum, flocoumafen, difethialone, difenacoum and bromadiolone. p. 23 <u>http://www.hse.gov.uk/biocides/downloads/er-sgar.pdf</u> (last accessed 7th November 2019).

Hughes, J., Sharp, E., Taylor, M.J., Melton, L., Hartley, G., 2013. Monitoring agricultural rodenticide use and secondary exposure of raptors in Scotland. Ecotoxicology 22, 974-984.

Jones, C., Talavera, M., Buckle, A. and Prescott. C., 2019. Anticoagulant resistance in rats and mice in the UK – summary report with new data for 2019. Vertebrate Pests Unit, The University of Reading, Report No. VPU/19/12. 17 pp. <u>https://www.thinkwildlife.org/download/crru-2019-resistance-report-</u> <u>final/?wpdmdl=17815</u> (last accessed 7th November 2019).

López-Perea J.J. & Mateo R. 2018. Secondary exposure to anticoagulant rodenticides and effects on predators, in: N.W. van den Brink, N.W., Elliott, J.E., Shore, R.F., Rattner B.A. (Eds.), Anticoagulant Rodenticides and Wildlife, Springer International Publishing AG, Switzerland, pp. 159-193.

McDonald, R.A., Harris, S., Turnbull, G., Brown, P., Fletcher, M., 1998. Anticoagulant rodenticides in stoats (Mustela erminea) and weasels (Mustela nivalis) in England. Environmental Pollution 103, 17-23.

Newton, I., Shore, R.F., Wyllie, I., Birks, J.D.S., Dale, L., 1999. Empirical evidence of side-effects of rodenticides on some predatory birds and mammals, in: Cowan, D.P., Feare, C.J. (Eds.), Advances in vertebrate pest management. Filander Verlag, Fürth, pp. 347-367.

Prescott, C.V., Buckle, A.P., Shawyer, C. R. 2019. The breeding performance of Barn Owl populations in five regions of the United Kingdom – 2018 data Set. Vertebrate Pests Unit, The University of Reading, Report No. VPU/19/11. 22 pp. <u>https://www.thinkwildlife.org/download/barn-owl-monitoring-survey-2018-final-</u> <u>report/?wpdmdl=17823</u> (last accessed 7th November 2019).

Rattner, B.A., Lazarus, R.S., Elliott, J.E., Shore, R.F., van den Brink, N., 2014. Adverse Outcome Pathway and Risks of Anticoagulant Rodenticides to Predatory Wildlife. Environmental Science & Technology 48, 8433-8445.

Ruiz-Suárez, N., Melero, Y., Giela, A., Henríquez-Hernández, L.A., Sharp, E., Boada, L.D., Taylor, M.J., Camacho, M., Lambin, X., Luzardo, O.P., Hartley, G., 2016. Rate of exposure of a sentinel species, invasive American mink (Neovison vison) in Scotland, to anticoagulant rodenticides. Science of the Total Environment. 569-570, 1013-1021.

Sainsbury, K.A., Shore, R.F., Schofield, H., Croose, E., Pereira, M.G., Sleep, D., Kitchener, A.C., Hantke, G., McDonald, R.A. 2018. A long-term increase in secondary exposure to anticoagulant rodenticides in European polecats Mustela putorius in Great Britain. Environmental Pollution 236, 689-698.

Shore, R.F., Birks, J.D.S., Afsar, A., Wienburg, C.L., Kitchener, A.C., 2003a. Spatial and temporal analysis of second-generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in polecats (Mustela putorius) from throughout their range in Britain, 1992-1999. Environmental Pollution 122, 183-193.

Shore, R.F., Fletcher, M.R., Walker, L.A., 2003b. Agricultural pesticides and mammals in Britain, in: Tattersall, F.H., Manley, W.J. (Eds.), Conservation and conflict: mammals and farming in Britain. Linnean Society Occasional Publication No. 4. The Linnean Society, London, pp. 37-50.

Shore, R.F., Malcolm, H.M., McLennan, D., Turk, A., Walker, L.A., Wienburg, C.L., Burn, A.J., 2006. Did Foot and Mouth Disease control operations affect rodenticide exposure in raptors? Journal of Wildlife Management 70, 588-593.

