

Scotland's Rural College

Animal health surveillance in Scotland in 2030: using scenario planning to develop strategies in the context of 'Brexit'

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1 **Animal health surveillance in Scotland in 2030: Using scenario**
2 **planning to develop strategies in the context of ‘Brexit’.**

3
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Animal health surveillance is necessary to protect human and animal health, rural economies and the environment from the consequences of large-scale disease outbreaks. In Scotland, since the Kinnaird review in 2011, efforts have been made to engage with stakeholders to ensure that the strategic goals of surveillance are better aligned with the needs of the end-users and other beneficiaries. The aims of this study were to engage with Scottish surveillance stakeholders and a diverse group of multidisciplinary experts in a participatory process to inform the future long-term strategy for animal health surveillance in Scotland. In this paper, we describe the use of scenario planning as an effective tool for the creation and exploration of plausible long-term futures; we describe prioritisation of critical drivers of change (i.e. international trade policy, data sharing philosophies and public versus private resourcing of surveillance capacity) that will unpredictably influence the future implementation of animal health surveillance activities, and present ten participant-led strategies to inform an overall long-term vision to improve the resilience of the future of animal health surveillance and contingency planning for animal and zoonotic disease outbreaks in Scotland. ~~participants prioritiz critical forces of change that will unpredictably influence the implementation of animal health surveillance activities, in order to characterize future uncertainties and identify strategies to mitigate risks and/or maximize opportunities to augment surveillance delivery in the long term. International trade policy, data sharing philosophies and public versus private resourcing of surveillance capacity were considered by participants to be the most important influential factors affecting surveillance. In the absence of any~~ certainty about the nature of post-Brexit trade agreements for agriculture, participants considered the best investments for long-term resilience to include: data collection strategies to improve animal health benchmarking, user-benefit strategies to improve digital literacy in farming communities and investment strategies to increase veterinary and scientific research capacity in rural areas. This is the first scenario planning study to explore stakeholder beliefs and perceptions about important environmental, technological, societal, political and legal drivers (in addition to epidemiological “risk factors”) and effective strategies to manage future uncertainties for both the Scottish livestock industry and animal health surveillance after Brexit. This insight from stakeholders is important in order to improve uptake and implementation of animal heath surveillance activities and the future resilience of the livestock industry. The conclusions drawn from this study are applicable not only to Scotland, but to other countries and international organizations involved in global animal health surveillance activities.

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72 **Introduction**

73 Animal health surveillance systems are critical at regional, national and global levels
74 to identify and mitigate biological and chemical hazards (such as animal or zoonotic
75 diseases or syndromes, toxins or contaminants) in order to ensure public health and
76 food security and safety. These systems are designed to address societal priorities
77 such as the development of early warning tools for exotic, novel and reemerging
78 diseases, the facilitation of effective disease control, and the monitoring of temporal
79 or spatial disease trends. Surveillance data underpin international trade regulations
80 and are necessary for the development of contingency plans to protect not only
81 human and animal health, but also rural economies from the consequences of large-
82 scale disease outbreaks, and to mitigate the impacts of animal disease and climate
83 change on each other and the environment.

84

85 In Scotland, animal health surveillance for livestock relies primarily on farmers to
86 contribute to passive surveillance by submitting animal materials to eight regional
87 disease surveillance centers for diagnostic and post mortem analysis. This is
88 complemented by abattoir-based recording of diseases significant for human or
89 animal health, including statutory reporting of notifiable diseases, reporting of
90 zoonoses, passive surveillance of wildlife diseases, and active surveillance for
91 specific pathogens or diseases (e.g. *Trichinella spiralis*, Bovine Viral Diarrhoea). In
92 addition, industry-led schemes exist to feed disease data back to farmers (for example
93 pig assurance schemes (Correia-Gomes et al. 2016)) but currently these data are
94 rarely integrated with other surveillance systems. Thus, surveillance is carried out
95 through a variety of different systems and implemented by different actors with
96 relatively little integration between systems.

97

98 Animal health surveillance in Scotland has been the subject of scrutiny in recent
99 years. Funding for surveillance comes from both Scottish Government and from fees
100 paid by farmers for diagnostic services (SPICe 2015; Gov.Scot 2017). A
101 comprehensive review in 2011 concluded that the “existing system for delivering
102 veterinary surveillance cannot continue in its present form without significant
103 additional resources, and these (were) very unlikely to be forthcoming in the present
104 financial climate....”. The review further concluded that there was “considerable
105 scope to provide disease surveillance more efficiently” (Kinnaird Report 2011).
106 Since that time, efforts have been made to engage stakeholders to improve
107 transparency and accountability, and to better align strategic goals with the needs of
108 end-users of veterinary surveillance (Kinnaird Report 2011).

109

110 Given the limited available human and economic resources to support government
111 surveillance frameworks in Scotland (Kinnaird Report 2011) and the UK (Staerk et
112 al. 2006), difficult choices must be made about which risks to prioritize in the future.
113 **There are numerous established and emerging methods for surveillance data**
114 **collection, interpretation and analysis that underpin these decisions (Brugere et al.**
115 **2017). These data inform parameters in probabilistic mathematical models and risk**
116 **analyses so that predictions can be made about the risk of future disease incursions**
117 **and spread (Woolhouse 2011). Quantitative approaches have also been used to assess**
118 **complex sources of economic and epidemiological evidence and evaluate existing**
119 **surveillance methods (Caiba et al. 2015; Drewe et al. 2015; Martin, Cameron and**
120 **Greiner 2007; Staerk et al. 2006) to underpin disease freedom claims to meet free**

121 trade agreements (WTO 1995). Qualitative (participatory) methods also exist for
122 eliciting and prioritizing expert opinion about future disease risks. These approaches
123 bring together individuals from specialized areas of expertise to consider a single,
124 likely future (Suk et al. 2008). Both quantitative and qualitative epidemiological
125 approaches are often strongly influenced and constrained by the investigators’
126 perceptions of the system at risk (Boden and McKendrick 2017) and reliance on the
127 past as an accurate guide for the future course of events (Suk et al. 2003; Woolhouse
128 2011).

129
130 Scenario planning is a participatory methodology, widely adopted at the science-
131 policy interface in relation to science, technology and environmental management. It
132 promotes democratic values such as stakeholder-led knowledge generation and
133 analysis (Government Office for Science 2013; Attar and Genus_2014; Wachinger et
134 al., 2014; Duckett et al. 2017 at p138). It is a systematic approach that enables
135 participants to anticipate different futures and challenge preconceived assumptions
136 and expectations about the system at risk. Unlike traditional probabilistic approaches,
137 it is best suited for “highly complex, uncertain situations” in which influencing forces
138 and “subjective judgments” cannot be predicted or quantified but are
139 important to incorporate (Ram, Montibeller and Morton 2010 at p818). Examples of
140 influencing forces include changes in public attitudes towards data privacy and
141 security, governance regimes over information practices and surveillance, and
142 advances in telecommunications technology. These cannot be easily parameterized in
143 existing epidemiological models, yet will affect opportunities for future surveillance
144 data collection and sharing (Raab 2013). Other unexpected shocks, such as terrorist
145 activities, political upheavals, conflict/war, natural disasters or extreme weather
146 events can have unintended and indirect consequences on future disease risks
147 (Nussbaum 2011). The UK’s decision to leave the European Union (EU) (“Brexit”)
148 is a contemporary example of a “shock” that was largely unexpected because of
149 assumptions about British politics and voting preferences (Economist 2017). The
150 terms of negotiation for any Brexit deal are still in a state of flux and, to some extent,
151 were not planned for (Swinbank 2016). As a result, there is great uncertainty about
152 the scope and magnitude of the societal, economic, environmental and political
153 implications for farmers in Scotland and the UK making it challenging to consider
154 how to create an animal surveillance system, which will be resilient in the long-term.

155
156 The aim of this study was to explore the long-term future of animal health
157 surveillance in Scotland and develop robust strategies to mitigate disease challenges
158 and maximize opportunities for the success of future Scottish livestock industries. In
159 this paper, we present a description of foresighting activities and the details of a
160 scenario planning workshop led by EPIC, Scotland’s Centre of Expertise on Animal
161 Disease Outbreaks (www.epicScotland.org), in collaboration with Scottish and UK
162 stakeholders. We describe the five plausible, alternative long-term futures generated
163 in the workshop and propose 10 strategies to improve the resilience of the long-term
164 future of animal health surveillance and contingency planning for animal and
165 zoonotic disease outbreaks in Scotland. These strategies are encapsulated by three
166 visions to improve intelligent data collection, investment of resources and data access
167 and use. We conclude with a discussion of the value of scenario planning, as a
168 mechanism for proactive reflexive risk governance and as a tool for long-term public
169 health contingency planning. This is the first scenario planning study to explore
170 stakeholder beliefs and perceptions about important environmental, technological,
171 societal, political and legal determinants (in addition to epidemiological “risk
172 factors”), whilst also providing an opportunity to assess the potential perceived

173 impacts of Brexit. This insight from stakeholders is important in order to improve
174 uptake and implementation of animal health surveillance activities and the future
175 resilience of the livestock industry. The conclusions drawn from this study are
176 applicable not only to Scotland, but to other countries and international organizations
177 involved in global animal health surveillance activities.
178

179 **Methods**

180 A scenario planning workshop was held in Edinburgh, Scotland over two consecutive
181 days in October 2016. Scenario planning is a methodology that encourages
182 individuals to think about uncertainties, and “influence current behavior or act in the
183 interests of a better future, or at least improve preparedness for imaginable adverse
184 eventualities.” (Duckett et al. 2016 at 2.1). The process facilitates the systematic
185 examination of current trends and foreseeable developments to create plausible road-
186 maps to a diverse set of anticipated scenarios. These scenarios are not intended to be
187 predictions of the future, but rather reflect the diversity of possible futures that can be
188 used to think about strategies that could be implemented today to maximize
189 opportunities, or mitigate threats, in the future.
190

