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Dairy cattle in a temperate climate: the effects

of weather on milk yield and composition

depend on management

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1 Abstract

2 A better understanding of how livestock respond to weather is essential to enable farming to adapt to a changing climate. Climate change is mainly expected to impact 3 4 dairy cattle through heat stress and an increase in the frequency of extreme weather events. We investigated the effects of weather on milk yield and composition (fat and 5 protein content) in an experimental dairy herd in Scotland over 21 years. Holstein 6 Friesian cows were either housed indoors in winter and grazed over the summer or 7 were continuously housed. Milk yield was measured daily, resulting in 762786 test 8 9 day records from 1369 individuals, and fat and protein percentage were sampled once a week, giving 89331 records from 1220 cows per trait. The relative influence 10 of 11 weather elements, measured from local outdoor weather stations, and two 11 indices of temperature and humidity (THI), indicators of heat stress, were compared 12 using separate Maximum Likelihood models for each element or index. Models 13 containing a direct measure of temperature (dry bulb, wet bulb, grass or soil 14 temperature) or a THI provided the best fits to milk yield and fat data; wind speed 15 and the number of hours of sunshine were most important in explaining protein 16 content. Weather elements summarised across a week's timescale from the test day 17 usually explained milk yield and fat content better than shorter-scale (three day, test 18 day, test day-1) metrics. Examining a subset of key weather variables using REML, 19 20 we found that THI, wind speed and the number of hours of sunshine influenced milk yield and composition. The shape and magnitude of these effects depended on 21 whether animals were inside or outside on the test day. The milk yield of cows 22 outdoors was lower at the extremes of THI than at average values, and the highest 23 yields were obtained when THI, recorded at 0900 h, was ~55 units. Cows indoors 24 decreased milk yield as THI increased. Fat content was lower at higher THIs than at 25

26 intermediate THIs in both environments. Protein content decreased as THI increased in animals kept indoors and outdoors, and the rate of decrease was greater when 27 animals were outside than when they were inside. Moderate wind speeds appeared 28 29 to alleviate heat stress. These results show that milk yield and composition are impacted by extremes of THI under conditions currently experienced in Scotland, 30 where animals have so far experienced little pressure to adapt to heat stress. 31 32 Keywords 33 climate change, fat percentage, heat stress, protein percentage, THI 34 35 Implications 36 Climate change is expected to bring about drier, hotter summers and an increased 37 38 frequency of extreme weather events across Europe. Here we show that milk yield and quality decline at the upper extremes of temperature and humidity even under 39 40 conditions currently experienced in Scotland. We identify the values of temperature and humidity, and of other weather elements, at which performance begins to 41 decrease. These estimates could be used in conjunction with climate projections to 42 help policy makers understand the likely economic impact of climate change on dairy 43 productivity. 44

46 Introduction

47

Climate change will have direct effects on livestock performance and welfare, mainly 48 through increases in temperature and the frequency of extreme weather events, and 49 will also affect animals indirectly through changes in the availability of fodder and 50 pasture and the distribution of pests and parasites (Gauly et al., 2013). High 51 temperatures are associated with a greater incidence of heat stress in livestock, 52 which can have negative effects on milk yield (Bohmanova et al., 2007, Hammami et 53 al., 2013), fertility (Hansen, 2009) and health (Sanker et al., 2013), and increase the 54 risk of mortality (Vitali et al., 2009). Heat stress occurs when animals experience 55 conditions above their thermal comfort zone and are unable to dissipate enough heat 56 57 to maintain thermal balance (Kadzere *et al.*, 2002). This is already costly to the dairy industry in terms of management interventions and lost productivity (St-Pierre et al., 58 2003). 59

60

An animal's tolerance to high air temperatures depends on the amount of water 61 vapour in the air because this influences the rate of heat loss through evaporative 62 cooling. The association between air temperature and water vapour content can be 63 expressed as a Temperature Humidity Index (THI; Thom, 1959). Milk vield in 64 Holstein dairy cows, Bos taurus, is traditionally said to begin declining at around 72 65 THI units based on work carried out in subtropical regions (Armstrong, 1994, 66 Ravagnolo et al., 2000). Thresholds of 68 (Gauly et al., 2013, Renaudeau et al., 67 2012) or even 60 units (Bruegemann et al., 2012) may, however, be more 68 characteristic of high yielding herds in temperate zones. The genetic relationship 69 between heat tolerance and productivity is negative (Ravagnolo and Misztal, 2000), 70

and dairy cattle are becoming more sensitive to heat stress due to optimisation of 71 breeding and management practices for increased performance (Kadzere et al., 72 2002, West et al., 2003). The reduction in productivity in heat stressed cows is 73 largely a result of reduced feed intake, but high temperatures also have a direct 74 effect on reproductive physiology and metabolism (Renaudeau et al., 2012). Cattle 75 generate metabolic heat as a by-product of milk synthesis and so higher yielding 76 animals experience heat stress at lower THIs than lower yielders (Kadzere et al. 77 2002). 78

79

An animal's thermal tolerance is also affected by solar radiation and the velocity of 80 ambient air (Dikmen and Hansen, 2009, Graunke et al., 2011, Hammami et al., 81 2013), while increasing precipitation is associated with declining milk production 82 (Stull et al., 2008). Weather-related stressors could potentially affect performance 83 immediately or have a delayed impact, and yet few studies have explored the time 84 interval between weather events occurring and impacting milk traits (St-Pierre et al., 85 2003). Among those that have, West et al., (2003) found that the effects of mean 86 daily THI on milk yield were greatest two out of a possible three days after THI was 87 recorded and Bouraoui et al. (2002) found that mean daily THI measured 1-3 days 88 before the test day had a greater effect on milk yield than test day THI. These time 89 90 lags might be related to the duration of digestive processes (Gauly et al., 2013).