Shore, R.F., Pereira M.G., Potter, E.D., Walker, L.A., 2015. Monitoring rodenticide residues in wildlife, in: Buckle, A.P., Smith, R.H. (Eds.), Rodent pests and their Control, 2nd edition. CAB International, Wallingford, pp. 346-365.

Shore, R.F., Walker, L.A., Potter, E.D., Pereira, G., 2016. Second generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in barn owls 2015., CEH contract report to the Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) UK. Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Lancaster, UK, p. 17. <u>http://pbms.ceh.ac.uk/sites/pbms.ceh.ac.uk/files/stewardship-2015-owls_0.pdf</u> (last accessed 7th November 2019).

Shore, R.F., Walker, L.A., Potter,, E.D., Pereira, M.G., Sleep, D., Thompson, N.J., Hunt, A. 2017. Second generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in barn owls 2017. CEH contract report to the Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) UK, 21 pp. <u>http://pbms.ceh.ac.uk/sites/pbms.ceh.ac.uk/files/stewardship-2016owls.pdf</u> (last accessed 7th November 2019).

Shore, R.F., Walker, L.A., Potter, E.D., Chaplow, J.S., Pereira, M.G., Sleep, D., Hunt, A. 2019. Second generation anticoagulant rodenticide residues in barn owls 2018. CEH contract report to the Campaign for Responsible Rodenticide Use (CRRU) UK,

pp. 24 <u>https://pbms.ceh.ac.uk/sites/default/files/stewardship-2018-owls_FINAL.pdf</u> (last accessed 29th September 2019)

Smith, R.H., Shore, R.F. 2015. Environmental impacts of rodenticides. Chapter 16 in Rodent Pests and their Control, 2nd Edition, (Buckle, AP, Smith RH eds) CAB International, Wallingford, Oxon, UK. pp 330-345.

Stanbury, A., Eaton, M., Aebischer, N., Balmer, D., Brown, A., Douse, A., Lindley, P., McCulloch, N., Noble, D., and Win I. 2021. The status of our bird populations: the fifth Birds of Conservation Concern in the United Kingdom, Channel Islands and Isle of Man and second IUCN Red List assessment of extinction risk for Great Britain. British Birds 114: 723-747.

Toms, M.P., Crick, H.Q.P., Shawyer C.R. 2001. The status of breeding Barn Owls Tyto alba in the United Kingdom 1995-1997. Bird Study 48, 23-37.

Tosh, D.G., McDonald, R.A., Bearhop, S., Llewellyn, N.R., Montgomery, W.I., Shore, R.F., 2012. Rodenticide exposure in wood mouse and house mouse populations on farms and potential secondary risk to predators. Ecotoxicology 21, 1325-1332.

Walker, L.A., Chaplow, J.S., Moeckel, C., Pereira, M.G., Potter, E., Shore, R.F., 2014. Anticoagulant rodenticides in predatory birds 2012: a Predatory Bird Monitoring Scheme (PBMS) report. Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Lancaster, UK p. 18. https://wiki.ceh.ac.uk/download/attachments/134414860/PBMS%134414820Report% 134414820Rodentocide%134202012.pdf?version=134414861&modificationDate=14 02491816000&api=v140249181600 (last accessed 7th November 2019).

Walker, L.A., Shore, R.F., Turk, A., Pereira, M.G., Best, J., 2008a. The Predatory Bird Monitoring Scheme: Identifying chemical risks to top predators in Britain. Ambio 37, 466-471.

Walker, L.A., Turk, A., Long, S.M., Wienburg, C.L., Best, J., Shore, R.F., 2008b. Second generation anticoagulant rodenticides in tawny owls (Strix aluco) from Great Britain. Science of the Total Environment 392, 93-98.

Appendix 1 – Analytical method for determination of SGARs in liver tissues

A sub sample (0.25g) of each liver was thawed, weighed accurately, ground and dried with anhydrous sodium sulfate. Each sample was spiked with labelled standards (d^5 -Bromodialone, and d^4 -Brodifacoum, QMx). Chloroform: acetone (1:1 v/v) was added to each sample and the samples were thoroughly mixed using a vortex.