191 There are numerous different methods of conducting scenario planning (Kahn and
192 Wiener, 1967; Schoemaker, 1991; Schoemaker, 1995; Bradfield et al. 2005; Bunn
193 and Salo, 1993; Ratcliffe, 1999; Chermack et al., 2001; Boden et al. 2015; Boden et
194 al. 2017). The EPIC workshop included standard and accepted elements of this
195 process as described by Schoemaker (1995); Schwartz (1991); Foster (1993) and
196 Vanston et al. (1977). These include: “defining the scope of the question,
197 identification of stakeholders, identification of fundamental trends, identification
198 of key uncertainties (political, economic, social, scientific/technological,
199 environmental and legal determinants), construction of initial scenario themes,
200 development of preliminary (learning) scenario narratives, checking for internal
201 consistency and plausibility of narratives through a back-casting exercise, and use of
202 scenario narratives as decision tools” (Schoemaker, 1995, as described in Boden et al.
203 2015). The choice of these elements is based on a plausibility-based “intuitive
204 logics” approach that enables participants to create narratives that “describe
205 unfolding chains of causation, which resolve themselves into distinct future
206 outcomes” (Derbyshire and Wright 2017). The primary advantage of employing a
207 plausibility-based approach, instead of other qualitative or quantitative methods, is
208 that it enables consideration of multiple challenging futures (Derbyshire and Wright
209 2017). Figure 1 describes the key features of the scenario planning process
210 undertaken in this study.
211

212 **Recruitment**

213 Potential participants (n=50) from Scotland, England, Wales and Northern Ireland
214 were purposively (non-randomly) selected based on their area of expertise across
215 multiple disciplines and associations with different organizations within the broad
216 research, policy and industry network available to EPIC, Scottish Government,
217 partner institutes and agencies. A participant from the Netherlands was also invited
218 because the Dutch model (i.e. a private company delivering surveillance; and the
219 balance between industry and government stakeholders in driving this being different
220 to that in the UK) was considered to be a useful counterpoint to the current UK
221 experience to broaden the range of opinions and scenarios being discussed in the
222 workshop. Participants were selected purposively because of the nature and scope of
223 the question, the limited number of qualified individuals that could contribute to the
224 study and the need for a heterogeneous group of stakeholders in Scotland. The

225 expertise required in the workshop was based on the scope of the historical drivers
226 (see below) and included: anthropology, data protection, economics, engineering,
227 environmental health, ethics, farming, food safety, law and ethics, plant health,
228 policy-making, public health, food retail, social science, technology and innovation
229 industries, veterinary medicine and wildlife conservation. Of the 50 invited
230 participants, 46 accepted the invitation and attended the workshop.

231

232 The project received ethical approval from the University of Glasgow. Within the
233 workshop, all participants agreed to the following condition: "...participants are free
234 to use the information received, but neither the identity nor the affiliation of the
235 speaker(s), nor that of any other participant, may be revealed" (Chatham House
236 Rule).

237

238 Scope of the focal question

239 Participants were tasked with engaging in strategic thinking through a series of
240 carefully crafted exercises to explore the focal question "What is the future of animal
241 health surveillance in Scotland in the year 2030?". The year 2030 was selected as
242 giving sufficient time for drivers to influence the future whilst being sufficiently
243 proximal in time to have elements of familiarity for policy makers and stakeholders.
244 Animal health surveillance was defined as the continuous detection of the occurrence
245 and distribution of hazards (including diseases, infections or health syndromes) for
246 livestock, wildlife, domestic animals and human public health (Kinnaird Report
247 2011). The purpose of the focal question was to elicit a dialogue about the future
248 strategy for surveillance rather than any discussion of specific operational or tactical
249 elements of surveillance. **The sensitivity of surveillance systems for the** identification
250 or prioritization of individual hazards, design and implementation of sampling, data
251 collection or analysis to detect exotic, endemic or novel emerging diseases, monitor
252 endemic diseases and/or demonstrate disease freedom (as described in RISKSUR,
253 2015) **is not within the scope of this study.** The scope therefore included
254 consideration of the future need for surveillance, how this might be delivered and
255 how the way surveillance is delivered might affect society, public and animal health
256 and the economy (RISKSUR, 2015).

257

258 Historical trends and key uncertainties

259 Fundamental trends were investigated through the creation of a visual historical
260 timeline (Boden et al. 2015; Boden et al. 2017). This process involved the
261 identification, discussion and assessment of important past events and influences (i.e.
262 drivers) on the development of the present day animal disease surveillance strategy.
263 The timeline included directly relevant events, but also exogenous factors which
264 could plausibly have had an indirect influence on surveillance services. This
265 historical timeline was created outwith the workshop, but was subsequently modified
266 based on participant feedback during discussion. The historical timeline was also
267 used to 'ground-truth' the list of future drivers. This list was compiled in advance of
268 the workshop and discussed with participants in small groups. A detailed description
269 of each of the drivers is available in the online report and at the EPIC website (see
270 also Table 1 for examples).

271

272 Participants ranked drivers, first according to their relative impact (i.e. importance),
273 and then according to their uncertainty (i.e., the greater the range of plausible
274 outcomes of a driver, the greater the uncertainty). When there was substantially
275 polarized discussion over the uncertainty associated with a driver, the driver was
276 assessed a priori as having high uncertainty. High impact, high uncertainty drivers

277 (also known as critical or key uncertainties) were clustered by participants and
278 investigators to create three axes (or themes), representing a continuum of
279 possibilities between two extreme endpoints. In a participatory exercise, participants
280 were divided into different groups (~8-10 people) to describe future scenario themes
281 (Figure 2). Scenario themes were defined by a combination of different positions on
282 each of the three axes. Scenario development was guided by plausibility, internal
283 consistency, diversity and potential for stimulating discussion about each future
284 (Boden et al. 2015). High impact, low uncertainty drivers were not eliminated, but
285 were considered in the discussion and development of each scenario. Based on
286 different combinations of realized critical drivers, each small group of workshop
287 participants constructed a scenario to produce five different scenarios in total.

288

289 Preliminary scenarios

290 Best- and worst-case scenarios were avoided to ensure that realistic combinations of
291 threats and opportunities were represented. Participants described the key features of
292 one of the five scenarios in a small group exercise. These fundamental scenario
293 characteristics are described in Table 1. Once preliminary scenarios for each future
294 were characterized, a ‘back-casting’ exercise for each scenario was undertaken by the
295 relevant participant group to identify specific hypothetical future events between
296 2016 and 2030. This back-casting was carried out with the aim of establishing a
297 plausible sequence of events leading from the current situation to the hypothetical
298 future. This exercise serves to add ‘depth’ to the scenarios, challenge and resolve
299 different and potentially conflicting viewpoints about the road to the future and act as
300 a quasi-validation of the outputs. All scenarios considered the future of Scotland and
301 the UK outside of the EU, i.e., post-“Brexit”. All participant views of the future were
302 incorporated in the scenario, provided they were plausible and consistent within the
303 constraints of scenario axes.

304

305 Participants added more detail to each scenario during small group discussions
306 throughout the workshop. At the end of the first day, researchers considered each of
307 the draft scenario futures developed by participants and identified areas where further
308 consideration of plausibility or thinking about broader interactions was necessary.
309 Facilitators used this information as prompts for discussion on Day 2 to encourage
310 participants to add detail to the scenarios. Strategy development activities on Day 2
311 (see below) were designed to consider the opportunities and challenges in each
312 scenario and in doing so, enabled further scenario details to emerge.

313

314 Scenarios as decision tools: strategy development

315 The initial draft scenarios were used by participants as decision tools to stimulate
316 small group and plenary discussion within the workshops about strategies which, if
317 implemented in 2016, would result in better, more resilient surveillance systems by
318 2030 than would otherwise be the case. Participants identified a set of strategies and
319 in a “wind-tunnelling exercise” (Government Office For Science 2009), compared the
320 robustness of each across all five scenarios to identify the characteristics of those
321 strategies with broadest application. Subsequently, workshop coordinators performed
322 an in-depth analysis of the perceived strengths and weaknesses of 10 strategies across
323 every scenario to assess the relative robustness of these strategies given the multiple
324 uncertainties present in each future scenario.

325

326 Post-workshop activities and participant feedback

327 At the end of the workshop, facilitators were responsible for transcribing each of the
328 scenarios into a coherent narrative, adding more detail to each scenario (using notes

of the discussions at each table) and validating the plausibility of the narrative. Participants were invited to comment on the workshop organization and outcomes via online and paper-based feedback questionnaires. A draft report summarizing the findings of this workshop and accompanying feedback form was circulated to workshop participants seeking further criticism, feedback and approval of the final scenarios and strategies proposed.

Results

Five scenarios were developed. Each scenario incorporates elements of different future consequences from “Brexit”, the UK decision to leave the EU. One scenario explicitly considered the potential consequences of Scottish independence from the rest of the UK, one treated it as largely incidental, one left the political status of Scotland unspecified, and two explicitly stated that Scotland remained part of the UK. Based on a collective understanding of these scenarios, 10 strategies for animal health surveillance were developed and explored and subsequently clustered under three strategic visions.

Critical drivers and scenario themes

Clusters of high impact and high uncertainty drivers (critical uncertainties) were identified to create three axes or themes (Table 1). The extreme spectrums of each theme were defined by participants and are described below:

1. International trade policy and the importance of the export market: The spectrum of possible outcomes considered ranged from isolationist to globalist policies. Isolationist policies were characterised by an autarkic, strongly Scottish or British focus and less emphasis on multilateral trade agreements. By contrast, globalist policies were seen as promoting open borders, global free trade, and an acceptance of international risk standards for such trade. Brexit and its consequences were included as elements in this axis.
2. Sources for, and availability of, resources for disease surveillance, including expertise and infrastructure: Resources for surveillance might be provided by private sources (e.g. by individual companies or industry sectors) or via the public sector. In the former case, resources are likely to be more directed to specific industry priorities. In the latter case, government funding, incentives, and priorities may direct surveillance activities.
3. Approaches to data sharing: The spectrum of data sharing possibilities ranged from highly segregated data management to shared, integrated data resources. Segregated data acquisition and management implies that data are kept in private repositories, and that these data are not shared beyond the entity that collected the data. Furthermore, results from the analysis of these data are likewise not communicated more widely. Data sharing is not required by legislation, and is not otherwise encouraged or funded. There is a strong focus on data security and privacy. At the other end of the spectrum, integrated data acquisition and management implies the existence of open, standards-based data platforms and unrestricted data access and sharing (with an opt-out rather than op-in system of participation). Such a system might be underpinned by legislation or funding. Data are likely to be stored centrally and data protection regulations will have evolved further to encourage and allow data sharing. Critically, open data may still be anonymised under specified circumstances.

Other drivers such as farming demographics, environmental impacts on disease distribution and severity (such as climate change and extreme weather events) were

380 also considered to be important and were included in the discussion and development
381 of each scenario.

382

383 Scenarios

384 Five scenarios were constructed, each based on a different combination of outcomes
385 from the three axes/themes. Figure 2. illustrates the relationships among these five
386 scenarios, and their positions on the spectra for each of the three critical drivers.

