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Scotland's Rural College

#### Temperament and dominance relate to feeding behaviour and activity in beef cattle: implications for performance and methane emissions

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| 1  | Temperament and dominance relate to feeding behaviour and activity in beef  |
|----|---|
| 2  | cattle: implications for performance and methane emissions  |
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| 16 | Short title: Behaviour alter performance and methane in cattle  |
| 17 |   |
| 18 | Abstract  |
| 19 | In beef cattle, feeding behaviour and activity are associated with feed efficiency and  |
| 20 | methane $(CH_4)$ emissions. This study aimed to understand the underlying traits  |
| 21 | responsible for the contribution of cattle behaviour to individual differences in feed  |
| 22 | efficiency, performance and $CH_4$ emissions. Eighty-four steers (530±114 kg body   |
| 23 | weight) of two different breeds (crossbreed Charolais and Luing) were used. The   |
| 24 | experiment was a 2x2x3 factorial design with breed, basal diets (concentrate vs.  |
| 25 | mixed) and dietary treatments (no additive, calcium nitrate, or rapeseed cake) as the   |

main factors. The individual dry matter intake (DMI; kg) was recorded daily and the 26 body weight was measured weekly over a 56-day period. Ultrasound fat depth was 27 measured on day 56. Based on the previous data, the indexes average daily gain, 28 food conversion and residual feed intake (RFI) were calculated. The frequency of 29 meals, the duration per visit and the time spent feeding per day were taken as 30 feeding behaviour measures. Daily activity was measured using the number of steps, 31 the number of standing bouts and the time standing per day. Agonistic interactions 32 (including the number of contacts, aggressive interactions, and displacements per 33 34 day) between steers at the feeders were assessed as indicators of dominance. Temperament was assessed using the crush score test (which measures 35 restlessness when restrained) and the flight speed on release from restraint. 36 Statistical analysis was performed using multivariate regression models. Steers that 37 spent more time eating showed better feed efficiency (P=0.039), which can be due to 38 greater secretion of saliva. Feeding time was longer with the mixed diet (P<0.001), 39 40 Luings (P=0.009) and dominant steers (P=0.032). Higher activity (more steps) in the pen was associated with poorer RFI, possibly because of higher energy expenditure 41 for muscle activity. Frequent meals contributed to a reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per 42 kg DMI. The meal frequency was higher with a mixed diet (P<0.001) and increased 43 in more temperamental (P=0.003) and dominant (P=0.017) steers. In addition, feed 44 intake was lower (P=0.032) in more temperamental steers. This study reveals that 45 efficiency increases with a longer feeding time and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions decrease with 46 more frequent meals. As dominant steers eat more frequently and for longer, a 47 reduction in competition at the feeder would improve both feed efficiency and CH<sub>4</sub> 48 emissions. Feed efficiency can also be improved through a reduction in activity. 49

Selection for calmer cattle would reduce activity and increase feed intake, which may
 improve feed efficiency and promote growth, respectively.

52

#### 53 Keywords

54 Livestock, Greenhouse gas emissions, Growth, Mitigation, Social behaviour

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#### 56 Implications

Reducing methane emissions and increasing the production efficiency are key goals 57 58 to make livestock production sustainable. At an animal level, these can be accomplished through changes in feeding behaviour and activity of cattle. We found 59 that a reduction of cattle dominance and temperament can work as strategies to 60 manipulate feeding behaviour and activity towards more sustainable livestock. Herd 61 management for reducing feeding competence will promote longer and more 62 frequent meals benefiting feed efficiency and methane emissions. In turn, breeding 63 for calmer cattle can have two effects, reducing activity which benefits efficiency and 64 increase feed intake promoting growth. 65

66

#### 67 Introduction

Livestock are an important contributor to anthropogenic greenhouse gas (**GHG**) emissions. Enteric fermentation from non-dairy cattle accounted for 21% of the total emissions from agriculture in the period between 2002 and 2012 (FAOSTAT, 2014). The main GHG emitted by cattle is methane (**CH**<sub>4</sub>) which has a warming potential 25 times higher than carbon dioxide.