Samples were extracted on a mechanical shaker (Stuart SF1, Bibby Scientific) for 1h, then centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 5 minutes and the supernatant was transferred to a clean tube. This process was repeated with clean solvent, but the second time, samples were on the mechanical shaker for only 30 minutes. The combined extract was evaporated to dryness using nitrogen, re-dissolved in chloroform:acetone (1:1; v/v) and filtered (0.2 mm Polytetrafluoroethylene, PTFE, filter). The filtered sample was evaporated to dryness and re – dissolved in acetone: Dichloromethane(1:23; v/v).

The sample was re-filtered (0.2 mm PTFE filter) and then cleaned using automated size exclusion chromatography (Agilent 1200 HPLC system). The clean extract was evaporated and the residue was re-suspended in chloroform:acetone:acetonitrile (1:1:8; v/v). The extract was further cleaned using solid phase extraction cartridges (ISOLUTE[®] SI 500mg, 6ml). The cartridges were washed with methanol and activated with acetonitrile. The samples were eluted with acetonitrile and this solvent was then exchanged for the mobile phase.

Analysis was performed using a 'Ultimate 3000' HPLC coupled to a triple quadrupole 'Quantum Ultra TSQ' mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Hemel Hemsptead; UK) interfaced with an ion max source in Atmospheric Pressure Chemical Ionisation mode (APCI) with negative polarity and operated with Xcalibur softwareTM (V.2.0.7.). Analyte separation (10 μ L injection volume) was performed on a Hypersil Gold column (Thermo, 1.9 μ m particle size, 50 mm x 2.1mm I.D.) using a H₂O:methanol mobile phase gradient.

The analytes were eluted from the column using a programme which mixed different ratios of mobile phase, A: 0.77 g/L ammonium acetate in water and mobile phase B: 0.77 g/L ammonium acetate in methanol at a rate of 0.3 ml min⁻¹. Gradient elution started from 70% for mobile phase A. For mobile phase B is started at 30%, increased to 60% after 2 min and held until 6 min; it was then ramped to 70% at 8.5 min and finally to 100% at 12 min, held for 1 min and then returned to starting conditions.

MS/MS was performed in single reaction mode (SRM) using APCI in the negative mode, and characteristic ion fragments were monitored for each compound. Argon was used as the collision gas. Chromatographic peaks were integrated using Xcalibur™ which was also used to generate linear calibration curves with R2>0.99.

For quality control and assurance, in each batch a blank and in house QC were used. The performance of the method was assessed in terms of the limit of detection (LOD), recovery of the internal standards for the analytes and linearity. The rodenticides standards (Dr Ehrenstorfer) were matrix matched. Recovery for the total procedure was calculated using the labelled standards.

Limits of detection (LoD) were 1.5 ng/g wet wt. for all compounds except for difethialone that had a LoD of 3.0 ng/g wet wt. Each liver sample was spiked with deuterated bromadiolone and brodifacoum and the mean (\pm SD) recovery for deuterated bromadiolone and brodifacoum that was added to each of the 100 samples was 79.6 \pm 6.8 and 78.4 \pm 5.8%, respectively.







BANGOR

UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology Environment Centre Wales Deiniol Road Bangor Gwynedd LL57 2UW United Kingdom T: +44 (0)1248 374500 F: +44 (0)1248 362133

EDINBURGH

UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology Bush Estate Penicuik Midlothian EH26 0QB United Kingdom T: +44 (0)131 4454343 F: +44 (0)131 4453943

LANCASTER

UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology Lancaster Environment Centre Library Avenue Bailrigg Lancaster LA1 4AP United Kingdom T: +44 (0)1524 595800 F: +44 (0)1524 61536

WALLINGFORD (Headquarters)

UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology Maclean Building Benson Lane Crowmarsh Gifford Wallingford Oxfordshire OX10 8BB United Kingdom T: +44 (0)1491 838800 F: +44 (0)1491 692424

enquiries@ceh.ac.uk