387 Each scenario was given a name by participants. Workshop facilitators assigned new
388 names as part of the post-workshop analyses. All names are presented here, so that
389 the text can be cross-referenced to the more detailed stakeholder report (Boden et al,
390 2017): Scenario 1. “Free Fall” or “Current Trajectory”; Scenario 2. “Scotland Alone”
391 or “Individual-led Surveillance”; Scenario 3. “Oceania” or “State-led Surveillance”;
392 Scenario 4. “Global Farm” or “Export-led Surveillance”; Scenario 5. “Market Farm”
393 or “Industry-led Surveillance”. Scenarios are described in more detail below and in
394 Boden et al (2017).

395

396 Scenario 1. The current trajectory

397 This future is characterized by an international trade policy that is neither extremely
398 isolationist nor globalist; a mixed approach to data collection, with some data
399 sharing; and animal health surveillance funded by the state to a moderate degree. This
400 was considered by participants to represent the future, if current trends continue on
401 the same trajectory from 2016, without major shifts in these drivers.

402

403 Characteristics

404 In 2030, Scotland remains part of the United Kingdom (UK), but after the UK’s
405 departure from the EU, the economy has shrunk. The farming sector has been
406 affected by lower farm gate prices, reduced trade with the EU and reduced subsidies.
407 There are fewer small professional, family-run farms (i.e. medium or small-scale
408 operations) due to the high volatility of relevant livestock markets and the dominance
409 of larger commercial producers. There are also few newcomers to farming, leading to
410 a generational gap in the farming population and a loss of “institutional memory”.
411 As a result national livestock numbers have declined. Some farms seek to maintain
412 high standards of biosecurity and welfare to protect high-value international trade via
413 new bilateral trade agreements. An increase in trade and travel with non-EU
414 countries, increased movement of people, and climate change have all contributed to
415 an increase in the likelihood of incursion and spread of endemic, emerging and exotic
416 animal diseases such as liver fluke, West Nile virus (WNV) and Bluetongue virus
417 (BTV). Some formerly exotic diseases have become endemic in Scotland and the rest
418 of the UK. In this future, surveillance is challenged by limited public resources and
419 expenditure on surveillance, low submission rates to veterinary laboratories and
420 reduced numbers of farmers. Animal health surveillance expertise has been lost, as
421 there are fewer veterinarians in large animal practice in rural areas and less scientific
422 support due to the impacts of post-Brexit immigration policies and a shrinking
423 economy. The disruption of established ties with the veterinary agencies of the EU
424 has made it difficult to access international disease data. Consequently, disease
425 control is now restricted to reactive outbreak management rather than outbreak
426 prevention and early disease detection. Through attrition, some exotic diseases have
427 therefore become endemic in Scotland and the wider UK. There is an increased
428 prevalence of traditional production diseases due to diminished resources and
429 expertise. An exception to the trend is antimicrobial resistance (AMR), the
430 prevalence of which is monitored nationally and there is societal pressure on the
431 agricultural sector to reduce antimicrobial usage. On-farm testing and immediate

432 implementation of control measures allows “drug-bug” coordination (i.e. matching
433 the correct antimicrobial to the correct microbe through rapid and accurate diagnostic
434 testing). There is much uncertainty and variability within and between sectors
435 regarding the prevalence of disease or AMR due to limited data-sharing.

436

437 Opportunities and challenges

438 There is expanding reliance on different technologies (including social media) to
439 obtain and communicate rapid real-time information in outbreaks. Accurate pen-side
440 diagnostic tests and electronic monitoring are available, but this future is
441 characterized by under-utilized technological and data capacity and a shrinkage of
442 surveillance infrastructure associated with a weak economy, fewer human resources
443 and a lack of data standardization. Smaller farms and veterinary practices will suffer
444 in terms of buying power and social impact. Other farms survive only if they have
445 been quick to invest in, and develop, a niche export market.

446

447 Scenario 2. Individual-led surveillance

448 This future is characterized by sharply restricted international trade, segregated data
449 management and a lack of public investment in animal health or zoonotic disease
450 surveillance.

451

452 Characteristics

453 By 2030, the effects of Brexit and a confluence of other political events have led to
454 Scotland being independent from the rest of the UK and no longer part of the EU.
455 Two main types of farms dominate the agricultural landscape: large industrial or
456 commercial farms and small subsistence farms (which comprise hobby farmers or
457 smallholders, communal farms and allotments). Small family farms cannot compete
458 with larger, more efficient producers and are declining in number due to the cessation
459 of external subsidies. Profit-oriented, large producers are focused on producing
460 animals with a high health and welfare status. Fewer international trading partners
461 (and less trade overall) reduces competition from cheaper food imports and results in
462 an improved domestic market for produce, but there are fewer foreign workers on
463 farms and higher food prices (due to higher costs and a lack of competition).
464 Livestock and poultry industries are responsible for private funding of animal health
465 surveillance, which companies carry out for their individual benefit. There is reduced
466 value from surveillance data collection, as data are available only within particular
467 companies or at best, industry sectors; data are not shared. There are more ‘micro’-
468 smallholders and backyard flocks/herds than in 2016, but these are geographically
469 widely dispersed, and have limited funds available to invest in biosecurity or
470 laboratory submissions for surveillance. Consequently, the risk of disease incursion
471 and spread in this sector is high. Illicit animal sales and illegal imports are
472 commonplace. Endemic and even exotic outbreaks (particularly vector-borne
473 diseases) go unnoticed and unreported. The prevalence of AMR is unknown as there
474 are no national surveillance systems in place.

475

476 Opportunities and challenges

477 There is the potential within some large industries and companies to develop
478 technology to increase the speed of disease detection and identification, maintaining
479 high health and welfare status for animals on profitable and competitive commercial
480 farms. Among smallholders, there are opportunities to harness communal resources
481 for disease detection via collective community sharing and use of diagnostic assays
482 or other already-available sensor technology, provided it is affordable. Technology is
483 available, but costly, so uptake is limited to inexpensive, robust products that result in

484 significant savings on costs or labor. There is little publicly funded investment in
485 research to support animal health surveillance in Scotland. Limitations on
486 immigration after Brexit have resulted in a ‘skills-gap’ and fewer international
487 researchers are attracted to research opportunities in Scotland. Although there is
488 capacity for data collection, there is limited ability to collate it. What data does exist
489 may be of high quality and well-targeted to the needs of end-users. The large
490 numbers of new entrant farmers among very smallholders has resulted in a loss of
491 “institutional memory” regarding disease outbreak preparedness.

492

493 Scenario 3. State-led surveillance

494 This future is characterized by an isolationist trade policy, an integrated state-driven
495 approach to data collection and sharing and state-funded animal health surveillance.

496

497 Characteristics

498 In 2030, Scotland is still part of the UK. As a consequence of Brexit, it has lost
499 access to EU markets, resulting in increasingly isolationist policies designed to
500 protect the UK economy. Scotland’s agricultural trade policy is based on a
501 precautionary risk-based approach, which results in fewer, highly selective
502 transactions with trusted partners to reduce the risk of notifiable disease incursion.
503 The UK is no longer a good base for production for external markets; multinational
504 companies have relocated elsewhere. Sheep and beef farms are increasing in size,
505 with more sheep and beef cattle moving to lowland areas, and marginal regions
506 dropping out of production. Remaining pig and poultry units have restructured into
507 smaller units to supply national demand. Due to decreased animal movements,
508 strong import controls and increased biosecurity on farms, there is a decreased
509 likelihood of exotic disease incursion and spread. State-funded animal surveillance
510 programmes increasingly focus on compulsory data collection and sharing on
511 production diseases and endemic diseases, as increases in national production are
512 politically and socially important, and provide clear economic advantages to
513 producers. AMR prevalence is monitored nationally and there remains pressure on
514 the agricultural sector to reduce antimicrobial usage, in keeping with the overall
515 aversion to risk.

516

517 Opportunities and challenges

518 As a result of data-sharing legislation, a large volume of farm health status
519 information is freely and openly available to the public. There are opportunities for
520 new training initiatives focusing on data collection, analysis and interpretation. It is
521 possible to ‘benchmark’ lower, more sensitive, thresholds for intervention at pre-
522 clinical disease stages, leading to improved early disease detection. The lack of
523 privacy regarding sensitive business and animal health data poses potential economic
524 or business risks to some producers. There is a reduced farm labor force and less
525 veterinary input into farms. It is difficult to attract students (particularly international
526 students) to veterinary schools and agricultural colleges, which results in increased
527 reliance on para-veterinary professions. The agricultural sector is vulnerable to
528 politically-driven shifts in policy and governmental resource re-prioritization. There
529 is limited buy-in among industry stakeholders in government-run surveillance due to
530 a perceived lack of control over their own data, and hence their own industry, which
531 results in poor relationships and communication between industry representatives,
532 policy makers and scientists. There are also challenges regarding data analysis
533 including the need for computing capacity to deal with high speed, high throughput,
534 high volume data and a shortage of analytical expertise in the UK. As data are

535 available widely in society and even to international competitors, there are ongoing
536 concerns about the malevolent use of data.

537

538 Scenario 4. Export-led surveillance

539 This future is characterized by a globalist trade policy, an integrated state-driven
540 approach to data collection and sharing and state-funded (public resourcing) of
541 animal health surveillance.

542

543 Characteristics

544 In 2030, Scotland is part of the UK. Post-Brexit, the Scottish livestock industry is
545 buoyant, competitive and oriented towards the export market, with some niche
546 product production within Scotland. There is a global trade market in high-end
547 Scottish produce whereby the UK has bilateral export agreements with a number of
548 countries. These trade agreements are contingent upon livestock being free from
549 disease and a transparent chain of testing records to support this. The farming sector
550 closely resembles the industry as it is presently with a mix of small crofters and
551 lifestyle farmers, family businesses and large commercial farmers. Some small family
552 farms find it difficult comply with the new surveillance regulations and in
553 consequence, struggle to continue to operate. Livestock population sizes are slightly
554 smaller than those in 2017. Surveillance for animal health, public health and wildlife
555 disease is publicly funded by government, which provides grants and tax incentives
556 to a large R&D sector and is supported by innovative technologies. There is vertically
557 and horizontally integrated data sharing between farmers, veterinarians and
558 stakeholders within and between businesses and sectors. A key limitation of this
559 export-oriented model of animal health surveillance (which is focused on detection of
560 notifiable diseases and AMR) is that endemic non-notifiable diseases spread
561 relatively freely. There are frequent disease outbreak scares, which stem from the
562 importance of the livestock industry to Scotland and the open nature of surveillance
563 data. These regular alarms result in market volatility. Concern about AMR results in
564 heavy regulation of antimicrobial agents, but there is a black market in
565 pharmaceuticals.