91

Here we used 21 years' data from a single herd at two dairy research farms on the east and west coasts of Scotland to investigate the effects of weather on milk yield and composition (fat and protein content). The study evaluates a range of weather variables collected from Meteorological Office weather stations located on the

grounds of the farms or in the close vicinity, and two THIs that are frequently used to 96 characterise heat stress in cattle. Although the effects of heat stress on dairy cows 97 has been well-documented in tropical and sub-tropical regions (e.g. Dikmen and 98 99 Hansen, 2009, West et al., 2003), a growing number of studies has reported associations between THI and milk traits in temperate regions where tolerance to 100 heat stress is lower (Bruegemann et al., 2011, Dunn et al., 2014, Hammami et al., 101 2013). Moreover, temperatures are predicted to increase over the 21st century in 102 southern Scotland, especially in summer, with an expected mean daily maximum 103 temperature increase of $4.3 \,^{\circ}$ C by the 2080s with a very slight reduction (0-5%) in 104 humidity (Jenkins et al., 2009). We therefore aimed to (1) determine the most 105 biologically relevant way to quantify different weather elements and two THIs with 106 107 respect to measurement timescale and summary statistics (mean, maximum, minimum) and to (2) test how weather currently influences milk yield and 108 composition in cows with and without access to grazing on the test day 109 (management group). We hypothesised that productivity would decline under 110 extreme weather conditions, particularly at the upper extremes of THI, and that the 111 magnitude of the effects would depend on management. 112

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115 Material and Methods

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117 Subjects, maintenance and data collection

We studied the Langhill Holstein Friesian dairy herd, consisting of approximately 200
cows, between November 1990 and July 2011. The cattle were housed at Langhill
Farm, Roslin, Midlothian (55°52'1"N, 3°10'15"W), hereafter 'Farm 1', until late June

2002 and then transferred to Crichton Royal Farm, Dumfries (55°02' N, 3°34' W), 121 'Farm 2', a distance of 95 km. The management systems are described for Farm 1 in 122 Veerkamp et al. (1994) and for Farm 2 in Pollott and Coffey (2008). Briefly, two 123 genetic lines were created in 1976: select (S) and control (C). S cows were bred to 124 bulls of the highest UK genetic merit for kg fat plus protein while C cows were bred to 125 bulls that were similar to the national average for these traits. Every year, semen 126 from 4-5 bulls that were not closely related to the cows nor known to produce calving 127 difficulties was obtained from nationally available stock and used to serve females 128 129 from the same genetic line. Females from the two lines were managed together and allocated in equal numbers to either a High Forage (HF) or Low Forage (LF) diet 130 system. A Total Mixed Ration (TMR) of blended concentrates, brewers' grain and 131 132 silage was offered ad libitum to HF cattle in the ratio 20:5:75 total dry matter (mean proportions over a full lactation) and to LF cattle in the ratio 45:5:50. All animals 133 received concentrates in the milking parlour. Females from the same sire were 134 assigned to the two diet groups in equal numbers. 135

136

At Farm 1, calving took place between early September and January each year. 137 Cows were kept indoors for approximately 200 days after calving (day 0) and then 138 grazed. Those that were still indoors at the end of June were moved outside. Most 139 140 grazing occurred between April and October, inclusive, depending on the availability of pasture. At Farm 2, the HF group was grazed between April and October, and 141 otherwise maintained indoors; LF cows were continuously housed (CH). Calving took 142 place all year round for both HF and LF cows, and the majority of calves were born 143 during the winter months. Housing at both farms consisted of conventional cubicle 144 stalls within a single building with a corrugated metal roof and no artificial ventilation. 145

146 At Farm 1, the building had walls of slatted wood and large open doors at each end;

an open ridge in the roof facilitated airflow. The building at Farm 2 had open

148 windows along the length of one side and a gated but otherwise open section (~3m

149 wide) on each of two opposite sides surrounding an indoor loafing area.

150

Cows were milked twice daily at Farm 1 and three times a day at Farm 2. Milk yield
(kg) was measured and summed for each day. Fat and protein content were
measured twice (Farm 1, Tuesday PM and Wednesday AM) or three times (Farm 2,
Tuesday PM, Wednesday AM and midday) a week, and expressed as percentages
averaged across the two or three milking events. Animals remained in the study for
three lactations unless they were culled due to illness or infertility.

157

158 Animal data

We extracted milk records collected on days 4-305 of the cows' first three lactations 159 for animals that were \geq 75% Holstein Friesian (mean 93.0±0.19%), discarding 160 records collected between June 2002 and July 2003 when cows were acclimatising 161 to Farm 2. This resulted in a dataset containing 762786 test day records for milk 162 yield from 1369 individuals over 7073 days and 89331 weekly records from 1220 163 animals over 958 days for fat and protein content. The number of records for each 164 animal ranged from 3-902 (mean 557.6±10.68) for milk yield and 3-129 (mean 165 73.2±10.09) for fat and protein content. Test day milk yield records were matched 166 with weather data from the same day, and fat and protein records were matched with 167 weather data measured on the Tuesday of the same week. 168

169

170 Weather data

Data on 11 weather elements (Table 1) were downloaded from the British 171 Atmospheric Data Centre website (UK Meteorological Office., 2012). These 172 consisted of point-samples recorded at 0900 h each day and 24h summaries (mean, 173 minimum, maximum, total). For each element we extracted data from the closest 174 weather station to Farm 1 for the period 1990-2002 and to Farm 2 for 2003-2011. 175 Meteorological Office weather stations that measured most elements of interest were 176 active on the grounds of Farm 1 until 1999 and Farm 2 for the duration of the 177 experiment. An additional five stations ≤14.4km from Farm 1 and one station 29km 178 179 from Farm 2 were used for the remaining elements and to fill in missing values. Supplementary Table S1 provides the distances that each weather element was 180 measured from the farms, and the elevation at which it was recorded. Using these 181 data, we calculated THI₁: 182

183 Equation 1

 $THI_1 = (T_{db} + T_{wb}) \times 0.72 + 40.6$

where T_{db} was dry bulb air temperature (°C) and T_{wb} was wet bulb temperature (°C), and THI₂:

186 Equation 2

 $THI_2 = (1.8 \times T_{db} + 32) - ((0.55 - 0.0055 \times RH) \times (1.8 \times T_{db} - 26))$

where **RH** was relative humidity (%) (National Research Council, 1971).

188

As weather can have a delayed effect on biological processes, and the effects of weather depend on the timescale over which animals experience them (Bertocchi et al, 2014, Renaudeau *et al.*, 2012, West *et al.*, 2003), we explored the relationship between milk traits and all weather variables on the day the cow was milked ('test day' or **TD**), the preceding day (**TD-1**), and for the number of hours of sunshine, which was measured 0000-2359h, two days before milking (**TD-2**). We calculated a 'moving' mean for each daily (0900 h) point sample over the three and seven days
prior to (and including) the TD, and a moving minimum and maximum for the three
variables for which 24h summaries were available (precipitation, T_{db} and sunshine).
We also noted the presence versus absence of lying snow on the TD and TD-1.
These methods allowed us to compare different ways of expressing the weather
elements, hereafter 'weather metrics'.

201

202 Statistical analysis

Weather at Farms 1 and 2 was compared using separate Generalized Least
Squares models for each weather element or index fitted by Restricted Maximum
Likelihood (**REML**) from the nlme package in R version 3.0.2. (R Development Core
Team, 2013). Harmonic regression allowed us to account for seasonal fluctuations in
weather and we applied a first order autocorrelation structure to deal with nonindependence of weather values between days.