Feed efficiency and growth performance have repeatedly been found to be
associated with feeding behaviour in beef cattle (Nkrumah *et al.*, 2007; Kelly *et al.*,

75 2010). For example, a longer feeding time (Schwartzkopf-Genswein *et al.*, 2002) and 76 more frequent feeding bouts (Schwartzkopf-Genswein *et al.*, 2011) are associated 77 with higher productivity (average daily gain) in feedlot cattle, and a better feed 78 efficiency (**FCR**). However, it is less clear how feeding behaviour affects efficiency 79 for different breeds and diets.

Physical activity can influence total energy expenditure and feed efficiency (Susenbeth *et al.*, 1998; Herd *et al.*, 2004). According to different studies reviewed by Herd *et al.* (2008), beef cattle that are more efficient may engage in less daily activity which may have evolved as a mechanism to minimise energy expenditure. However, there are no studies on how differences in feeding behaviour and activity in the pen affects  $CH_4$  emissions in beef cattle.

Feeding behaviour and activity are determined by dominance and temperament. For 86 instance, a dominant animal would be able to access resources as it wished, 87 whereas a subordinate might have to adapt to dominant group member preferences. 88 Temperament reflects repeatable between-individual differences in behavioural 89 responses to a challenging situation. Excitable temperaments measured during 90 routine handling have been associated with higher activity in undisturbed group pens 91 of beef cattle (MacKay et al., 2013). Cafe et al. (2011) found that excitable steers 92 (castrated males) showed shorter feeding bouts and lower feed intake when kept in 93 94 groups. These behavioural differences could contribute to the improved growth and feed efficiency in calmer beef cattle found previously (Voisinet et al., 1997; Turner et 95 al., 2011). This study aimed at understanding the contribution of cattle behaviour to 96 individual differences in feed efficiency, performance and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Therefore, 97 we investigated the association between feeding behaviour and activity with feed 98

99 efficiency and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and whether this can be predicted by temperament
100 and dominance in beef cattle.

101

#### 102 Materials and methods

#### 103 Animals and experimental design

This experiment was part of a larger project to investigate the effect of cattle breed types, concentrate/fibre ratio and dietary  $CH_4$  mitigation strategies on performance, efficiency and  $CH_4$  (Duthie *et al.* 2015; Troy *et al.* 2015).

107 The experiment followed a 2 x 2 x 3 factorial design, with two breeds of cattle, two basal diets and three dietary additive treatments. Eighty-four castrated male beef 108 cattle (steers) (Charolais-sired (CHx) n=42; Luing n=42) of 530±114 kg body weight 109 110 were housed at the SRUC Beef Research Centre. Steers were allocated to one of 6 pens of 72 m<sup>2</sup> each, with 14 steers per pen balanced for breed (an equal number of 111 CHx and Luing), sire and live weight (BW). Pens were provided with saw dust 112 bedding, ad libitum access to a water trough and were equipped with automated 113 feeding stations (HOKO feeders, INSENTEC B.V., Markenesse, The Netherlands; 114 Supplementary Figure S1) providing ad libitum access to feed. The number of HOKO 115 feeders within each pen was either five feeders (four of the pens) or six feeders (two 116 of the pens). Feeders were filled once a day using a forage wagon with a diet that 117 consisted of either 52:48 (Mixed) or 8:92 (Concentrate) forage:concentrate ratio (%, 118 dry matter basis) with no additive (Control), calcium nitrate or rapeseed cake as 119 dietary treatments. The composition of the diets and the distribution of diets and 120 121 additives according to pen can be found in Duthie et al. (2015).