566

567 Opportunities and challenges

568 There are commercial opportunities for corporate veterinary practices and scope for
569 further veterinary specialization due to a burgeoning technology market and
570 innovative diagnostics and research sectors, augmented by specialists in
571 biotechnology and data management. These changes have led to quantitative and
572 qualitative improvements in competition between contractors and suppliers in the
573 veterinary surveillance sector, improving overall performance. The misinterpretation
574 or miscommunication of freely available data results in a series of veterinary health
575 scares. Potentially expensive and complicated technical requirements create a
576 squeeze on small farms, which struggle to adopt the technologies and comply with
577 regulations. Limited broadband access is still an issue in remote areas of Scotland.
578 Disease detection for non-notifiable diseases is neglected, which has led to a decrease
579 in production efficiency.

580

581 Scenario 5. Industry-led surveillance

582 This future is characterized by a globalist trade policy, a segregated approach to data
583 collection and sharing and private or industry-funded animal health surveillance

584

585 Characteristics

586 After Brexit, Scotland remains part of the UK. Effective marketing to promote the
587 Scottish brand is key in developing and promoting trade. International trade,
588 particularly for the export market, is important and drives much of animal health
589 surveillance. Producers who are willing and able to prioritize efficiency and
590 innovation **dominate the farming industry**. Industry sectors and large vertically
591 integrated retailers form important substructures and act as ‘silos’ for data and
592 information. Large corporate farm-groups and supermarkets have strong lobbying
593 power, and industry structures protect the interests of these companies. Consequently,
594 smaller farms are declining in number. Data are valued commodities and are not
595 shared beyond the designated business or sector unless there is either an economic
596 justification for doing so or a requirement to fulfill statutory disease reporting to
597 maintain global trade-market access. Surveillance is privately-funded, conducted in
598 private laboratories, vertically integrated, and aimed at detecting diseases of the
599 greatest importance to the sector. These include production-limiting diseases as well
600 as exotic or notifiable diseases that could affect trade. Certain sectors, such as high
601 genetic-value beef production, become very successful. Others, such as the pig and
602 poultry sectors, which are accustomed to minimal support and able to build on
603 international links, are able to continue, **for the most part**, unchanged post-Brexit. The
604 government funds a small element of the surveillance budget, and operates a much
605 reduced laboratory system to address public health and wildlife threats. There is a
606 decreased likelihood of incursion and spread of exotic diseases due to heavy
607 investments in biosecurity, focused on diseases of trade importance. Emerging
608 diseases can be detected quickly, provided that detection is not dependent upon the
609 identification of a pattern across multiple businesses or sectors. Effective biosecurity
610 and control strategies result in decreased prevalence of those endemic diseases that
611 either significantly affect productivity or are of consumer concern. Consumer
612 pressure has resulted in improved, targeted use of antimicrobial agents, but given the
613 segregated nature of surveillance data; it is not possible to obtain a holistic picture of
614 AMR.

615

616 Opportunities and challenges

617 As there are fewer, larger agri-businesses, it may be feasible to obtain data from
618 most, if not all businesses if this can be negotiated between industry partners.
619 However, public health surveillance is not prioritized widely and there is a systematic
620 risk of failure to detect novel diseases due to weak data-sharing. As commercial
621 benefits drive investment in surveillance, there is, at best, limited state access to
622 animal (livestock, companion and wildlife), human and environmental data to give an
623 overview of the epidemiological situation. There is a loss of farming heritage, skills
624 and institutional memory about disease, particularly among the reduced number of
625 small farms.

626

627 Strategies to improve resilience

628 None of the proposed scenarios will be an ‘accurate’ description of the future. Their
629 purpose is to facilitate understanding of current trends by exploring possible
630 alternative outcomes. Some scenarios may, however, turn out to be more relevant
631 than others. There are different precursor signs for all five possible futures already
632 present today (Table 2); identification or intensification of such signals might be
633 interpreted as evidence that the associated future should be assigned a higher
634 salience.

635

636 In each scenario there are risks that would lead to less effective animal (and public)
637 health surveillance. However, there are also opportunities to improve delivery of

638 animal health surveillance. Workshop participants proposed strategies, which were
639 **subsequently** examined for resilience (**in small group and in plenary exercises**) in the
640 context of the five future scenarios. **Participants** analyzed **strategy** strengths and
641 weaknesses to explore whether strategies considered desirable and effective in one
642 scenario are irrelevant or even counterproductive under a different set of
643 circumstances. **These participant-led strategies are listed and ranked in Table 3.**
644 Subsequently, **project investigators clustered these** strategies under three strategic
645 visions:

646 Vision 1. Smart data: Strategies to generate and collect surveillance data and
647 improve communication of surveillance intelligence to end-users

648 Vision 2. Smart investments: Strategies to ensure resilience in human and
649 financial capital resources for surveillance.

650 Vision 3. Smart users: Strategies to address the needs and demands of animal
651 health surveillance end-users and beneficiaries.

652 Vision 1. Smart data

653 Across the posited futures, there is great variation in the nature and efficacy of data
654 collection, and in the ability to analyze and interpret these data, reflecting high
655 uncertainty about future trends affecting these aspects of surveillance. Extrapolating
656 the current trajectory, farmers may invest in technologies for precision agriculture,
657 but there may be fewer farmer submissions and less veterinary resources to generate
658 traditional surveillance data (i.e. clinical samples). If, in the near future, increasingly
659 high volumes of real-time animal, plant and environmental health data are generated
660 and collected via sensors and other emerging technologies, lessons learned from
661 futures such as “State-led surveillance”, “Export-led surveillance” and “Industry-led
662 surveillance” become more salient. When imagining a future data economy and
663 evaluating the role of data as a commodity, the development of strategic authority
664 over data sharing (including secure data transfer, management, storage and
665 portability) is as important as technological innovation in smart systems to ensure
666 that data are standardized and integrated to produce information that can be turned
667 into widely accessible and impactful knowledge. In the future, free trade of animal
668 health data, as well as of animal products, may become increasingly important in
669 underpinning Scotland’s economic growth.

670

671 Alternatively, if there is little uptake of technology-driven alternatives to traditional
672 data collection activities, other more extreme futures become more plausible (e.g.
673 “Individual-led surveillance”). Both scenarios (high versus low volume and high
674 versus low quality data collection) create the potential for risks and widening
675 inequalities between groups of data “haves” and “have nots”. This, in combination
676 with a non-strategic approach to democratizing (i.e. making publicly available)
677 variable quality information, or significant political shifts towards increased state-
678 control and ownership over data and services, has potential to hasten erosion of
679 public and industry trust in expert opinion and to damage stakeholder perception of
680 the value of investing in a scientific evidence-base for policy. In order to mitigate
681 these risks, 6 strategies have been proposed within this vision to address the
682 following:

683 1.1 Data collection strategies (“Industry Best”, “Health Risk States Scheme”,
684 “Scotland’s Mobile Abattoir Scheme”, “Disease Intelligence Squads”).

685 1.2 Data sharing strategies (“Surveillance Data Agency”).

686 1.3 Communication strategies (“SPIN-DEC”).

687

688 1.1 Data collection strategies

689 Although there are currently ‘smart’ technologies available (in 2016) to collect high
690 volumes of ‘personal animal data’ (such as multi-pathogen screening, biomarkers and
691 data describing animal movement patterns and behavior etc.), the application and
692 implementation of sensor technology has not been strategic or coordinated within or
693 across sectors. As a result, it is anticipated that future data describing health status,
694 animal behavior and environmental exposure for individual animals over the long-
695 term, within herds and within farms, **could become** fragmented and incomplete **in**
696 **certain futures** (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”, “Industry-led surveillance”). **Most**
697 **participants felt that a** benchmarking scheme (“Industry Best”) that facilitates data
698 collection and analysis of observations from healthy animals and the environment is
699 an important foundational step. In order to be sustainable in the long-term, this
700 strategy would require cheap, readily available technology, concurrent investment in
701 telecommunications infrastructure to increase connectivity **and expertise for data**
702 **analysis. Schemes to collect animal health data from a wide variety of sources have**
703 **been proposed previously (Meah and Lewis 1999, DEFRA 2011) but they have not**
704 **been sustainable over the long-term because of inadequate resources to disseminate**
705 **the data (DEFRA 2011). In the future, a benchmarking** strategy could enhance
706 surveillance opportunities in **scenarios** where data are already freely available and
707 widely shared **and analyzed** (e.g. “State-led surveillance”) and/or there is available
708 technology to collect on-farm data (e.g. “Current trajectory”, “Export-led
709 surveillance”). However, in futures where there is mandatory data collection and
710 analysis, investment into this strategy may be unnecessary. In an industry-led future
711 (e.g. “Industry-led surveillance”) where the high quality commercial data is industry-
712 owned, this strategy may not have much traction unless there are sufficient incentives
713 for participation.

714
715 There is also future uncertainty about the impact of novel and emerging diseases.
716 These diseases are likely to escape early detection unless farmers actively choose to
717 submit samples, as by definition, there are no mandatory reporting requirements.
718 **Participants (in the “Industry-led surveillance future”) suggested** introducing
719 legislation for statutory reporting of ‘health risk states’ i.e. conditions that are not
720 notifiable, but indicate a **potentially serious** risk to human or animal health to address
721 this knowledge gap. A “Health Risk States Scheme” (HRRS) is a system currently
722 used in human health **in Scotland** to ensure potential threats to **public health** are
723 flagged **at an early stage** based on clinical signs and epidemiology, even if the
724 causative agent is not known (**Public Health (Scotland) Act 2008**). This scheme
725 could benefit from co-localization of, and resource sharing between, veterinary and
726 human health laboratories. It could be particularly valuable in futures where data are
727 held by commercial companies, by essentially legislating sharing of early warning
728 signs. **Participants thought this strategy would address issues where veterinarians**
729 **employed by private companies may have conflicts with those companies over**
730 **reporting early warning signs of potential concern** (e.g. in “Industry-led
731 surveillance”, “Current trajectory” scenarios). **There is no comparable system in**
732 **animal health in Scotland, or in international animal disease reporting, where**
733 **statutory notifications are based on suspicion or confirmation of specific pathogens,**
734 **although early detection systems such as Programme for Monitoring Emerging**
735 **Diseases (PROMED)-mail (Madoff 2004) encourage voluntary reporting of similar**
736 **types of concerning but non-specific information. The strategy** would be of limited
737 value in state-run futures where there are already systems in place to manage and
738 analyze data **in ways that would encourage early detection of emerging diseases** (e.g.
739 “State-led surveillance”, “Export-led surveillance”), or in futures where there is low

740 demand for data and a dearth of relevant expertise (e.g. “Individual-led
741 surveillance”).