209

We used Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) to determine the most biologically 210 relevant way to express each weather element and compare the explanatory power 211 of each element with respect to milk yield, fat content and protein content (models 212 listed in Supplementary Table S2). AIC has been used previously to compare 213 214 temperature indices in explaining milk traits (Bruegemann et al., 2012, Hammami et al., 2013). As the metrics for summarising a given element were closely correlated, 215 and high proportions of shared variance can lead to unreliable estimates, we fitted 216 each metric in a separate Linear Mixed effects Model (LMM) (Equation 3) using 217 Maximum Likelihood to produce a series of non-nested models. Information Theory 218 is an appropriate method for comparing non-nested models provided that models are 219

fitted to identical datasets (e.g. there are no missing values) (Burnham and
Anderson, 2002). As the full dataset contained missing values where data were
unavailable for the closest weather stations to a farm, we created a reduced dataset
of 659918 records (86.5% of the total) and 1357 animals (99.1%) for milk yield, and
77178 records (86.4% of the total) and 1212 animals (99.3%) for fat and protein
content by excluding all records with missing weather values. This dataset was used
only to compare weather metrics. We fitted the following model:

227

228 Equation 3

 $y \sim \mu + w + feed group + genetic group + (feed group \times genetic group) + management$ + farm + lact no. +DIM + animal id + TD + ordinal calving date + ϵ

229

where y was the response variable (milk yield, fat or protein content, all normally 230 distributed), μ was the overall mean and w was a single weather metric or weather 231 metric plus weather metric × management interaction term; 'feed group' (HF or LF), 232 'genetic group' (S or C), 'management' on the TD (grazing or housed) and 'farm' (1 233 or 2) were two-level fixed factors, 'lactation number' (1, 2 or 3) was a three-level 234 ordered factor, linear and quadratic terms of 'DIM', (Days 4-305 In Milk where day 0 235 236 was the day of calving) were covariates, animal identity, ordinal calving date and TD (continuous date from the beginning of the experiment, 1-7578) were random factors 237 (random intercepts only) and ε was the error structure. We considered farm identity 238 to control for potential changes in management and other conditions between the 239 two farms, and ordinal calving date (1-367) to control for differences in the time of 240 year that cows calved. Fitting TD as a random factor allowed us to account for 241 temporal autocorrelation, as well as potential trends related to climate and genetic 242 improvements over the study period. To test the hypothesis that productivity declines 243

in extreme weather conditions, we fitted linear, quadratic and cubic terms for all 244 continuous weather variables (except for snow depth, precipitation and visibility 245 which were expected to have a linear effect on milk traits), retaining lower order 246 terms where higher order terms were significant. All continuous terms were mean-247 centred to reduce collinearity between polynomial terms of a given variable and to 248 improve the interpretability of the results. LMMs were fitted using the lme4 package 249 (Bates et al., 2013) in R. We selected the 'best' model for each weather element 250 based on the lowest AIC, and considered 7 AIC units to be a meaningful difference 251 252 between models (Burnham et al., 2011). The highest ranked model for each weather element or index was refitted using REML on the same dataset to obtain less biased 253 parameter estimates, which were calculated using ImerTest (Kuznetsova et al., 254 2014). 255

256

Next, we tested whether the effects of weather on milk yield and composition 257 depended on the prevailing management type (indoors or outdoors) in a single LMM 258 for each response variable (Equation 3) using REML. To avoid fitting variables with 259 shared variation in the same model, weather variables were limited to precipitation, 260 WS, sunshine, and THI₂, based upon Exploratory Factor Analysis (psych package; 261 Revelle, 2013), correlation coefficients (≤0.33 based on TD values) and AIC rankings 262 (see Results). For each of the three weather elements and THI, the metric belonging 263 to the highest ranked model was used. We tested for linear effects of precipitation, 264 and linear, quadratic, cubic and quartic effects of THI₂, WS and sunshine. Non-265 significant interactions were removed from the models (higher order terms before 266 lower order terms) followed by non-significant main effects using backward 267 elimination. For each significant interaction between weather and milk traits, a further 268

LMM using REML was undertaken to examine the effect size and shape of the relationship for the two management groups separately. We used differentiation to calculate the 'turning points' where performance began to decline for polynomial relationships between weather and milk traits based on the regression equations of the post-hoc LMMs. For models fitted by REML, we present estimates of the model coefficient (β) with standard errors, t-values and *P*-values assuming significance at *P*<0.05. All statistical tests are two-tailed.

- 276
- 277

278 **Results**

279

280 Weather conditions at the research farms

The UK has a maritime temperate climate with mild summers and winters.

282 Descriptive statistics for weather at the two research farms are given in Table 1. THI₁

and THI₂ showed a strong linear correlation ($r_p = 0.986$, $t_{6873} = 495.5$, *P*<0.001),

although THI₁ was higher than THI₂ (t_{6874} = 150.2, *P*<0.001, paired test). THI₁ at

285 0900 h was >60 units across the two farms on 1114 days over the study period

286 (16.2% of TDs), and >70 units on 10 days (0.2%), and THI₂ at 0900 h was >60 units

on 626 days (9.1% of TDs) and >70 units on 8 days (0.1%). THI values peaked in

July and were lowest between December and February, while the number of hours

of sunshine was greatest in May and lowest in December and January. The research

farms received <1h sunshine over 24h on 2343 days (33.4%) and >9h on 668 days

- 291 (9.5%), and WS was <5 knots at 0900 h on 2464 days (36.1%) and >20 knots on
- 415 days (6.1%). Higher values of ppt, T_{db} , T_{wb} , THI_1 , THI_2 , T_s and T_g were recorded
- at Farm 2 than at Farm 1, whereas WS, visibility, snow depth and RH were greater

at Farm 1 (Table 1). There was no difference in P_{MSL} or the number of hours of 294 sunshine at the two farms. THI increased over the 12-years of study at Farm 1 (THI₁: 295 $\beta = 0.17 \pm 0.04$, t = 4.34, P<0.001; THI₂: $\beta = 0.13 \pm 0.04$, t = 2.95, P = 0.003), but did 296 not change over the 8 years at Farm 2 (THI₁: β = -0.11±0.07, *t* = 1.63, *P* = 0.103; 297 THI₂: $\beta = 0.13 \pm 0.08$, t = 1.64, P = 0.101). The number of hours of sunshine 298 increased over the study period at Farm 1 ($\beta = 0.09 \pm 0.02$, t = 4.85, P < 0.001), but 299 did not change over the years of the study at Farm 2 (β = -0.02±0.04, t = 0.47, P = 300 0.636). WS decreased over the time at Farm 1 ($\beta = -0.21 \pm 0.05$, t = 3.90, P<0.001). 301 but did not change at Farm 2 ($\beta = 0.12 \pm 0.07$, t = 1.80, P = 0.072). Precipitation did 302 not change over the study period at Farm 1 ($\beta = 0.02\pm0.03$, t = 0.49, P = 0.625) or at 303 Farm 2 ($\beta = 0.10\pm0.06$, t = 1.55, P = 0.122). Daily maximum temperatures exceeded 304 305 point samples measured at 0900 h by 3.3 °C (*t*6919 = 120.6, *P*<0.001), and daily minimum temperatures were $3.7 \,^{\circ}$ C cooler than point samples (*t*6919 = 123.0, 306 *P*<0.001). 307