Steers were either born and raised at SRUC Beef Research Centre or purchased from Scottish farms during the summer of 2013 and were given eight weeks to adapt

to the facilities and feeding system before the beginning of the experiment. The last 124 four weeks of that period doses of additives were gradually increased to allow steers 125 adapt to dietary treatments. On arrival the steers were fed a standard finishing diet 126 for eight weeks before the experiment started. Subsequently, recordings of feed 127 intake, BW and fat depth were taken over 56 days (referred ahead as 56-day test) to 128 assess the residual feed intake (**RFI**). RFI is a feed efficiency measure calculated as 129 the difference between the actual and predicted feed intake required for the level of 130 production achieved (Basarab et al., 2003). Methane emitted by the steers at the 131 132 feeders was assessed on a daily basis. Steers were recorded during 56-day test using two cameras per pen. The cameras covered the complete space available to 133 the steers. 134

The temperament of the steers was recorded three times throughout the 56-day test by observation of their behavioural response to handling associated with routine weighing.

138 All variables assessed are represented in Figure 1 according to the day of 139 measurement along the 56-day period.

140

#### 141 Residual feed intake estimation

The automatic feeders recorded the weight of feed consumed during each feeding event 24 h a day for each steer from which the dry matter intake (**DMI**) was calculated. Steers were weighed weekly from the beginning until the end of the RFI assessment period. Fat depth at the 12<sup>th</sup> -13<sup>th</sup> rib intercostal space was measured ultrasonically (Aloka 500 machine, BCF technology Ltd, Scotland, UK) at the end (between d 57 and 58) of the RFI assessment period. Growth was modelled by linear regression of BW against test date to describe ADG, and metabolic live weight at

mid test (MLW) was calculated as BW\*0.75. Feed conversion ratio (FCR)
corresponds to the average DMI (kg/ day) /average daily gain (ADG). Following
Duthie *et al.* (2015), RFI was calculated as the deviation in actual DMI (kg/day) from
predicted DMI based on linear regression of actual DMI on ADG, MBW and FD.

153

#### 154 Measurement of methane emissions

During the 56-day RFI measurement period, individual enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were measured using gas sampling hoods located over the HOKO feeders. As described in Troy et al., 2016, the system consists of two head hoods with two large vacuum pumps used to evacuate air from the hoods that pumped the sampled air into an instrumentation cabinet that housed the gas analyser.

The respiration gas was sampled each day of the whole experiment when the steers were feeding and visits shorter than one min were not taken into account for  $CH_4$ sampling as there was insufficient time to allow the gas analyser to equilibrate.

163

#### 164 Behavioural assessments

Feeding behaviour. Feeding behaviour was monitored automatically during the RFI 165 period using the HOKO feeders which recorded every time each steer entered the 166 feeder providing the number and the duration of feeding events per steer per day. 167 The feeders measured the weight of feed consumed during each visit. Feeding 168 events were then refined by eliminating visits in which no feed was consumed and 169 those shorter than 1 min in duration. The daily feed intake was divided by the 170 percentage of DM of the diet to calculate the DMI. The average number of feeding 171 events per day (*nFeed\_bout*), the duration per visit (*bout\_length*) and the total time 172 spent feeding per day (*dFeed\_time*) were calculated. Data from days on which the 173

steers were weighed were excluded due to the risk that weighing could disrupt feeding patterns. Due to the risk that weighing could disrupt feed intake patterns, data from days on which the steers were weighed were excluded from the data analysis.

178

Activity. Activity was assessed by fitting every steer with an IceTag® sensor 179 (IceRobotics Ltd, Edinburgh, UK; Supplementary Figure S2) which remotely and 180 continuously measured activity. As described by MacKay et al. (2013), IceTags are 181 182 triaxial accelerometers that function predominantly as pedometers when attached to the leg of a steer, providing the orientation of the device 16 times per second. This 183 data was used to calculate the percentage of time that the steer was standing 184 (Standing), a count of the number of standing bouts (*nStdBout*) and the number of 185 steps (*nSteps*) per day using criteria presented in Tolkamp *et al.* (2011). The Motion 186 Index, as an indicator of the overall activity of the steer, was calculated using the 187 average magnitude of acceleration on each of the 3 axes (Kokin et al., 2014). The 188 IceTags were attached on a hind leg, between the hock and fetlock joints for two 189 periods of 28 consecutive days. Two periods were required to allow data to be 190 downloaded and Icetags to be reformatted for further use. The first period occurred 191 from week 1 until week 5 of the RFI period and the second period started on week 6 192 193 and finished one week after the end of the RFI period. Data from the day on which the IceTags were fitted and removed were discarded since they did not represent the 194 data for a full day and included locomotion during handling. 195