742

743 There is potential variability and uncertainty about the degree of farmer participation
744 in future surveillance schemes, particularly for small or backyard producers.
745 Submission rates are influenced by trusted relationships between veterinarians,
746 farmers and the local disease surveillance centre (DSC), as well as disposable
747 income, quality of advice, cost of service and distance (Kinnaird Report 2011).
748 **Participants (in the “Individual-led surveillance” future) thought that a “Mobile**
749 **Abattoir Scheme” could provide a lever to turn traditionally passive surveillance**
750 **techniques into active surveillance programmes by bringing surveillance to the**
751 **farmer (see, for example, Eriksen et al. 2013). This scheme could deliver on-farm**
752 **slaughter along-side real-time clinical sampling and robust field-testing to enable**
753 **rapid detection of endemic and production-limiting disease; information which can be**
754 **fed back directly to the farmer for his/her benefit. It would also potentially generate**
755 **data to improve farmer detection of emerging or exotic diseases. In order to be**
756 **feasible, this scheme would need to be supported by concurrent investment in**
757 **technological innovation (pen-side testing), laboratory capacity and data management**
758 **infrastructure to capture and utilize these data efficiently, as well as education and**
759 **training for farmers, veterinarians and para-vet technicians. Industry levies or private**
760 **financing may be important revenue streams for this strategy. Participants suggested**
761 **that such funding might also come directly from consumers, in the form of a**
762 **premium paid for the enhanced animal welfare and possible improvements in meat**
763 **quality that such a scheme might provide. A willingness on the part of consumers to**
764 **pay such a premium has been identified in at least some situations (e.g., Carlsson et**
765 **al. 2007), and a reliance on market forces rather than industry mandates might make**
766 **such a scheme more palatable to targeted producers. On-farm abattoirs have been**
767 **used in Sweden (Carlsson et al. 2004; Ljungberg et al. 2007) and have been**
768 **introduced to farmers in New Zealand, Australia and France. However, this is still a**
769 **niche enterprise and the high costs associated with set up and running costs to ensure**
770 **compliance with EU regulations may make this strategy unsustainable. If these**
771 **challenges could be overcome, mobile abattoirs could improve the resilience of**
772 **clinical data collection in geographically remote and disparate populations of farmers,**
773 **especially if knowledge about clinical signs is poor and the speed with which**
774 **diseases will be detected is slow (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”). It may also be a**
775 **reasonably useful strategy in futures where there are low rates of sample submissions**
776 **or where endemic disease is an increasing burden on production efficiency (e.g.**
777 **“Current trajectory” or “State-led surveillance”). Indirectly, the strategy could also be**
778 **augmented by implementation of complementary telemedicine (or tele-surveillance)**
779 **approaches. It is of less value in futures dominated by agri-businesses with high**
780 **stocking rates, which will require more substantial abattoir facilities to accommodate**
781 **throughput (e.g. “Industry-led surveillance”). It also lacks relevance in futures with**
782 **high spending on surveillance infrastructures and point-of-care technologies with**
783 **mandatory participation and/or high investment in R&D (e.g. “State-led**
784 **surveillance”, “Export-led surveillance”).**

785

786 Even if there is an abundance of accessible, high-quality surveillance data in the
787 future, there may be significant challenges in coordinating real-time data analysis and
788 disease control response. **Participants (in the “State-led surveillance” future) thought**
789 **that strategies that create teams of veterinarians, para-veterinarians, technicians and**
790 **nurses (i.e. “Disease Intelligence Squads”) who are trained to address this problem**
791 **via interpretation of early warning signals could be beneficial, particularly if the state**

792 is posited as both enforcing the collection and sharing of data to promote efficient
793 livestock production. Similar strategies have already been implemented to create a
794 global early warning system (Mackenzie et al. 2014). “Disease Intelligence Squads”
795 could also be seen as a natural development of the current work of, for example, the
796 UK APHA Pig Expert Group, and their quarterly GB Pig Diseases Emerging Threats
797 reports (APHA 2017). The feasibility and sustainability of this strategy within
798 Scotland is contingent on the centralized collection and sharing of high quality
799 longitudinal data on both healthy and diseased animals to identify thresholds for early
800 detection and intervention at pre-clinical or clinical stages. This strategy was
801 considered more likely to work well in futures where there is support for veterinary
802 services, and “high tech” diagnostic options for on-farm data collection (e.g. “Current
803 trajectory”, “Export-led surveillance”). Participants felt that “Disease Intelligence
804 Squads” would be of very little value in futures where data collection is limited or
805 data are commercially sensitive, disease control is unfeasible or unaffordable or
806 where there are insufficient trained personnel or resources available to support
807 numerous small-holdings (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”). It would be redundant
808 in futures where similar in-house expertise is already in place and/or data are too
809 commercially sensitive to share (e.g. “Industry-led surveillance”, “Individual-led
810 surveillance”).

811

812 1.2 Data sharing strategy

813 In some futures, data sharing may be inhibited by industry control and/or non-
814 compliance with open platform initiatives. Participants (in the “Industry-led
815 surveillance” future) proposed the introduction of strategic investments to support the
816 development of non-profit, independent, cross-sector (animal, human, plant,
817 environment) health data ‘gate keepers’ and promote data sharing (i.e. a
818 “Surveillance Data Agency”). A “Surveillance Data Agency” could be designed to
819 decouple surveillance data from cross-compliance, collate, harmonize and analyze
820 diverse data sources, and demonstrate the benefits to farmers (and other end-users) of
821 a multi-disciplinary partnership approach to animal health surveillance. This strategy
822 would necessarily need to be underpinned by a coherent long-term data strategy
823 focused on support of epidemiological objectives. Partners from agriculture,
824 environment, wildlife, and water sectors would contribute to support the running of
825 the agency and commit to provide data, thus gaining access to each other’s data. In
826 order for this strategy to work, technology must already be available and affordable
827 to collect high resolution human, animal and environmental health data. It would be
828 most effective in futures where access to data is itself an incentive for participation
829 (e.g. futures in which data are segregated e.g. “Industry-led surveillance”, “Current
830 trajectory”). However, this strategy might have potential to empower stakeholders by
831 offering an alternative approach, particularly salient in futures where government
832 control is strong (e.g. “State-led surveillance”) or if state-directed sources of
833 surveillance data only focus on exotic, notifiable diseases (e.g. “Export-led
834 surveillance”). Its value would be limited if technologies to collect data are not cheap,
835 robust or readily adopted by farmers, if very few data are collected in the first place
836 (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”) or if the capacity to leverage the collected data is
837 limited. Additionally, there could be teething problems if businesses perceive a
838 potential loss in competitive advantage from participation in the scheme and if
839 attention is not paid to improving data practices across the whole of the data cycle.
840 Schemes that collate existing data sources to enhance surveillance for endemic
841 diseases are already being trialed within individual farming sectors within Scotland.
842 These overcome issues of potential reluctance to share commercial data because they
843 are organized by the industry sectors themselves via assurance schemes, with

844 members willing to share data within a scheme they already trust. However their
845 coverage is limited to these members.

846

847 1.3 Communication strategy

848 Strategies to improve communication and trust between industry, policy-makers and
849 scientists (e.g. “Science-Policy-Industry interface Networks for Disease Exposure
850 and Control (SPIN-DEC)”) would marshal reliable evidence and empower
851 veterinarians, farmers, agricultural sector, public health stakeholders, retailers and
852 supermarkets with expertise and intelligence. Participants felt that a “SPIN-DEC”
853 could be a useful innovation in futures where trade in animals, animal-by-products
854 and food is an important driver for disease freedom or where veterinary services are
855 run and funded by the state, and are particularly vulnerable to reprioritization (e.g.
856 “State-led surveillance”) and/or futures where an evidence base is critical to mitigate
857 the risks of animal disease outbreaks and protect the Scottish brand (e.g. “Current
858 trajectory”, “Export-led surveillance”). Participants anticipated that there could be
859 major barriers to implementation. The ready availability of sensitive production data
860 to a public with a variable ability to assimilate the information was thought likely to
861 give rise to a “lowest-common denominator” media environment in which inaccurate
862 or malicious tropes would easily spread. This might be exacerbated by public distrust
863 of both the governmental and commercial elements of the nascent corporate state. In
864 addition, it was thought likely that there would be systemic weaknesses in the ability
865 of government and the agricultural industries to effectively interpret these data
866 sources themselves, and hence their ability to provide useful information and
867 intelligence to production and retail stakeholders or to rebut ‘fake-news’. Aspects of
868 this strategy can be seen already as present in, for example, the ‘Data collection-
869 Analysis-Interpretation-Communication’ remit of the private company responsible
870 for the national Animal Health Surveillance System in the Netherlands (GD Animal
871 Health 2017). This strategy would be less relevant in futures where there is no need
872 for an evidence-base to underpin policies on trade or animal health and welfare either
873 because trade is limited (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”) or industry is already an
874 influential lobbyist (e.g. “Industry-led surveillance”).

875

876 Vision 2. Smart investments.

877 In some futures, funding and expert capacity for animal health surveillance activities
878 is expected to decline, particularly in rural areas post-Brexit (e.g. “Current
879 trajectory”, “Export-led surveillance” and “Individual-led surveillance”). Early
880 signals of this may include a reduction in numbers of veterinary school applications,
881 a significant decline in numbers of veterinarians going into livestock practice on
882 graduation, and a reduction in the numbers of veterinarians and veterinary practices
883 in remote, rural areas in Scotland. Public funding cuts for disease surveillance in the
884 face of ongoing or emerging disease threats also increase the salience of these
885 outcomes. In order to mitigate these resourcing risks, two strategies were proposed:
886 2.1 Strategy to increase veterinary and scientific research capacity (“Rural Vet
887 Scheme”),
888 2.2 Strategy to increase surveillance (“Animal Data Levy”).