308

Comparing the effects of weather elements and metrics on milk yield and quality 309 Models testing for the effects of T_s provided the best fits to the data for both milk 310 yield and fat content, while WS models provided the best fit to protein content data 311 (Table 2; Supplementary Table S3). Weather elements and indices were ranked in 312 the same order for milk yield and fat content (albeit with ties for THI_1 , THI_2 and T_{db} 313 for fat content), but followed a different order for protein content except at the end of 314 the scale (P_{MSL}, ppt and snow were ranked 12th, 11th and 13th across all 3 milk traits). 315 Models testing for direct measures of temperature $(T_s, THI_2, T_{db}, THI_1, T_{wb} \text{ and } T_q)$ 316 were ranked above all other models for milk yield and fat content, and in the top 9 of 317 13 elements or indices for protein content. THI₂ showed a better fit to the data than 318

THI₁ for milk yield, but the two THIs did not differ in explanatory power for milk fat and protein (Table 2). Among models that did not contain direct temperature variables, the number of hours of sunshine (7th) and RH (8th) were ranked highest for milk yield and fat content, and the number of hours of sunshine was ranked second for protein content (Table 2).

324

Models testing for interactions between weather and management fitted the data 325 better or (for the effects of WS and snow on fat content, and the effects of T_{db}, THI₁, 326 T_{wb} and snow on protein content) not significantly worse than models without the 327 interaction term. In all but one case (TD T_s), metrics applied over a week's timescale 328 provided better fits for milk yield than metrics applied over shorter timescales. 329 Similarly, weekly summaries were ranked more highly (or equally highly in the cases 330 of RH, ppt and snow) than shorter term metrics for fat content, with the exception of 331 WS, where TD was the best metric. TD or three-day metrics were usually most 332 effective at explaining the effects of temperature variables on protein content, while 333 weekly summaries usually explained the effects of other weather elements on 334 protein content better than shorter term metrics. For T_{db} , where data were available 335 both as 0900 h point samples and as 24h summaries, metrics derived from point-336 samples ranked more highly than those based on 24h summaries for all three milk 337 traits. Models containing metrics with higher order polynomial effects usually 338 explained the data better than those containing lower order polynomials for milk yield 339 and fat content, although this was less frequently the case for milk protein 340 (Supplementary Table S3). Although models varied in explanatory power, the best 341 metric for each weather element or index significantly influenced all three milk traits 342

- when tested individually using REML, with the exception of snow on protein content,for which no metric was significant (Supplementary Table S4).
- 345

346 How does weather influence milk yield in dairy cattle?

Milk yield was influenced by two-way interactions between management and each of 347 the individual weather variables (weekly mean THI₂ at 0900 h, weekly maximum 348 number of hours of sunshine, weekly mean WS and weekly mean ppt), the 349 interaction between diet and genetic group, and main effects of farm identity, 350 351 lactation number and DIM (Table 3) as follows. When cows were outside, milk yield increased with THI to 24.0 kg at 54.9 THI units, and then decreased as THI 352 continued to increase (Figure 1, Table 3). When cattle were indoors, by contrast, 353 increasing THI values were associated with an overall decrease in milk yield from a 354 local maximum of 26.5 kg of milk at 32.8 THI units. Animals outdoors increased milk 355 yield with WS to 24.1 kg at 9.1 knots, and then gradually decreased milk yield as WS 356 increased (Figure 1, Table 3). Those indoors increased milk yield with increasing WS 357 when WS was low, and showed no change in milk yield at higher WS. In animals 358 indoors and outdoors, milk yield increased and then decreased as the number of 359 hours of sunshine increased (Table 3). Performance began to decline at lower 360 values of sunshine when animals were indoors (26.0 kg milk at 2.4 h sunshine) than 361 when they were outdoors (24.5 kg milk at 12.8 h sunshine (Figure 1). Cattle 362 experienced a decrease in milk yield with increasing ppt, and the rate of decline was 363 greater in animals outdoors than indoors. Individuals produced more milk indoors 364 than outdoors, at Farm 1 than Farm 2 and in later lactations than in earlier lactations, 365 and milk production decreased over a given lactation (Table 3; Table 4). Milk yield 366 was greater in S than C (effect of genetic group in HF animals: $\beta = 4.64 \pm 0.31$, t =367

14.74, *P*<0.001; effect of genetic group in LF animals: β = 4.45±0.49, *t* = 9.00,

369 *P*<0.001) animals, and in LF than HF animals (effect of feed group in C animals: β =

370 1.75±0.03, t = 51.39, P < 0.001; effect of feed group in S animals: $\beta = 2.21 \pm 0.03$, $t = 1.75 \pm 0.03$

371 74.67, *P*<0.001), and the difference in milk yield between LF and HF cattle was

- 372 greater in S than in C animals.
- 373

374 How does weather influence milk fat?

The proportion of fat in milk was influenced by two-way interactions between 375 376 management and weekly mean THI₂ at 0900 h, management and weekly minimum sunshine, and between diet and genetic group, and main effects of TD WS, farm 377 identity, lactation number and DIM, but not by the maximum ppt over the last three 378 days (Table 3). Fat content showed an overall decrease with THI for animals 379 outdoors. For animals indoors, milk fat increased to a local maximum of 3.8% at 50.2 380 THI units, and then decreased with THI (Figure 1, Table 3). Animals outdoors and 381 indoors increased and then decreased fat content as WS increased; performance 382 began to decline at a lower WS for animals indoors (3.8% at 13.3 knots) than 383 outdoors (3.7% at 15.5 knots; Figure 1, Table 3). Cattle kept indoors increased fat 384 content as the number of hours of sunshine increased, whereas cattle outdoors 385 gradually decreased fat content as the number of hours of sunshine increased 386 (Figure 1, Table 3). Cows produced milk with a higher proportion of fat when 387 outdoors than indoors (Table 3; Table 4), at Farm 1 than Farm 2, and in later 388 lactations than in earlier lactations. Milk fat decreased during the first days of a given 389 lactation and then increased (Table 3). Fat content was greater in S than C animals 390 (effect of genetic group in HF animals: $\beta = 0.09 \pm 0.03$, t = 2.77, P = 0.006); effect of 391 genetic group in LF animals: $\beta = 0.16 \pm 0.04$, t = 4.17, P<0.001) and in HF than LF 392

animals (effect of feed group in C cows: $\beta = -0.24 \pm 0.01$, t = 18.36, *P*<0.001; effect of feed group in S cows: $\beta = -0.24 \pm 0.01$, t = 20.19, *P*<0.001), and the difference in fat content between S and C cattle was greater in LF than in HF individuals.