196

197 *Dominance.* Dominance was assessed *a posteriori* from the recorded images using 198 Observer XT 11.5 software (Noldus, Wageningen, The Netherlands). The analysis

199 was based upon an adapted ethogram from MacKay et al. (2013) assessing agonistic interactions between steers at the HOKO bin feeders in the home pen. As 200 the number of feeders was lower than the number of steers, they often engaged in 201 202 agonistic interactions to displace others in order to access the feed. Fresh feed was added every morning (approximately at 8:00 h AM) and observations were made 203 thereafter. During pilot observations in the current study little interaction was 204 observed after 1.5 hours following food provision, so samples of 90 minutes were 205 used. Behaviour was recorded on two consecutive days a week (Tuesday and 206 207 Wednesday) on weeks 1, 3, 5 and 7 of the 8-week RFI trial. These days were selected as they involved the least disturbance of the steers for routine procedures. 208 All observations were performed by a single observer. 209

210 For each observation, the date of the observation, time of the interaction, behaviour of the aggressor, and identity of the aggressor and recipient were recorded. The 211 variables measured were the number of events involving physical contact 212 (Cont Total), number of aggressive interactions (Aggr Total) and number of 213 displacements (*Displ\_Total*) as defined by MacKay et al. (2013). The aggression 214 index (Aggr Ind) provided information on the proportion of interactions in which the 215 steer acted as an aggressor (index values close to 1 indicated that the steer was 216 more often the aggressor than recipient). The displacement index (Displ\_Ind) 217 218 summarised the proportion of displacements that the steer initiated relative to all displacements it was involved in, giving a general impression of social status 219 (Galindo and Broom, 2002). 220

221

222 *Temperament assessment.* Temperament was assessed by performing a crush 223 score (**CS**) and a flight speed (**FS**) test, as described by Turner *et al.* (2011), both

undertaken during routine weighing in a chute (i.e. crush) on three occasions (day 8, 224 22 and 43 of the RFI assessment period). Steers were moved in groups from their 225 home pen to a holding pen that led to a semi-circular single-file race and then the 226 crush. Each steer was confined in the crush with its head secured in the bail. CS of 227 the steer was monitored based on signs of restlessness on a six point scale for 10 s 228 providing a categorical behavioural score based upon the reaction to being 229 restrained (Turner et al., 2011). Steers that struggled the most violently received a 230 high score. The weight was recorded and the steer was released directly into a 231 232 straight race. In the race, a digital flight speed meter consisting of two motion sensors (located 1m and 5m from the crush exit) recorded the time taken to travel 233 the intervening 4m as a measure of the FS (m/s). CS and FS were recorded on each 234 of the 3 test days. 235

236

#### 237 Statistical analysis

Analyses were carried out with the Statistical Analysis System version 9.4 (SAS
Software; SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC, USA; 2002–2008). Variables were checked
for normality using Kruskal-Wallis tests.

Initially, a Pearson's correlation (Proc Corr) matrix was created between explicative 241 variables of the same behaviour group, for example temperament and dominance 242 variables that explain feeding behaviour and activity models and at the same time 243 activity and feeding behaviour variables that explain the performance and CH<sub>4</sub> 244 models. This sought to identify measures that provided similar information and those 245 that required separate inclusion in multivariate models. Subsequently, the effect of 246 temperament and dominance (both the raw and index traits) on feeding behaviour 247 and activity was calculated by analysis of variance using linear mixed models (Proc 248

