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Tail Docking and Animal Welfare

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5 Introduction

6 Removal of the lower portion of the cow's tail is commonly referred to as "tail docking." 7 Tail docking is thought to improve cleanliness and potentially reduce exposure to potential 8 mastitis pathogens by reducing contact between tail hair and manure. Some farmers believe that 9 shortening tails improves milking hygiene and allows for more thorough premilking udder 10 preparation. The use of tail docking as a routine dairy farm management tool apparently 11 originated in New Zealand and 35% of Victorian dairy farms responding to a survey reported 12 that they routinely docked tails (Barnett et al., 1999). Survey responders believed removal of the 13 tail resulted in faster milking, reduced risks to the operator and reduced rates of mastitis. Over 14 the last decade, an increasing number of U. S. dairy farmers have adopted the use of tail docking 15 because of the belief that it improves milking hygiene and comfort of milking personnel 16 (Johnson, 1991, McCrory, 1976).

A variety of methods are used to dock tails. The process is performed on calves, preparturient heifers and occasionally on adult lactating cows (Kirk, 1999, Tucker and Weary, 2002). Application of elastrator bands to the tail of preparturient heifers below the level of the vulva is the most common method of removal. After application of the bands, tails undergo a process of atrophy and in most instances spontaneously detach 4-8 weeks post-banding. On many farms, banded tails that fail to detach are manually removed.

While the dairy industry has enjoyed a generally favorable public image, tail docking is 23 considered as one of its' most controversial management issues. Concern about animal welfare 24 25 has grown with urbanization, and as predicted 20 years ago, media attention supportive of urban viewpoints is having an increasing impact on agricultural practices (Kilgour and Dalton, 1984). 26 27 Concerns about tail docking also exist within the agricultural community. Controversy followed 28 an editorial in a popular dairy trade magazine that called for elimination of this practice (Quaife, 29 2002). Advocates for tail docking cite cow cleanliness and worker convenience as reasons to 30 consider tail docking. Opponents consider tail docking as mutilation and cite increased fly 31 avoidance behaviors, increased need for insecticides, reduced ability for cows to communicate 32 (through tail movement), potential pain and infections in tail stumps, and ethical concerns about 33 the process (Halverson, 2002).

Regulations preventing "unnecessary mutilation" of animals exist in a number of 34 35 European countries and tail docking has been prohibited in the United Kingdom for almost 30 36 years (Taylor, 1974). A number of other countries allow tail docking but have laws that regulate the procedure. The Canadian Veterinary Medical Association officially opposes the routine use 37 38 of tail docking of dairy cattle. The Animal Welfare Committee of the American Association of Bovine Practitioners issued a position statement in 1997 that stated "The committee is not aware 39 of information, clearly supporting or condemning tail docking..." but this statement has not 40 41 been updated. The authors of a review of scientific literature dealing with tail docking recently stated that "there are no apparent animal health, welfare, or human health justifications to 42 support this practice *<tail docking>*" and concluded that "the routine practice of tail docking 43 44 should be discouraged" (Stull, et al., 2002). The issue of tail docking of dairy cows remains

45 controversial and the objective of this paper is to review current research about the behavioral46 and physiological effects of tail docking in dairy cattle.

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48 **Physiological and Behavioral Responses to Tail Docking.**¹

49 Researchers have examined several potential adverse affects of tail docking (Stull et al., 50 2002). Important welfare issues that have been examined have included pain caused by tail 51 docking, changes in fly avoidance behavior, immune responses and changes in levels of 52 circulating plasma cortisol (Eicher et al, 2000, Eicher et al., 2001, Petrie et al., 1996, Schreiner 53 and Ruegg, 2002b, and Tom et al., 2002). Experiments have been performed on both calves and 54 preparturient heifers.