396

397 How does weather influence milk protein?

The proportion of protein in milk was influenced by two-way interactions between 398 management and 3 separate weather variables (mean THI₂ over the last 3 days, 399 weekly mean WS, weekly mean ppt), and main effects of weekly maximum number 400 401 of hours of sunshine, diet, genetic group, farm identity, lactation number and DIM (Table 3). Protein content decreased as THI increased in animals kept outdoors and 402 indoors, and the rate of decrease was greater when animals were outside than when 403 404 they were inside (Figure 1, Table 3). Animals outdoors gradually increased protein content as WS increased, whereas protein content was not influenced by WS when 405 animals were indoors. Examining cattle kept indoors and outdoors separately, those 406 407 indoors showed a tendency to increase protein content with increasing ppt (β = 0.002 ± 0.001 , t = 1.80, P = 0.072), but there was no effect of ppt ($\beta = -$ 408 0.0001 ± 0.0016 , t = 0.06, P = 0.636) on protein content when cattle were outdoors. 409 Cattle indoors and outdoors decreased protein content as the number of hours of 410 sunshine increased. Cows produced more milk protein when housed outdoors than 411 412 indoors, at Farm 1 than Farm 2 and in lactations 2 and 3 than in lactation 1 (Table 3; Table 4). Protein content decreased during the first days of a given lactation and 413 then increased (Table 3). Protein content was greater in Select than Control animals 414 (effect of genetic group in HF animals: $\beta = 0.05 \pm 0.01$, t = 3.48, P<0.001; effect of 415 genetic group in LF animals: $\beta = 0.10 \pm 0.02$, t = 5.79, P<0.001) and in HF than in LF 416 cattle (effect of feed group in C animals: $\beta = 0.04 \pm 0.01$, t = 7.58, P<0.001; effect of 417

feed group in S animals: $\beta = 0.06 \pm 0.01$, t = 11.80, *P*<0.001), and the difference in milk protein between S and C cattle was greater in LF than in HF animals.

420

421

422 Discussion

423

A better understanding of the response of livestock to current and future weather 424 patterns is essential to enable farming to adapt to a changing climate (Gauly et al., 425 426 2013). We investigated the effects of weather over a 21 year-period on milk yield and composition under different management systems in a dairy herd at two Scottish 427 farms. The relative influence of 11 weather elements and two THIs, indicators of heat 428 stress, was compared. Models containing direct measures of temperature provided 429 the best fits to milk yield and milk fat data; the number of hours of sunshine and 430 relative humidity were also important. Models considering wind speed explained 431 protein content best, while those containing sunshine, humidity and temperature also 432 performed well. The importance of direct temperature metrics in explaining 433 productivity is consistent with a wealth of studies on the impact of heat stress in dairy 434 cattle (Renaudeau et al., 2012). Relatively few studies have assessed the impact of 435 other weather variables on milk traits, but thermal indices that account for wind 436 437 speed and solar radiation perform better than those that do not (Hammami et al., 2013). 438

439

In our study, weather metrics summarised across a week's timescale from the test
day usually explained milk traits (particularly yield and fat content) better than shorter
scale summaries. Previous studies found that weather measured prior to the test day

(up to three days before) explained test day milk traits better than weather measured 443 on the test day (Bertocchi et al., 2014, Bouraoui et al. 2002, West et al. 2003), which 444 may be associated with the duration of digestive processes in ruminants (Gauly et 445 al., 2013). The higher explanatory power of longer versus shorter timescales may 446 also reflect the greater potential for extreme weather conditions, which might have a 447 disproportionate effect on subsequent milk yield, to be captured in the analysis. The 448 pattern was less clear for protein content, with weekly, three-day and TD scales 449 performing similarly well. This suggests that weather has a more sustained impact 450 451 on milk yield and fat content than on milk protein. Although recent studies have used summaries of the three days preceding milk sampling to describe weather conditions 452 (e.g. Lambertz et al., 2014), our results suggest that weekly summaries may be more 453 appropriate, at least for milk yield and fat content. 454

455

The effects of weather (THI₂, sunshine, wind speed and precipitation) measured 456 from outdoor weather stations on milk yield depended on whether cattle were 457 indoors or outdoors on the test day. Cattle that were rotated between an indoor and 458 outdoor environment responded according to the prevailing environment and 459 produced more milk when they were indoors than outdoors. Similarly, grazing cows 460 produced less fat-corrected milk than animals without access to grazing in another 461 462 study (Lambertz *et al.*, 2014). We assume that these results are largely a consequence of differences in diet: animals maintained indoors in our study received 463 ad libitum TMR with some forage, while those outdoors ate mainly grass. TMR 464 maximises metabolisable energy (ME) and nutrient uptake in high producing cows 465 and can be obtained and digested more quickly than grass (Agnew and Yan, 2000). 466 Accordingly, many studies show an increase in milk yield with feed intake (Agnew et 467

al., 1998). Further to diet effects on relative productivity, the difference in the shapes
of the productivity curves for animals inside and outside is probably due to
differences in weather conditions experienced by cattle in the two environments.

When animals were outside they produced less milk during extremes of THI than 472 during average conditions, as predicted. Other authors have reported similar 473 declines in milk yield at low THIs or cold temperatures (Bruegemann et al., 2012, 474 Rodriguez et al., 1985). The rate of decrease in milk yield in our study was greater at 475 476 higher values of THI than at lower values, consistent with the idea that endotherms are more tolerant of low than high body temperatures (Hansen, 2009). Cows that 477 were indoors showed an overall decrease in milk yield with increasing THI 478 (measured from an outdoor weather station). In northern Europe, temperatures 479 inside cattle buildings are 3-5 °C warmer than outdoors (Seedorf et al., 1998). 480 Therefore animals indoors will be less susceptible to cold stress but may experience 481 482 higher temperatures than animals outside on the same day. Indoor temperatures are also likely to increase with stocking density, although density will be lower during the 483 summer than the winter in systems with summer grazing. It would be interesting to 484 measure microclimatic conditions inside the barn to determine how closely the 485 animals' immediate environment is associated with different weather elements, and 486 487 how microclimate influences performance. Another question worth exploring is whether a carryover effect of weather on performance exists for animals that were 488 recently moved indoors. Similarly, the effects of weather on animals outside may 489 490 depend on how long they have been outdoors.