Mixed) firstly by univariate models and thereafter by multivariate models. Similarly, 249 the impact of feeding behaviour and activity on CH<sub>4</sub> and performance was assessed 250 using Proc Mixed. For every outcome variable (performance, CH<sub>4</sub>, feeding behaviour 251 and activity) 'diet' and 'breed' were used as explanatory variables and 'pen' as a 252 random effect. Dietary treatment (Control, Nitrate, Rapeseed cake) had no effect on 253 feeding behaviour, temperament, activity and dominance, therefore it was not 254 included in the model. In the univariate models, the association of feeding behaviour 255 and activity with performance and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions was assessed using each of the 256 257 variables. The same procedure was undertaken to assess the association of temperament and dominance with feeding behaviour and activity. Each individual 258 variable that showed a P-value lower than 0.25 became a candidate for the 259 multivariate model. The candidate variables were then added into the multivariate 260 model in a stepwise fashion. If two of the selected traits were highly correlated (r 261 >0.9) a selection was made to remove one from the analyses. The retained trait was 262 that which showed the least correlation with other traits, therefore maximising 263 independence relative to other traits. Candidate variables were kept in the model 264 with significance of P<0.05. When candidate variables showed significant effects the 265 rate of each component of variation was calculated using REML (restricted maximum 266 likelihood). Statistical significance was assumed at P  $\leq$  0.05 and tendencies at P  $\leq$ 267 0.1 for all analyses. 268

269

#### 270 **Results**

271 Association of feeding behaviour and activity with performance and methane 272 emissions

The effects of basal diet, breed and additives on performance and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions 273 were reported in Duthie et al. (2015) and Troy et al. (2015), respectively. The main 274 results found were that steers fed with a concentrate diet ate less (DMI) (P < 0.001), 275 were more efficient (lower RFI) (P < 0.01) and produced less CH<sub>4</sub> (g/kg DMI) than 276 those fed with a mixed diet (P < 0.001). Also, steers fed the mixed diet produced 277 17% less CH<sub>4</sub> (g/kg DMI) when nitrate was added (P < 0.01). CHx steers had lower 278 DMI (kg BW; P < 0.01), greater ADG (P < 0.01) and were more efficient (lower RFI; 279 P < 0.01) than Luing steers. No effect of dietary additives was found in any of the 280 281 performance traits.

Table 1 provides mean values for feeding behaviour and activity for the two breeds 282 and diets. The models that best explained the influence of feeding behaviour and 283 activity on performance and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions are shown in Table 2. FCR showed a 284 non-parametric distribution and was transformed using logarithm base 10. Neither 285 feeding behaviour nor activity had a significant impact on DMI, ADG or FCR. 286 Feeding behaviour determined RFI by the interaction between diet\*dFeed time 287 suggesting that steers fed a mixed diet were more efficient (decreased RFI) when 288 the time spent feeding was higher (P = 0.039) but no effect was detected in 289 concentrate-fed steers. There was also a tendency for lower RFI in steers that were 290 less active, as shown by taking fewer *nSteps* (P = 0.071). Methane emissions (g /kg 291 DMI) were lower in steers that ate more frequently (*nFeed\_bouts*) (P = 0.041) and 292 spent a shorter time standing (P = 0.037). 293

294

295 Association between temperament and dominance with feeding behaviour

Table 1 provides mean values for feeding behaviour, dominance and temperament for each breed. The number of feeders in each pen did not affect feeding or social

behaviour. In addition, there was no difference between breeds in their temperament 298 and temperament was not affected by diet. Table 3 shows the models that describe 299 the effect of diet, breed, temperament and dominance on feeding behaviour. Mixed 300 301 fed and calmer steers ingested more DMI as indicated by the negative association between DMI and diet (P = 0.001) and AvgeFS (P = 0.0319). The frequency of feed 302 bunk visits (*nFeed\_bouts*) was influenced by diet, temperament and dominance. 303 Steers fed a forage diet (P<0.0001) and those that were temperamental (AvgeFS; P 304 = 0.0026) and dominant (*Displ Tot*; P = 0.0207) visited the feeder more often. 305 Feeding bout length (*bout\_length*) was influenced by breed, temperament (*AvgeFS*) 306 and dominance (*Displ Tot*). CHx steers (P = 0.0497), those with poorer 307 temperament (AvgeFS; P = 0.0397) and greater dominance ( $Displ_Tot$ ; P = 0.0002) 308 had shorter feeding bouts. Total feeding time (dFeed\_time) was determined by diet 309 (P = 0.0001), breed (P = 0.0067) and dominance  $(Displ_Index; P = 0.0299)$  and was 310 lower in CHx steers those fed with a concentrate diet and in subordinate steers. 311