889

890 2.1 Strategy to increase veterinary and scientific research capacity

891 There is uncertainty about the future availability of human resources and expertise in
892 veterinary services and scientific research, particularly in remote rural areas of
893 Scotland due to a predicted ‘brain-drain after Brexit (Cressey 2017) (see for example:
894 “Current trajectory” and to a lesser extent, “Export-led surveillance” and “Individual-
895 led surveillance”). Participants (in the “Current-trajectory” future) felt that

896 incentivisation strategies might be necessary to attract and retain expertise in
897 Scotland and enable better delivery of on-farm testing and data collection to improve
898 endemic disease surveillance and control. **Incentivisation strategies are commonly**
899 **used in the medical field to encourage doctors to work in rural areas (Sempowski**
900 **2004). A large expert opinion study (Prince et al. 2006) identified debt relief**
901 **programs as the most supported strategy for increasing the number of food supply**
902 **veterinarians. A “Rural Vet Scheme” strategy would provide education bursaries or**
903 **grants to attract and retain veterinarians in large animal practice in rural areas. It**
904 **would also include incentives for farmers to utilize these veterinarians to ensure that**
905 **there is adequate demand for the services; participants thought it could be similar to**
906 **the existing Highlands and Islands Veterinary Services Scheme (HIVSS) that**
907 **subsidizes veterinary support in remote areas of Scotland providing support to**
908 **crofters and others of similar economic status (Scottish Government 2017). In New**
909 **Zealand, the “Rural Bonding Scheme” is perhaps closer in spirit to the “Rural Vet**
910 **Scheme” strategy than HIVSS. It goes further than HIVSS and provides support for**
911 **graduates to ease shortages in rural practices (New Zealand Ministry for Primary**
912 **Industries 2017). In order to be feasible in Scotland, this approach requires private or**
913 **public sources of funding. This strategy would be particularly relevant in futures**
914 **where there is a dearth of general practitioners – the front-line against disease.**
915 **However, it is of limited value in futures where the career-path for veterinarians is**
916 **predominantly within government (e.g. “State-led surveillance”) or in agri-businesses**
917 **with a strong demand for in-house veterinary services or specialized practices (e.g.**
918 **“Industry-led surveillance”). Furthermore, the long-term sustainability of the**
919 **strategy would be doubtful if there was insufficient demand from producers for**
920 **veterinary services.**

921

922 2.2 Strategy to increase surveillance funding

923 There is also uncertainty about the future availability of surveillance funding and the
924 accessibility of data for industry, as well as government use. Participants (in
925 “Current-trajectory” surveillance future) proposed that new revenue streams be
926 funded through public-private partnerships to encourage industry participation in
927 surveillance and ensure that data are widely accessible. This could include an
928 “Animal data levy” charge for industries, which grants them access to data. **The use**
929 **of a levy is a well-established funding mechanism for agricultural research (Tabor,**
930 **Janssen and Bruneau 1998 at p138), and has precedents in the UK such as the levy-**
931 **funded DairyCo organization, which plays an important role in conducting research**
932 **and controlling diseases such as Johne's Disease (Orpin and Sibley 2012). A levy**
933 **strategy would require cooperation and collaboration between funders and decision**
934 **makers. Investors would need to see benefits from their funding and perceive value**
935 **from access to data. It could return power to the industry (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008),**
936 **mitigate any disconnect between industry and policy, and reduce the impact of any**
937 **future decline in public funding or reallocation of taxation-derived resources away**
938 **from surveillance. Tabor, Janssen and Bruneau (1998 at p140) suggest that**
939 **globalisation and liberal trade policies erode the "public good" aspect of agricultural**
940 **research and other policies, causing non-public funding mechanisms to become more**
941 **important. Following this argument implies that a levy strategy would be more**
942 **relevant in non-isolationist futures** (e.g. “Current trajectory”, “Industry-led
943 surveillance”), but would be of limited value where the sector is not economically
944 viable or there is no industry solidarity (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”). It may
945 lack relevance in futures where data are already publicly funded and freely shared
946 (e.g. “State-led surveillance”, “Export-led surveillance”). Public-private partnerships
947 are likely to contribute to “One Health” approaches to healthcare and contingency

948 planning and would be feasible and effective if implemented. However, if companies
949 are forced to share all of their data as a condition of access, there may be some
950 resistance to uptake in such futures (e.g. “Industry-led surveillance”). Furthermore
951 the strategy might be unsustainable in futures with little emphasis on export or
952 imports, and hence less demand for strong surveillance frameworks.

953

954 Vision 3: Smart users.

955 In most proposed futures, technology is an important driver for development and
956 improvement of animal health surveillance (e.g. “State-led surveillance”, “Current
957 trajectory”, “Export-led surveillance” and “Industry-led surveillance”). These futures
958 would be evidenced by increased volumes of ‘Big Data’ routinely collected from
959 growing numbers of competitive farm businesses. It is also anticipated across most
960 futures that shifting demographics of farming in Scotland and the UK (i.e. towards
961 new agri-business entrants and small-holders and away from traditional family farms)
962 and/or a drop in research investment (which would reduce data analytic support)
963 would result in more demand that end-users (i.e. clinicians, farmers, livestock
964 keepers and agricultural workers) be able to critically analyze such data if they are to
965 derive the available benefits. This may create further pressure on lifestyle farmers and
966 a resultant loss of certain aspects of Scottish farming heritage. In order to mitigate
967 these challenges, strategies have been proposed to:

968 3.1 Improve digital literacy of farmers so they (and their successors) can participate
969 in the data economy (“Digital Farming Families”).

970 3.2 Improve industry solidarity and disease expertise (“Flock-book”).

971

972 3.1 Strategy to improve digital literacy

973 In the future there may be important skills gaps in agricultural data analysis, digital
974 literacy in farming data informatics (for all ages) and technological expertise.

975 **Participants (e.g. in the “Export-led surveillance” future) proposed** a targeted, grant-
976 funded data-skills training scheme for farming families in rural Scotland (“Digital
977 Farming Families”) to provide digital literacy education at all levels, with a specific
978 application of such skills to farming needs. This would enable successive generations
979 of farmers to be prepared for technological changes as they occur and enable farmers
980 to access relevant surveillance outputs and make use of these resources themselves.

981 This would be contingent on R&D funding and research innovation to ensure there
982 are technologies available for precision agriculture. The demand for precision
983 agriculture and disease detection may also depend on international standards for trade
984 risks and on non-tariff barriers to trade. The strategy would be most relevant in
985 futures where there is a heterogeneous landscape of farming types (from crofters, to
986 lifestyle farmers and family businesses as well as large-scale agri-businesses) and
987 there are clear farming legacies and succession planning for the next generation of
988 farmers. There would be obvious benefits in any future where there is a knowledge
989 gap between technology and end-users (particularly if implementation of technology
990 is mandatory), a lack of buy-in to any informatics-oriented strategy from the farming
991 community and a need for skilled expertise (e.g. “Export-led surveillance”, “State-led
992 surveillance”, “Current trajectory”). It would be of less value in futures where there is
993 a low demand for technology (either due to lack of availability, affordability or
994 perceived benefits) (e.g. “Individual-led surveillance”). It may be less relevant in
995 futures that are dominated by large agri-businesses, which already have access to this
996 training and expertise and are expressly not the target market (e.g. “Industry-led
997 surveillance”). **In this regards it serves to prevent the burden of mandatory changes in
998 data recording from falling disproportionately on smaller businesses. It has parallels**

999 in a number of government schemes aimed at small and medium sized enterprises
1000 (SMEs) and initiatives to assist smallholder farmers.

1001

1002 3.2 Strategy to improve industry solidarity and disease expertise

1003 In some of the posited futures, it is expected that there may be further reductions in
1004 the number of farmers (and traditional farming families) who have experience and
1005 knowledge of previous outbreaks (e.g. Foot and Mouth Disease in 2001).

1006 Participants (in the “Export-led surveillance future) thought that a social media
1007 platform would be of particular use to smaller farm businesses to address a gap in
1008 knowledge, communication and real-time data analysis (“Flock-Book”). “Flock-
1009 book” is targeted at farmers to facilitate transparent data sharing, communication and
1010 analysis of animal surveillance data (particularly for non-notifiable diseases). The
1011 platform would be underpinned by algorithms that process and analyze data in real-
1012 time. The system would be farmer-owned and led, on a mutual basis. There could be
1013 opportunities for this to be a commercial business, generating income for members
1014 through online advertising. It would necessarily be underpinned by R&D investment
1015 to develop new technologies and data analytics and would require broadband
1016 connectivity to work. It would be relevant in futures where farmers need to empower
1017 themselves (for example, in the face of strong state regulation and social-media
1018 informatics-driven criticism), improve sector solidarity, or find new opportunities for
1019 early warning systems and ways to reduce time-to-detection (e.g. “Individual-led
1020 surveillance”, “Current trajectory”, “Export-led surveillance”). It could be
1021 particularly relevant in futures with strong social-media information-driven criticism
1022 of industry sectors. However, it could be difficult to implement if there was little
1023 demand for and/or few adopters of the platform. Participants felt the success of the
1024 strategy would be heavily reliant on active participation by all relevant stakeholders.
1025 If a small group of stakeholders does not subscribe or subscribes but does not
1026 contribute, this might undermine both the quality of and stakeholder confidence in
1027 the data system. The strategy would be redundant in futures where demand for
1028 infrastructure and training was already met by market forces (e.g. “Industry-led
1029 surveillance”) or government (e.g. “State-led surveillance”).

1030

1031 Discussion

1032 The EPIC scenario planning workshop produced five diverse and plausible views of
1033 the future of Scottish animal health surveillance. These scenarios highlight a number
1034 of important and influential drivers that have the capacity to affect long-term
1035 resilience of early disease detection and control of exotic, endemic and novel animal
1036 and zoonotic diseases. The scenarios were broadly defined by three themes:
1037 international trade policy, data management and data-sharing philosophies and
1038 sources of finance for surveillance infrastructure and capacity. The process of
1039 creating these scenarios required consideration of what livestock industries might
1040 look like in a future Scotland, including factors such as farming structure and
1041 demographics, farming education and technology uptake.