491

Dikmen and Hansen (2009) observed a weak negative relationship between a dairy 492 cow's rectal temperature and wind speed, which together with our results on wind 493 speed and milk yield, suggests that moderate winds can alleviate losses associated 494 495 with heat stress. We observed a decline in milk production with increasing precipitation, and the decline was greater in animals outdoors than indoors. Stull et 496 al. (2008) also reported a decrease in milk yield in cattle as precipitation increased. 497 Precipitation is likely to affect an animal's thermal and energy balance due to a 498 reduction in the insulative properties of its coat after wetting and the increased 499 500 energy necessary to heat a layer of moist rather than dry air trapped within the coat. High precipitation and wind speeds can increase stress levels, thus reducing the 501 availability of energy for milk production (Webster et al., 2008). Beef cattle reduced 502 503 feed intake but increased rumination during wet weather (Graunke et al., 2011), which implies that productivity might also be reduced on rainy days in dairy cows via 504 feed intake. On the whole, milk yield decreased as the number of hours of sunshine 505 506 increased when cattle were indoors, perhaps in response to increased radiant heat from the roof. 507

508

Weather influenced milk composition as well as yield in our study. The proportion of 509 fat in milk showed a sharp decrease with increasing THI in animals outdoors, and 510 511 was lower at the upper extreme of THI than at low and intermediate THI values when cattle were indoors. Similar to milk yield, fat content was highest at moderate wind 512 speeds. Most previous studies also report a decrease in the proportion of fat in milk 513 (Bouraoui et al., 2002, Hammami et al., 2013, Smith et al., 2013) or total milk fat 514 (Lambertz et al., 2014) under conditions of heat stress or increasing temperature, 515 although others found no effect (Knapp and Grummer, 1991, Wheelock et al., 2010). 516

517 While an increase in the number of sunshine hours was associated with an increase 518 in milk yield in cows outdoors and a decrease in milk yield in cows indoors, the 519 inverse was true for fat content. More concentrated milk yields can arise where milk 520 production is reduced and fat synthesis remains constant, so one possibility is that 521 sunshine influences milk fat simply through its effects on milk yield. This could be 522 tested by evaluating the effects of sunshine on total milk fat.

523

Protein content decreased as THI increased in animals kept indoors and outdoors, 524 525 and the rate of decrease was greater when animals were outside than when they were inside. A decline in milk protein with THI was reported by several other authors 526 (e.g. Bouraoui et al., 2002, Bruegemann et al., 2012, Gantner et al., 2011, Hammami 527 et al., 2013). Our results also agree with those of Lambertz et al. (2014), who 528 reported a more marked decline in total protein yield with increasing THI in cows with 529 access to pasture than those without. The increase in milk protein content with 530 increasing wind speed when animals were outdoors was probably due to the action 531 of wind in alleviating heat stress, while an increasing level of radiant heat from 532 sunshine would have contributed to heat stress. 533

534

The points at which performance began to decline with increasing THI were lower in
our study than in previous work (e.g. Gauly *et al.*, 2013, Ravagnolo *et al.*, 2000,
Zimbelman *et al.*, 2013) for two reasons. First, ours were calculated from daily 0900
h point samples from local weather stations. Temperature values at 0900 are
probably a slight underestimation of the mean temperature over a 24h period.
Second, animals in Scotland are probably less well adapted to heat stress and are

thus likely to have lower thermal tolerances than cattle in warmer climates wheremost work was undertaken.

543

Climate change models predict that temperatures will get warmer this century, 544 leading to an increased incidence of heat stress. The statistical estimates presented 545 here can be used in conjunction with UK Climate Projections to model the economic 546 costs (or benefits) of climate change to milk yield and quality over the 21st century 547 under different emissions scenarios. Such predictions about future productivity can 548 549 be an important tool for informing policy. In addition, climate change is expected to bring further changes, such as a longer growing season, wetter soils and a higher 550 incidence of disease (Gauly et al., 2013), and these should also be considered. 551 Potential decreases in productivity may be offset through changes in farming 552 practices (adaptation), such as diet, housing or selective breeding. Future studies 553 should investigate how genetic merit influences the effects of weather on 554 performance. 555

556

557 **Conclusions**

558 Milk yield and composition were affected by extremes of THI under conditions 559 currently experienced in Scotland, and the shape of the relationship depended on 560 whether animals were inside or outside. Solar radiation also impacted productivity, 561 while moderate winds helped to alleviate heat stress. Metrics summarising weather 562 across the week preceding the test day usually explained milk traits better than 563 shorter-term summaries. A limitation to this study is that food intake and quality can 564 depend on weather, and animals consumed different diets when they were indoors

- and outdoors. However, diet and management system are associated under typical
- 566 farming practices, so this does not reduce the practical relevance of these findings.

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Table 1 Weather data collected by Meteorological Office stations near research Farms 1 (1990 to 2002) and 2 (2003 to 2011). Descriptive

692 statistics are provided for each farm, and weather between the two farms is compared using separate Generalized Least Squares models fit by

693 REML. Averages for THI₁ and THI₂, which we calculated from Meteorological Office data using Equations 1 and 2 respectively, are also given

Weather			Farm 1 (4177	daily re	cords)	Farm 2 (2896	Farm 2 (2896 daily records)			
element/index	Recording regime	Accuracy	Mean±s.e.m	Min	Мах	Mean±s.e.m	Min	Мах	t	Ρ
Precipitation (ppt)	Total over 24h (0900-	0.1mm	2.5±0.08	0	56.0	3.1±0.11	0	55.8	3.27	**
Frecipitation (ppt)	0900)									
	PS	0.1 <i>°</i> C	8.2±0.08	-13.0	22.4	9.7±0.10	-8.9	25.2	3.81	***
	Minimum over 24h (0900-	0.1 <i>°</i> C	4.6±0.07	-14.6	17.1	6.0±0.09	-13.0	18.4	10.70	***
Dry bulb	0900)									
temperature (T _{db})	Maximum over 24h (0900-	0.1 <i>°</i> C	11.5±0.08	-3.1	28.3	13.1±0.10	-4.1	30.7	9.64	***
	0900)									
Wet bulb	PS	0.1 <i>°</i> C	6.9±0.07	-13.0	19.9	8.2±0.09	-9.3	21.3	8.95	***
temperature (T_{wb})										
THI₁	See $T_{\mbox{\tiny db}}$ and $T_{\mbox{\tiny wb}}$		51.5±0.11	21.9	70.8	53.6±0.14	27.5	73.9	9.85	***
THI ₂	See T_{db} and RH		47.7±0.13	11.9	70.2	50.4±0.16	20.8	73.9	11.46	***
Grass temperature	Minimum over 24h (0900-	0.1 <i>°</i> C	2.5±0.08	-17.4	16.1	2.8±0.10	-16.0	17.5	2.47	*