55 Physiological responses to tail docking in calves. Petrie et al (1996) compared cortisol responses of calves that were docked using rubber rings or a hot cautery iron (commonly used 56 57 in lambs) with or without the use of local anesthesia. Sixty-three calves (three to four months 58 of age) were monitored for eight hours post treatment. Calves that were docked using rubber 59 rings had no significant change in plasma cortisol concentration throughout the sampling 60 period. Of 9 calves in the rubber ring groups, 8 showed almost no cortisol response. Calves 61 that received local anesthesia and rubber rings showed a small drop in plasma cortisol 62 concentrations that returned to normal within one hour. Calves that were docked using a 63 cautery iron had a significant increase in plasma cortisol concentration for up to 45 minutes 64 post treatment. The use of local anesthesia in calves that were docked using a cautery iron 65 significantly increased cortisol concentrations for one hour. Control calves exhibited a 66 significant increase in cortisol concentration for the first 15 minutes of observation. The

¹ Adapted from Schreiner, D. A.2001. Effects of tail docking on behavior, physiology and milk quality of dairy cattle. MSc. Thesis, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

67 authors concluded that there was little evidence to suggest that cortisol responses to tail 68 docking were more distressing than restraint caused by blood sampling. Additionally, they 69 concluded that local anesthesia had no detectable benefits due to little apparent distress. 70 Acute responses to tail docking using rubber rings or a hot cautery iron were also 71 examined in 7-17 day old calves (n = 36) (Tom et al., 2002). Calves were randomly allocated 72 to 3 groups: docked using rubber rings, docked using cautery iron or control (tail handled). 73 Cortisol responses were repeatedly (7-9 times) measured on day 0 and day 1, and intake, 74 weight gains and health were monitored for 3 weeks. No significant differences in cortisol 75 concentrations were found among treatment groups, except at 60 min after treatment, when 76 control animals had lower levels than the calves that were docked using rubber rings. No 77 significant differences in milk intake, weight gain, body temperature or fecal consistency were 78 identified. The authors concluded that tail docking of 7-17 day old calves resulted in few acute 79 effects.

80 *Physiological responses to tail docking in heifers.* Immunological and endocrine 81 responses to tail docking with rubber rings were examined using primiparous heifers (Eicher et 82 al, 2000). Twenty-one animals were observed for 24 hours pre and post banding and then four days later were monitored for 24 hours pre and post removal of the atrophied tail. Plasma 83 84 haptoglobin concentration had a significant treatment by time interaction, but no overall 85 treatment effect was detected. There was a significant haptoglobin increase at 168 h and 240 h 86 post docking (P < 0.05) for all treatments. Circulating cortisol concentrations in banded 87 heifers were lower than the control group 12 hours post banding (P < 0.05). A similar trend 88 was detected at 46 hours post docking (P = 0.06). The authors concluded that tail banding did 89 not significantly affect cortisol or immune measures in primiparous heifers.

90	Long term physiological responses of the process of tail docking and tail atrophy have
91	been determined for preparturient heifers (Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002b). Pregnant heifers (n =
92	24) that were approximately 2 to 4 mo prepartum at the beginning of the study were randomly
93	assigned to one of 4 treatment groups: 1) tails were cleaned and handled; 2) tails were cleaned,
94	handled and an elastrator band was applied to the tail; 3) an epidural was administered 15 min
95	before cleaning and handling, and 4) an epidural was administered 15 min before application of
96	an elastrator band. Atrophied tails were allowed to fall off without assistance, until 42 d post-
97	treatment when remaining atrophied tails (7 of 12) were removed. Behavioral observations and
98	physiological responses were collected for 6 wk. Heart rates and body temperatures were
99	collected at least once daily. Blood samples were obtained at -45, -15, and -1 min before
100	application of tail bands, and 15, 30, 60, 90, 120, 180, 240, 360, and 720 min after application of
101	tail bands. Additional blood samples were obtained after the morning observation period on
102	days 4, 14, and 21. Plasma cortisol concentrations remained within limits previously described
103	for non-stressed animals and no significant differences were detected among groups ($P = 0.49$).
104	There was no significant difference in plasma cortisol concentration within groups over the
105	observation period ($P = 0.16$) or any significant treatment by time interaction ($P = 0.36$). All
106	hematological data, except for neutrophils, were within normal limits for the entire study period
107	and there were no significant changes in hematological data among groups that could be related
108	to treatment ($P > 0.17$). There were no significant differences ($P = 0.99$) in heart rate among
109	treatment groups throughout the study. Body temperatures were within limits previously
110	described for healthy cattle and no significant differences were observed among treatment groups
111	(P = 0.42). We concluded that there were no significant immunological or hormonal responses
112	caused by the process of tail banding or tail atrophy.