1042

1043 The scenarios also enabled participants to think about creative strategies to mitigate
1044 risks and maximize opportunities to improve surveillance. In the absence of any
1045 certainties about the nature of post-Brexit trade agreements for agriculture, the most
1046 robust strategies (i.e. those thought likely to be effective, feasible and relevant in
1047 most futures) and thus the best investments for long-term resilience of surveillance
1048 systems included: data collection strategies (i.e. “Industry Best” and “Health Risk
1049 States Scheme”), user-benefit strategies (“Digital Farming Families” to improve
1050 digital literacy in farming communities) and investment strategies to increase

1051 veterinary and scientific research capacity (“Rural Vet Scheme”) (Table 3). These
1052 strategies highlighted three areas for further strategic consideration: “smart systems”
1053 (Vision 1), “smart investments” (Vision 2) and “smart users” (Vision 3) to ensure
1054 there is a market (and therefore a mechanism to generate resources) for new
1055 surveillance systems. **Some of these strategies represent novel approaches, whilst
1056 others have aspects that are currently in use or being trialed in Scotland or other
1057 countries. This scenario planning exercise has illustrated how these approaches might
1058 be developed further to address particular threats or opportunities. Given that there
1059 were some parallels or overlaps with existing systems in Scotland and elsewhere, it is
1060 possible discussions may have been overly-influenced or dominated by participants
1061 already working in veterinary surveillance. However the inclusion of strategies based
1062 on other fields, for example, the health risk states scheme from human medicine,
1063 illustrates the value of including a broad participant expertise base.**

1064 1065 Future farms

1066 Consideration of industry structure was a prerequisite for subsequent exploration of
1067 the requirements, structure and limitations of surveillance in each scenario. Future
1068 resilience planning for key Scottish livestock industries (i.e. sheep and cattle) has
1069 been addressed in detail by previous foresighting work (Boden et al. 2015, EPIC
1070 2014a, 2014b). It is not known whether participants in the current exercise had
1071 accessed these reports prior to the workshop. However, across all these workshops,
1072 participants appear to have held consistent views regarding the importance placed on
1073 drivers such as market access (exports and imports), government support (for farms
1074 and/or for surveillance) and technological innovation. This is evidenced by the fact
1075 that in both this and the previous scenario planning workshops (Boden et al. 2015 and
1076 2017), participants envisioned a similar group of plausible, but diverse futures for
1077 farming.

1078
1079 Any one of the five futures proposed in this workshop is possible (Table 2).
1080 However, the hypothesized future timelines indicate that there are likely to be periods
1081 of significant divergence during which the hypothetical trajectories leading to these
1082 different futures would take radically different directions. Important signals to
1083 monitor for divergence would include trends in farmer demographics, technology
1084 uptake, attitudes towards data commoditization, surveillance submission rates (by
1085 current mechanisms), significant political shifts and changes in public perceptions of
1086 evidence. However, the most important influence on the positioning of the ‘real’
1087 future relative to the five posited futures is likely to be the nature of post-Brexit trade
1088 agreements applying to agricultural produce.

1089 1090 Trade

1091 At the initial time of writing, the official stance of the UK government was that it
1092 would not seek to remain a full member of the EU customs union, so that the UK
1093 would have freedom to negotiate comprehensive trade agreements with non-EU
1094 countries (Withnall 2017). This position is now more uncertain after the June 2017
1095 UK General Election. However, if this is the future course for the UK, it may push
1096 Scotland nearer to “Individual-led surveillance” or “State-led surveillance” futures (in
1097 which WTO tariffs apply), unless preferential free trade agreements (which include
1098 agricultural products and services) can also be negotiated with the EU (or an
1099 independent Scotland rejoins the EU as a new member state). In the absence of a
1100 UK-EU agreement, there may still be beneficial impacts on farmgate prices for some
1101 sectors (e.g. cattle) as EU imports are unlikely to be competitive. However, new risks
1102 from low-cost international producers may emerge depending on whether the UK

1103 retains the EU's non-tariff barriers (i.e. the ban on beef treated with growth
1104 hormones) (ADHB 2016). Other sectors (e.g. sheep meat) will be at greater risk if
1105 tariff-free access to the EU market is not secured (ADHB 2016; van Berkum et al.
1106 2016). Any gains or losses due to transaction costs would also need to be
1107 counterbalanced against the loss of Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) support, and
1108 reduced availability of public funds to spend on animal health and surveillance
1109 activities. Changes in farm income will necessarily impact on whether farmers are
1110 able to continue farming, invest in technology, pay for veterinary services, and access
1111 and contribute to the cost of disease surveillance schemes. Trade policy (and choice
1112 of trading partners) also affects the fundamental purpose and objectives of
1113 surveillance activity. Futures that depend on an export market (e.g. "Industry-led
1114 surveillance", "Export-led surveillance"), need surveillance systems which are
1115 focused on diseases important to trade but this prioritization may leave gaps in
1116 surveillance in other important areas (such as production and endemic diseases,
1117 wildlife and public health).

1118
1119 Despite the uncertainty over trade policy, the results from the workshop suggest that
1120 a strong "Scottish brand" should be encouraged and promoted by industry. Sustaining
1121 this brand will depend on industry self-sufficiency, solidarity and coherent messaging
1122 (all of which are contingent on improved ICT, data management/sharing and delivery
1123 of veterinary surveillance services, particularly in remote areas in Scotland). These
1124 investments were identified as necessary in ensuring that future farm demographic
1125 changes do not result in a loss of disease management expertise and lower disease
1126 vigilance. Such a risk would manifest if there is a shift towards more efficient large-
1127 scale commercial businesses and/or very small-scale, backyard farming or a polarized
1128 situation including both. In every future developed in this workshop, participants
1129 considered that the lifestyle or family farmer might disappear completely, raising
1130 important questions about succession planning and the value placed on the family-
1131 farm as part of the structure of Scottish rural society.

1132
1133 Resources for surveillance

1134 In every future, the source of funding influenced, in broad terms, the anticipated
1135 design and implementation of surveillance systems. This confirms the importance of
1136 thinking about surveillance, not only as an epidemiological activity, but also as an
1137 economic one (Staerk et al. 2006). Scenarios in which surveillance was government-
1138 funded saw more efficient cross-sector monitoring and control of important hazards
1139 like AMR. Futures in which surveillance was industry-led and funded exhibited
1140 advantages from better surveillance within vertically integrated systems "from farm
1141 to fork", and from organized sectors being able to prioritize control of diseases
1142 important to the industry. However, the latter left potential gaps in wildlife, public
1143 health, emerging disease and potentially endemic disease surveillance, raising
1144 questions over where a limited government budget would best be deployed. Several
1145 of the proposed strategies, such as public-private partnerships or incentivized data
1146 sharing schemes, were aiming to mitigate concerns that industry-led surveillance
1147 might not promote data sharing or public health. The proposed "Surveillance Data
1148 Agency" also recognized the need to attach a proprietary value to data, allowing data
1149 (and knowledge) to be exchanged freely, but exclusively, within a "well-defined
1150 network of relationships" (Breschi and Lissoni 2001).

1151
1152 Data sharing philosophies

1153 The emphasis on data (and specifically, data sharing philosophies) rather than
1154 technological innovation (see EPIC 2014a and b) as one of the three scenario themes

1155 may have had interesting implications for the way in which stakeholders perceived
1156 the future. In particular, the nature of data control and ownership may influence the
1157 perceived desirability of different scenarios as a function of the social context. For
1158 example, government-led futures in which there is a great deal of financial support
1159 for farmers and for services such as surveillance may be considered positively by
1160 stakeholders if they can be rewarded with greater data control (by exclusion of
1161 competitors). However, in futures where government pays for and controls the data
1162 (i.e. “State-led surveillance”), there is no foreseeable competitive advantage from
1163 data generation and hence this scenario may be considered less favorably
1164 (particularly if there is a perception that government could use the data to penalize
1165 farmers for failure to comply with regulations). Holistic surveillance was seen as
1166 challenging in futures in which data were a commodity shared only within
1167 commercial companies. The impact of this logic within the scenarios is reflected in
1168 how many of the strategies aimed to either prevent this situation emerging, via
1169 strategies to demonstrate the up-front benefits of data sharing, or to mitigate the
1170 effects of closed data policies, by, for example, incentivizing or legislating for
1171 sharing of information. Although scenarios with highly integrated data systems had
1172 advantages for surveillance, these were felt to exhibit a potential for false alarms
1173 associated with data misuse, exacerbated by the roles of social media and public
1174 opinion. This finding highlights a need further to explore stakeholder beliefs and
1175 values, and is the focus of research to be conducted this year.

1176

1177 “Brexit”

1178 Although the decision to leave the EU had been confirmed as government policy at
1179 the time of the workshop, there was considerable uncertainty regarding the UK
1180 negotiation stance, let alone the nature of any final Brexit deal. This uncertainty was
1181 compounded by the apparent failure of UK policy makers to plan in advance for a
1182 ‘Leave’ outcome in the referendum (Swinbank 2016). This uncertainty was reflected
1183 in the workshop discussions. If, in the near future, there is no deal made with the EU,
1184 Scotland as part of the UK will be subject to increased tariffs under WTO rules. This
1185 would be likely to increase the relevance of certain futures (e.g. “Individual-led
1186 surveillance” and “State-led surveillance”) compared to others (e.g. “Export-led
1187 surveillance”).

1188

1189 Brexit was considered by workshop participants to be a critical driver for
1190 surveillance, with potential to have important but negative impacts on agriculture and
1191 animal health research. **One participant noted:**

1192

1193 *“Brexit is the biggest life changer for the farming industry since the Second World*
1194 *War... the effect of resource cuts both financial and personnel (mean) Brexit has the*
1195 *potential to increase the animal health risk to the whole of Great Britain.”*

1196

1197 **Participants** anticipated that it may become difficult to attract and keep researchers
1198 and operational staff with animal and zoonotic health surveillance expertise to work
1199 in Scotland and the UK, and farmers may be less able to pay for clinical and
1200 pathology services. Although the consequences of Brexit for farmers are highly
1201 unpredictable, it is difficult to believe that they will be advantageous (Grant 2016 at
1202 p11) because of the potential for the removal of direct payments, reduced market
1203 access and competition from cheaper imports. Other implications of Brexit were also
1204 discussed, including changes to pharmaceutical regulatory structures, which may in
1205 turn influence R&D investment, access to other types of research expertise,
1206 medicines and new diagnostics.

1207
1208 The identification of Brexit as a critical driver in this study may be usefully
1209 contrasted with discussions in previous scenario planning workshops (EPIC 2014a
1210 and b), where the, then pending, referendum on Scottish Independence was not
1211 selected for discussion in detail as it was neither considered to be highly important
1212 nor uncertain. Independence was seen as having little impact on the evolution of the
1213 sector because of assumptions about epidemiological and political constraints (i.e.
1214 that the UK would remain a single epidemiological unit, that the budget for Animal
1215 Health was already devolved to Scottish Government, and that an independent
1216 Scotland and the residual-UK would both ultimately trade within the European Single
1217 Market under common regulations). Elements of continuity post-independence were
1218 seen as more important than those associated with political change. This is not true
1219 of the changes arising from Brexit.