(T _g)	0900)									
Soil temperature	PS, 30cm below the	0.1 <i>°</i> C	8.8±0.08	0.8	19.1	10.5±0.09	1.2	20.4	9.79	***
(T _s)	surface									
Wind speed (WS) Visibility Snow depth	0850-0900 mean, 10m	1 knot	9.4±0.12	0	44.0	5.6±0.10	0	52.0	15.60	***
	above ground									
Visibility	PS	1m	1394.1±16.78	4	4000.0	1060.4±18.29	10.0	4000.0	8.94	***
Snow depth	PS	1cm	0.3±0.03	0	25.0	0.1±0.01	0	9.0	2.48	*
	No. hours over 24h (0000-	0.1 h	3.5±0.05	0	15.4	3.8±0.07	0	14.7	1.83	0.068
Sunshine	2359); measured using									
	Campbell-Stokes recorder									
Air pressure, mean	PS	0.1 hpa	1012.5±0.20	965.1	1047.5	1013.6±0.23	962.4	1045.1	1.05	0.294
sea level (\mathbf{P}_{MSL})										
RH	PS	0.1%	83.0±0.18	26.7	100	80.7±0.22	28.1	100	6.48	***

694 Recording regime indicates whether values are point-samples (PS) taken at 0900 h or 24h summaries (mean, minimum, maximum, total).

Table 2 The best models for each weather element or index for milk yield, fat content and protein content based on an information-theoretic

	Milk y	ield	Fat co	ontent	Protein content			
Weather element	Rank	Unique term in best model	Rank	Unique term in best model	Rank	Unique term in best model		
T _s	а	TD × m	а	Weekly mean × m	е	TD × m†		
THI ₂	b	Weekly mean × m	b	Weekly mean × m	cd	3 day mean × m†		
T _{db}	С	Weekly mean × m	b	Weekly mean × m	d	TD†		
THI₁	d	Weekly mean × m	b	Weekly mean × m	de	TD†		
T _{wb}	е	Weekly mean × m	С	Weekly mean × m	е	TD†		
T _g	f	Weekly min × m	d	Weekly min × m	С	3 day min × m		
sun	g	Weekly max × m	е	Weekly min × m†	b	Weekly max × m†		
RH	h	Weekly mean × m	е	TD × m†	С	Weekly mean × m†		
visibility	i	Weekly mean × m	f	Weekly mean × m	g	Weekly mean × m		
WS	j	Weekly mean × m	g	TD†	а	Weekly mean × m		
P _{MSL}	k	Weekly mean × m	gh	Weekly mean × m†	f	3 day mean × m†		
ppt	I	Weekly max × m	hi	3 day max × m†	g	Weekly mean × m†		
snow	m	Weekly mean × m	i	TD presence/absence†	h	TD-1 presence/absence†		

696 C	comparison of 521 Maximum Likelihood n	nodels per response variable (Supplementary	/ Table S2 shows the full set of models compared)
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All 521 models were based on Equation 3 and a single dataset of 659918 records (1357 individuals) for milk yield or 77178 records (1212 individuals) for fat and protein content. Each model differed from the others in a single weather metric, the presence or absence of the weather metric × management interaction (indicated by × m) or order of polynomial term for the weather metric. Polynomial terms and AlC values are given in Supplementary Table S3. Models are ranked from best to worst (lowest to highest AIC) for each weather element or index (see Table 1 for abbreviations); 'a' represents the highest rank, and different lower case letters indicate meaningful differences (≥7 AIC units) in rank. † indicates that more than one model had equal support for a given weather variable; equally ranked models are listed in Supplementary Table S3. TD (test day) is the day that the cow was milked; TD-1 is the day before milking.

704 **Table 3** *LMMs to test the effect of weather and prevailing management group (indoors or outdoors) on milk yield in 1362 Holstein Friesian cows*

Fixed effects	Milk yie	ld (kg)			Fat (%)				Protein	(%)		
	β	SE	t	Ρ	β	SE	t	Ρ	β	SE	t	Ρ
Intercept	04 770	0.005	00.44	***	0.010	0.000	100.10	***	0.445	0.010	0.40,00	0.001
THI ₂	24.770	0.265	93.44	***	3.919	0.030	132.13	***	3.115	0.013	243.38	<0.001
THI ₂ (^2)	0.042	0.006	6.80	***	-0.005	0.002	-2.85	**	-0.001	0.001	-1.56	0.120
THI ₂ (^3)	0.015	0.001	20.48	***	-0.001	<0.001	-6.12	***	<0.001	<0.001	-0.39	0.696
THI ₂ (^4)	<0.001	<0.001	-1.53	0.127	<0.001	<0.001	-1.90	0.058	<0.001	<0.001	-1.55	0.122
	<0.001	<0.001	-9.83	***	<0.001	<0.001	2.14	*	<0.001	<0.001	-0.09	0.928
ppt	-0.008	0.003	-2.92	**	-0.001	0.001	-1.53	0.127	0.001	0.001	1.05	0.296
Sun	-0.049	0.015	-3.22	**	0.040	0.020	2.01	*	-0.007	0.001	-5.65	***
Sun (^2)	0.029	0.005	5.77	***	-0.015	0.014	-1.09	0.277	-0.001	<0.001	-2.61	**
Sun (^3)	<0.001	<0.001	1.07	0.284	0.002	0.002	1.14	0.256	<0.001	<0.001	-0.53	0.595
Sun (^4)	<0.001	<0.001	-4.13	***	<0.001	0.001	0.47	0.638	<0.001	<0.001	-0.54	0.587
WS	0.085	0.013	6.78	***	0.009	0.002	3.79	***	0.002	0.002	1.30	0.195
WS (^2)				***				0.040				
WS (^3)	-0.014	0.002	-8.53		<0.001	<0.001	0.20	0.840	<0.001		0.02	0.985
	0.001	<0.001	1.46	0.146	<0.001	<0.001	-2.53	*	<0.001	<0.001	-0.15	0.881