113 Behavioral responses to tail docking in calves. There are three studies that have 114 reported behavioral responses of calves to tail docking (Petrie et al. 1995, Tom et al., 2002 and 115 Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002b). Behavioral responses to tail docking with a rubber ring, with or 116 without the use of local anesthesia were examined in 45 calves that were three to four months 117 of age (Petrie et al, 1995). The authors reported that 67% of calves elicit an immediate 118 behavioral response to tail docking with rubber rings. Tail shaking was detected in 10 of the 119 15 banded calves during the first 30-minute period after treatment. Vocalization and 120 restlessness were detected in the rubber ring group immediately after treatment and were noted 121 in calves that received rubber ring and local anesthesia for up to 2.5 hours after treatment. 122 Local anesthesia prior to docking inhibited all behavioral responses for approximately 2.5 123 hours. The authors concluded that tail docking with rubber rings elicited a behavioral 124 response, but not enough to cause a significant difference in normal feeding and ruminating 125 behaviors.

126 Video cameras were used to monitor acute behavioral responses to tail docking in 7-17 127 d old calves for a total of 5 days (Tom et al., 2002). Moderate behavioral effects were noted 128 for animals that received rubber rings as compared to the control calves and calves that were 129 docked using a cautery iron. The use of rubber rings for docking increased tail grooming 130 behaviors for the entire observation period. Shorter periods of standing and lying and higher 131 frequencies of those behaviors were observed for the calves that received rubber rings as 132 compared to the other groups. The authors noted that tail docking using a rubber ring 133 apparently caused some degree of discomfort to calves docked within the first few weeks of 134 birth.

135	An influence of calf age on behavioral responses to tail docking using rubber rings was
136	identified in another study (Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002b). Behavioral observations were
137	recorded over 10 days for heifer calves $(n = 40)$ that were randomly assigned to docked (rubber
138	ring) or control groups. Separate analyses were performed for young calves (≤ 21 d of age, n
139	= 22) and older calves (> $21 - 42$ d of age, n = 18). No significant differences in eating,
140	standing or walking ($P > 0.25$) were detected based on treatment. No significant differences in
141	behavior of young calves could be detected based upon treatment. Older calves that were
142	docked tended to spend more time in rear visualization ($P = 0.056$) and were significantly more
143	restless as compared to control calves ($P = 0.01$) after application of bands on the day of
144	treatment and on days eight and nine.

145 Behavioral responses to tail docking in heifers. There are 2 studies that have recorded 146 behavioral responses to the process of tail docking in primiparous heifers (Eicher et al, 2000, 147 Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002b) and 2 studies that have reported on fly induced behaviors in 148 docked animals (Eicher et al., 2001, Phipps et al., 1995). Acute behavioral responses to tail 149 docking with rubber rings were observed in primiparous heifers one month before projected 150 parturition (Eicher et al, 2000). Twenty-one animals were observed for 24 hours before and 151 after banding and for 24 hours before and after the removal of atrophied tails 4 days post-152 banding. There were no significant differences in behavioral responses between treatments 153 except for the amount of time spent eating. Docked heifers spent more time eating after 154 banding and less time eating (P < 0.05) after removal of the tail as compared to control heifers (P < 0.01). No significant differences were found in lying, standing, walking, drinking, head-155 156 to-tail viewing, or grooming behaviors. The authors concluded that tail banding had no 157 significant effect on behavior.

Behavioral responses of preparturient heifers were collected by trained observers during numerous observation periods on the day of treatment, twice daily for weeks 1 and 2, once daily for weeks 3 and 4, and once daily during weeks 5 and 6 (Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002). No significant differences were detected among treatments for any behaviors during any time period (P > 0.14) and we concluded that the process of tail banding and atrophy did not affect behavior of preparturient heifers.