1220
1221 The effect of Brexit as an unexpected “shock” event dominated aspects of scenario
1222 development and as a result, perhaps for some participants, limited deeper discussion
1223 of genuinely impactful, but less immediately salient drivers, including those whose
1224 own uncertainty have been radically increased by Brexit. However, had the workshop
1225 been held prior to the referendum vote, it is by no means certain that a Brexit-type
1226 event would have been included as a critical driver. Some of the scenarios arising
1227 from such a workshop might have been informative in navigating the uncertainty
1228 arising from a subsequent Brexit decision, but in general it seems likely that many of
1229 the outputs would have rapidly become redundant in the light of a Brexit decision.
1230 The key operational decision was, therefore, whether to facilitate the inclusion of
1231 Brexit as a driver, given that the workshop participants clearly saw it as important
1232 and uncertain. As discussed above, methodologically, the inclusion of Brexit as an
1233 explicit component of the trade critical driver may have been problematic, but it
1234 appears to have been the appropriate decision. During the period over which this
1235 paper has been written, the authors perceive the relative salience of the different
1236 scenarios as having changed in response to different political events and pressures.
1237 However, we believe that at all times, at least some of the scenarios can be seen as
1238 having relevance to the then current situation. This evidences the robustness of the
1239 scenario planning methodology during periods of rapid change and high uncertainty.

1240

1241 **Limitations**

1242 The original intention of this workshop was to include consideration of disease
1243 surveillance in equidae, wildlife, companion animals and people. However, these
1244 sectors did not feature strongly in any future described. This may reflect the fact that
1245 the dynamics of surveillance in these sectors are substantially different to those in the
1246 livestock or poultry sectors. The primary focus on cattle and sheep may reflect the
1247 degree of integration within these sectors, compared to the equine industry that has a
1248 number of different silos with different priorities. Drivers of change in the racing
1249 industry may be very different to drivers impacting on riding schools, owners of
1250 companion animals or the traveller community. Alternatively, the outcomes may
1251 reflect the balance in background and interests of the workshop participants, all
1252 refracted through the prism of small group dynamics (although representatives from
1253 these sectors were invited, did attend, and we believe did add value to the discussions
1254 even where these were focused on issues distinct to their sectorial experience). **The
1255 opinion of the authors is that, where the lessons learned from this study are not easily
1256 transferrable to other sectors, there would be value in holding a further workshop to
1257 identify sector-specific issues associated with the future of surveillance.**

1258

1259 Participant diversity, the time available for discussion, and the particularity of
1260 contextualized data elicited from discursive approaches are recognized limitations of
1261 a scenario planning approach (Wodak and Meyer 2009; Duckett et al. 2017).
1262 Workshop dynamics were not explicitly evaluated as part of this study. Our
1263 subjective assessment (supported by participant feedback) was that improvements in
1264 the room layout, the time allocated for discussion, smaller group sizes and more
1265 effective facilitation of some of the group exercises could have influenced and
1266 improved group dynamics. Nevertheless, judging from this feedback, the
1267 participatory process was also a success; participants felt “the evolution of the
1268 process was novel and thought provoking”, created new relationships and were
1269 challenged to think creatively “outside the box” by different multi-disciplinary
1270 viewpoints.

1271

1272 **Conclusions**

1273 Against a background of increasing population growth, climate change, and political
1274 uncertainty, future animal health surveillance activities must support better animal
1275 health and productivity to ensure global food security and safety. These drivers are
1276 not unique to Scotland, and as such, the strategic visions (“smart data”, “smart
1277 investments”, “smart users”) identified in this workshop are likely to be relevant to
1278 other, similar, developed countries. In a UK context, the strategies identified in the
1279 workshop (such as “Industry Best”, “Health Risk States Scheme”, “Rural Vet
1280 Scheme” and “Digital Farming Families”) **as the most robust (i.e. relevant, feasible
1281 and effective)** should be explored and considered further by industry and government
1282 stakeholders as opportunities to improve the long-term resilience of surveillance
1283 beyond Brexit.

1284

1285 Future challenges for surveillance are undoubtedly complex and often “incalculable”
1286 (Anderson 2010). Scenario planning offers a structured, robust approach to “render
1287 futures actionable, when the future cannot be known” (Anderson 2010). It enables
1288 consideration of non-probabilistic “what-if” scenarios rather than considering
1289 desirable or probable futures and offers an opportunity for constructive dialogue at
1290 the interface between science, society and policy. This reflexive approach is not just
1291 about improving anticipatory governance but rather, emphasizing the promotion of
1292 parallel partnerships between governance and society in the face of uncertainty to
1293 improve the future (Laurie 2011, Boden et al. 2015). In the Scottish context,
1294 stakeholder “ownership” of animal health surveillance is perceived to be vital to
1295 promoting acceptance of any changes made to future delivery systems (Kinnaird
1296 Report 2011). **We believe the discussions and relationships between participants in
1297 government, industry and academia during this process (and the challenges this
1298 brought to established thinking about veterinary surveillance) are what make this
1299 approach to surveillance planning, novel and particularly important light of the
1300 uncertainties associated with Brexit.** As such, we hope that this scenario planning
1301 workshop will have a positive impact at both the policy level where stakeholder buy-
1302 in and input are advantageous, and at the industry level where innovation and good
1303 practice will be encouraged. Offering opportunities for this type of dialogue, to
1304 explore differences in values and interests and to resolve potential conflicts between
1305 stakeholders, is likely to become even more important as the UK takes steps to
1306 negotiate a Brexit deal. UK policy makers may have an opportunity to design “new
1307 food, farm and environmental policies, best suited to British circumstances”
1308 (Swinbank 2016) but surveillance will have huge importance in this context, as they
1309 will also be expected to protect the high standards of animal health and welfare in

1310 Scotland, protecting the interests of both Scottish farmers and consumers at the same
1311 time as responding to other global challenges.

1312

1313 **Conflict of interest statement**

1314 None of the authors of this paper have a financial or personal relationship with other
1315 people or organizations that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the
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1317

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1333

1334 **Ethics statement**

1335 This study was carried out in accordance with the recommendations of University of
1336 Glasgow College of Medical, Veterinary and Life Sciences Ethics Committee for
1337 Non-Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects with informed consent from all
1338 subjects in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The protocol was approved
1339 by the University of Glasgow College of Medical, Veterinary and Life Sciences
1340 Ethics Committee for Non-Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects.

1341

1342 ¹Online supplementary materials: Scenario planning: Drivers of change. Available at
1343 [[http://www.epicscotland.org/our-research/encouraging-interdisciplinarity/scenario-
1344 planning/scenario-planning-the-future-of-animal-health-surveillance-in-
1345 scotland/drivers-of-change/](http://www.epicscotland.org/our-research/encouraging-interdisciplinarity/scenario-planning/scenario-planning-the-future-of-animal-health-surveillance-in-scotland/drivers-of-change/)]

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Table 1. Critical drivers (high impact, high uncertainty drivers), which were clustered to form the three axes (themes) used in scenario development.			
Axis	International trade policy and the importance of the export market	Sources for, and availability of, resources for disease surveillance, including expertise and infrastructure	Approaches to data sharing
<i>Science/Technology</i>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New diagnostic technologies • Uptake of precision farming • Uptake of smart technology • Data sharing between public health and veterinary partners
<i>Society/policy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brexit • Scottish Independence 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data protection regulations • Public perception of data sharing • Numbers of corporate and superfarms
<i>Economics</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global trade of livestock products and live animals • Change in global trading patterns • Focus on global food security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased global economic prosperity • Perception of surveillance as a private or public good • Risk-based prioritisation of surveillance by government • Availability of EU resources to mitigate for and control animal disease outbreaks • Prioritisation of national and international resources as a result of human pandemics • Expenditure on veterinary education, research and development • Farm gate milk prices (and vertical integration of supermarket chain) 	

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	Current trajectory	Individual-led surveillance	State-led Surveillance	Export-led surveillance	Industry-led Surveillance
Increased tariffs subject to WTO rules?	Yes*	No	Yes	No	No
Increased imports?	No Decreased	No Decreased	No Decreased	No Decreased	Yes
Increased exports?	No Decreased	No Decreased	No Decreased	Yes	Yes
Increased data sharing?	Yes (Outbreak response only)	No	Yes	Yes	No (For in-house use only)
Increased value placed on data?	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Increased public funding for surveillance?	No Industry-led funding increasing	No Private individual funding	Yes	Yes	No Industry funding
Reduction in private sector investment in agricultural R&D?	No Increased investment in on-farm diagnostics	Yes Reduced demand for investment	Yes Increased public investment in R&D instead	No	No However, reduced public investment in R&D
Increased uptake of technologies to monitor animal health?	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Declining numbers of farms?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Increasing farm herd/flock sizes?	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Decrease in veterinary expertise in private practice?	Yes	Yes	Yes Most vets employed by the state	Yes Most vets are specialists and private contractors	Yes Most vets are specialist industry consultants
Decrease in farmers' submissions to surveillance centres?	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes

* This was considered to be the current trajectory in October 2016.

Table 3. A cross comparison of participant-led strategies to improve the resilience of surveillance systems in Scotland in 2030. Strategies were ranked by participants according to potential relevance, feasibility of implementation and effectiveness in each future.					
	<i>Current Trajectory</i>	<i>Individual-led surveillance</i>	<i>State-led Surveillance</i>	<i>Export-led Surveillance</i>	<i>Industry-led Surveillance</i>
Vision 1. Smart data: Strategies to generate and collect surveillance data and improve communication of surveillance intelligence to end-users.					
Industry Best	High	High	High	High	Medium
HRRS	High	Low	Medium	Medium	High
Scottish Mobile Abattoir Scheme	Medium	Very High	Low	Low	Low
Disease Intelligence Squads	High	Negligible	High	High	Negligible
Surveillance Data Agency	High	Very Low	Medium	Medium	High
SPIN-DEC	High	Very Low	High	High	Low
Vision 2. Smart investments: Strategies to ensure resilience in human and financial capital resources for surveillance.					
Rural Vet Scheme	High	Medium	Low	Medium	Very Low
Animal Data Levy	High	Very Low	Low	Low	Medium
Vision 3: Smart users: Strategies to address the needs and demands of animal health surveillance end-users and beneficiaries.					
Digital Farming Families	High	Low	High	High	Low
Flock-Book	Medium	High	Low	High	Very Low

1639 [Figure 1. Scenario Planning: The process.](#)

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1641 [Figure 2.](#) Scenario themes or axes as defined from critical uncertainties (high impact,
1642 high uncertainty drivers).

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