705 (752674 records), fat content in 1220 cows (85134 records) and protein content in 1220 cows (87446 records) between the years 1990-2011

WS (^4)												
Diet group (LF)	<0.001	<0.001	0.52	0.606	<0.001	<0.001	3.30	**	<0.001	<0.001	-0.09	0.931
	1.852	0.033	55.79	***	-0.306	0.012	-25.14	***	0.052	0.004	13.84	***
Genetic group (S)	4.440	0.309	14.36	***	0.091	0.028	3.28	**	0.073	0.012	6.17	***
Farm (1)	0.774	0.119	6.49	***	0.304	0.028	11.02	***	0.093	0.013	7.22	***
Management (out)				***				**				*
Lactation number (^2)	-0.714	0.030	-23.54		-0.027	0.009	-2.91		0.009	0.004	2.27	
Lactation number (^3)	4.985	0.016	308.06	***	0.023	0.004	5.18	***	0.033	0.002	17.04	***
	-1.320	0.010	-126.56	***	0.005	0.003	1.72	0.086	-0.026	0.001	-19.43	***
Days in milk	-0.041	<0.001	-512.92	***	0.001	<0.001	41.74	***	0.002	<0.001	151.37	***
Days in milk (^2)	<0.001	<0.001	-89.74	***	<0.001	<0.001	66.50	***	<0.001	<0.001	63.15	***
Management × THI_2												
Management × THI ₂ (^2)	0.021	0.004	5.20	***	-0.014	0.001	-9.70	***	0.002	0.001	2.16	*
	-0.020	0.001	-40.32	***	<0.001	<0.001	1.21	0.228	<0.001	<0.001	0.26	0.795
Management × THI ₂ (^3)	<0.001	<0.001	-9.68	***	<0.001	<0.001	3.04	**	<0.001	<0.001	-3.07	**
Management × THI ₂ (^4)	<0.001	<0.001	15.92	***	<0.001	<0.001	-1.78	0.076	<0.001	<0.001	2.53	*
Management × ppt				***								***
Management × sun	-0.020	0.002	-13.32		0.001	0.001	1.60	0.110	0.003	0.001	4.04	
Management × sun (^2)	0.249	0.009	27.21	***	-0.057	0.011	-5.39	***	0.001	0.001	0.82	0.411
	-0.036	0.003	-11.43	***	0.027	0.007	3.89	***	<0.001	<0.001	0.07	0.947
Management × sun (^3)	-0.004	<0.001	-14.63	***	-0.003	0.001	-4.02	***	<0.001	<0.001	-0.80	0.427

Management × sun (^4)												
	0.001	<0.001	8.65	***	<0.001	0.001	-0.88	0.377	<0.001	<0.001	-1.59	0.111
Management × WS	0.015	0.007	2.13	*	-0.001	0.001	-1.52	0.128	-0.016	0.001	-15.06	***
Management × WS (^2)	0.015	0.007	2.15		-0.001	0.001	-1.52	0.120	-0.010	0.001	-15.00	
	-0.005	0.001	-4.91	***	<0.001	<0.001	-0.56	0.577	<0.001	<0.001	-0.34	0.735
Management × WS (^3)												
	0.001	<0.001	3.08	**	<0.001	<0.001	-0.14	0.888	<0.001	<0.001	5.10	***
Management × WS (^4)	<0.001	<0.001	-3.39	***	<0.001	<0.001	0.76	0.445	<0.001	<0.001	-4.62	***
Diet group × genetic group	<0.001	20.001	0.00		10.001	20.001	0.70	0.110	<0.001	<0.001	1.02	
	0.557	0.039	14.11	***	0.101	0.015	6.96	***	0.011	0.006	1.74	0.082
Random intercepts	%σ				%σ				%σ			
Animal identity												
Animandentity	55.4				48.2				46.3			
Ordinal calving date												
-	7.9				1.3				4.9			
Test date	5.4				8.9				10.6			
Residual variance	5.4				0.9				10.0			
	31.3				41.5				38.2			

Linear, quadratic (^2), cubic (^3) and quartic (^4) effects were tested for where indicated. Non-significant effects that were not components of

significant interactions were removed from the final models; their estimates are italicised. WS is wind speed and ppt is precipitation

708 **Table 4** Means ± standard errors (s.e.m) with the numbers of records and unique individuals for milk yield and fat and protein content.

709 Significant differences between levels are indicated in Table 3

			ield (kg)		Fat co	ntent (%)		Protein content (%)						
		mean	s.e.m	records	cows	mean	s.e.m	records	cows	mean	s.e.m	records		
Diet group	HF	23.8	0.17	435074	1026	4.2	0.02	45592	865	3.3	0.01	46865		
	LF	29.4	0.24	317600	923	3. 9	0.02	39542	707	3.3	0.01	40582		
Genetic group	S	29.2	0.22	412594	742	4.1	0.02	44338	654	3.3	0.01	45418		
	С	24.8	0.25	340080	620	3.9	0.02	40796	566	3.2	0.01	42418		
Prevailing management	in	28.8	0.18	499575	1346	4.0	0.02	58625	1192	3.2	0.01	60131		
	out	22.2	0.17	253099	971	4.2	0.02	26509	836	3.3	0.01	27315		
Farm	1	25.5	0.27	421620	742	4.2	0.03	40025	601	3.2	0.01	39993		
	2	24.8	0.27	331054	667	3.9	0.03	45109	664	3.1	0.01	47453		
Lactation no.	1	20.7	0.27	327348	1300	4.0	0.03	38503	1145	3.1	0.01	39480		
	2	25.9	0.27	244721	985	4.1	0.03	27273	855	3.2	0.01	28088		
	3	27.8	0.26	180605	723	4.1	0.03	19358	606	3.2	0.01	19878		
Overall		27.2	0.17	752674	1362	4.0	0.02	85134	1220	3.2	0.01	87446		

710 The number of animals used for analyses of protein content was the same as for analyses of fat content

Figure 1 The effect of i) THI, ii) wind speed ('WS') and iii) sunshine on a) daily milk yield (N = 752674 records from 1362 cows), b) milk fat (N = 85134 records from 1220 cows) and c) milk protein (N = 87446 records from 1220 cows) in a herd of dairy cattle on two research farms in Scotland depended on whether the animals were indoors (thin unbroken line) or outdoors (thick line), except where both groups of cattle are represented by a single broken line. Weather values were recorded from the closest outdoor weather station to each farm for each element. All plots are adjusted for the terms in Equation 3, and statistical estimates for the effects presented here are provided in Table 3. Note that plots are truncated to exclude the highest and lowest 0.5% of weather records due to small samples for extreme weather events.