Fly induced responses of dairy cattle were monitored in five sets of twin 5-year old cows 164 165 (Phipps et al, 1995). One twin served as a control, and the other twin was docked at 18 months 166 of age. All animals were monitored for four, 1-month periods throughout the year. Behavioral 167 changes and adrenal responsiveness to ACTH were recorded and compared between sets of 168 twins. Results showed an increase in tail flicking in docked animals. Docked animals had a 169 significantly greater number of flies on the rear half of the animal. Adrenocortical responses 170 were not significantly different between the docked and non-docked animals. The authors 171 concluded that the additional fly load on docked animals caused at most moderate distress. 172 Fly avoidance behaviors were compared in lactating heifers that were either docked (n =173 8) or had intact tails (n = 8) (Eicher et al., 2001). Animals were observed 3 times daily for a total

174 of 5 days. Counts of stable flies indicated that there were no significant differences in fly

175 numbers on the front legs of cows but docked cows had almost twice as many flies on their rear

176 legs as compared to cows with intact tails (P < 0.01). Fly avoidance behaviors (such as feed

tossing) were increased in the docked animals while tail swinging was increased in the control

animals. Foot stamping was identified only in docked animals and the authors concluded that fly

179 numbers and fly avoidance behaviors were increased in docked animals.

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181 Tail Docking and Udder Health

182 Many farmers and consultants perceive that tail docking results in improvements in 183 animal cleanliness and udder health. To date, these perceptions have not been scientifically 184 validated. Tucker et al. (2001) evaluated the effect of tail docking on cow cleanliness and SCC 185 in a single herd, housed in freestalls, over an 8-wk period. Tails were either docked (application 186 of rubber ring followed by removal after 2 weeks of atrophy; n = 275 enrolled, 169 completed 187 study) or left intact (n = 212 enrolled, 105 completed study). Cleanliness scores (using a 4 pt 188 scale) were recorded for available animals on a weekly basis by counting debris in a grid placed 189 on the midline of the back (5 cm anterior to the base of the tail) or on the rump (3 cm from 190 midline). Udder cleanliness was scored twice during evening milking using the same grid 191 applied to the back of the udder (above the teats) and separately by counting the number of teats 192 that contained obvious debris. There were no significant differences in cleanliness scores for any 193 of the measured areas between docked and intact animals (P > 0.17). No significant differences 194 in SCC or udder cleanliness were identified (P > .31). The authors concluded that there was 195 "little merit to adopting" tail docking.

196 A study with more animals and for a longer duration was conducted to determine the 197 effect of tail docking on SCC, intramammary infection and udder and leg cleanliness in eight 198 commercial dairy herds housed in freestalls (Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002a). Lactating dairy cows 199 (n = 1250) were blocked by farm and randomly allocated to tail docked or control groups. Milk 200 samples, somatic cell counts and hygiene scores were collected for eight to nine months. The 201 prevalence of IMI was determined for each of the five occasions when milk samples were 202 obtained. Udder and leg cleanliness were assessed during milk sample collection using a 203 standardized scoring method. Docked and control animals were compared by logSCC,

1. Ruegg PL. 2004. Tail Docking and Animal Welfare. The Bovine Practitioner 38:24-29.

204 prevalence of intramammary infection, and leg and udder cleanliness score. At enrollment, there 205 were no significant differences in parity, daily milk yield, logSCC, or DIM between treatment 206 groups. At the end of the study period 76 (12.16%) and 81 (12.96%) of cows had been culled in 207 the docked and control groups, respectively. There were no significant differences between 208 treatment groups for somatic cell count (Fig. 1) or udder or leg hygiene scores (Figure 2). 209 Prevalence of contagious, environmental and minor pathogens did not significantly differ 210 between treatment groups (Table 1). This study did not identify differences in udder or leg 211 hygiene or milk quality that could be attributed to tail docking.

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213 Conclusions

214 Many individuals in the dairy industry have perceptions about tail docking and there are 215 an increasing number of research studies available on this subject. Available data does not 216 indicate that the process of tail docking results in measurable increases in indicators of animal 217 stress. A number of studies have found no significant differences in cortisol levels based on tail 218 docking and there have been no indications of stress leukograms in studies that have examined 219 blood. No measurable differences in feed intake, calf growth or immune function have been 220 attributable to the process of tail docking. Several mild behavioral effects of tail docking of 221 calves have been identified based on age but very few behavioral responses have been identified 222 for preparturient heifers. Current research suggests that preparturient heifers may be less 223 sensitive to the application of tail bands than younger animals. Fly avoidance is an important 224 function of the tail and research has identified several modest changes in behavior that docked 225 animals exhibit to reduce fly exposure. Farmers that utilize tail docking should recognize these 226 changes and use appropriate management to reduce potential exposure to flies. Contrary to

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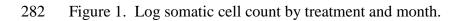
227 popular opinion, there does not appear to be any influence of tail docking on cleanliness of 228 udders or legs, nor does there appear to be a relationship between tail docking and milk quality. 229 It is highly likely that other factors (individual animal behavior, housing, handling and facility 230 management) have much greater influence on animal hygiene and mastitis than tail docking. 231 Comfort and cleanliness of farm personnel are often cited as reasons to dock tails and research 232 on this issue is needed. It is likely that arriving at a consensus about tail docking within the dairy 233 industry will be difficult and the dairy industry will need to balance public perception and ethical 234 concerns about tail docking with legitimate farm management needs. 235 236 237

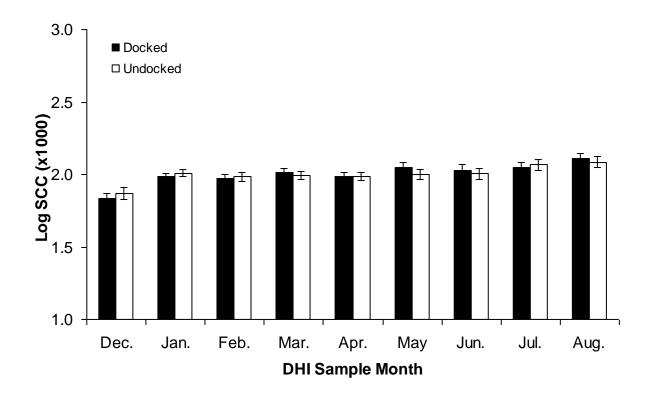
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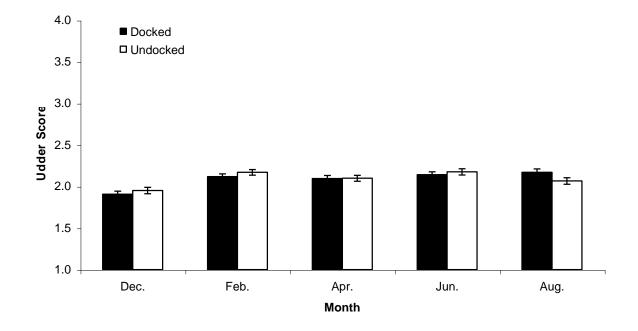




284 (from Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002. J Dairy Science 85:2503-2511).

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- Figure 2. Udder hygiene scores by treatment and month.
- 286 Scale is 1 (cleanest) to 4 (dirtiest).



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288 (from Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002. J Dairy Science 85:2503-2511).

	December	February	April	June	August
			% (SE)		
Contagious ^b					
Docked	d 2.2 (1.1)	4.1 (1.8)	5.7 (3.3)	8.1 (2.8)	8.6 (3.8)
Contro	1 2.1 (0.9)	3.4 (2.0)	4.8 (3.2)	5.3 (2.8)	8.3 (4.8)
Environmental ^c					
Docked	1 10.4 (3.0)	10.9 (2.1)	11.8 (1.8)	12.6 (2.3)	7.6 (2.3)
Contro	1 12.0 (2.4)	13.4 (2.2)	11.3 (1.5)	8.0 (1.7)	7.6 (1.9)
Minor ^d					
Docked	1 38.6 (6.8)	38.9 (4.0)	35.2 (3.7)	28.9 (3.1)	24.6 (3.9)
Contro	1 39.0 (6.1)	39.4 (4.4)	36.1 (3.4)	30.7 (3.7)	28.0 (2.8)

289	Table 1. Prevalence	e of intramammary	infection by t	treatment and month (SE). ^a

 a columns may sum to >100% because of multiple isolates from single samples; ^b Staphylococcus aureus and

291 Streptococcus agalactia; ^cEscherichia coli, Klebsiella spp, Streptococcus spp, Enterococcus spp.; ^dcoagulase

292 negative *Staphylococcus spp*,

293 Actinomyces spp, Corynebacteria spp.

294 (from Schreiner and Ruegg, 2002. J Dairy Science 85:2503-2511).