312

#### 313 Association of temperament and dominance with activity

The models that explain the effect of diet, breed, temperament and dominance on activity are shown in Table 4. Breed affected *Standing* (P < 0.001) and *nSteps* (P =0.0110), indicating that CHx steers stood for a shorter period but had a higher number of steps. The number of standing bouts (*nStdBout*) was affected by *AvgeCS* (P = 0.0005) meaning that more temperamental steers had more frequent standing bouts. No other associations between temperament, dominance and activity were found.

321

#### 322 **Discussion**

The main aim of the study was to assess the effects of feeding behaviour and activity 323 on performance, feed efficiency and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Research on beef cattle have 324 indicated the capacity of temperament (Nkrumah et al., 2007) and dominance 325 326 (Gonzalez et al., 2008) to affect feeding behaviour and activity patterns, this association was also assessed to understand the underlying traits that drive 327 variations in productivity and CH<sub>4</sub>. Understanding the associations between these 328 traits might constitute the basis for designing breeding, handling and management 329 strategies to improve efficiency and mitigate GHG emissions in beef cattle. The 330 331 results show that feed efficiency (RFI) was not influenced by feeding behaviour and activity (except in interaction with diet type) but that CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (g /kg DMI) were 332 lower when steers ate more frequently and spent less time standing. Feeding 333 behaviour itself was influenced by temperament and dominance whereby 334 temperamental and dominant steers ate more frequently but in shorter bouts. For 335 temperamental steers, this reduced their daily DMI whilst for dominant steers it 336 337 increased their total daily feeding time. Activity was unaffected by dominance but temperamental steers had more frequent standing bouts. The analysis accounted 338 also for the breed, diet and use of dietary additives which offers the possibility to 339 understand the effect of feeding behaviour and activity on performance and CH<sub>4</sub> 340 emissions in a selected range of diets and breeds that are commercially relevant. 341

342

343 Effect of feeding behaviour and activity on growth performance and methane 344 emissions

In the current study, feeding behaviour largely had no effect on DMI or ADG, contrasting with several studies reporting a significant association. Assessing DMI, Nkrumah *et al.* (2007) have reported that a high feeding duration is correlated with

high feed intake for time spent at the feeder and time consuming feed, (r=0.27 and 348 0.33, respectively). Regarding growth, Schwartzkopf-Genswein et al., (2002) 349 reported a positive correlation (r=0.38) between bunk attendance duration and ADG, 350 351 which were similar to what Hicks et al. already stated in 1989. Nkrumah et al. (2007) found that the number of visits to the feeder and feeding bout duration correlated 352 with ADG (r=0.25 and 0.18 respectively). These associations could not be confirmed 353 in this study suggesting that individual attributes of feeding behaviour were poor 354 predictors of DMI and ADG in this population. The reason for the discrepancy with 355 356 the mentioned studies is unclear. However, we hypothesise that the way data was analysed might have had an effect. For instance, both Schwartzkopf-Genswein et al., 357 (2002) and Nkrumah et al. (2007) used Pearson correlations to assess associations 358 whereas in our study multivariate ANOVA models were used accounting for several 359 factors such as breed, diet, weight or pen, which might have restricted the 360 association likelihood estimation between explained and explanatory variables. 361

Feed efficiency was assessed in this study using two different measures: FCR and 362 RFI. Traditionally, feed efficiency has been expressed as the ratio of feed intake to 363 BW gain (FCR). We did not find any effect of activity and feeding behaviour on FCR 364 but only a breed and MLW effect. RFI has been suggested to be a better estimate of 365 feed efficiency as it is independent of growth and body size (Crews, 2005). The 366 association between RFI and feeding time in the mixed diet fed steers shows that 367 steers that spent a longer time eating the less nutrient-dense diet made more 368 efficient use of the feed. An increased daily time spent eating may increase total 369 salivary secretion (Beauchemin et al., 2008). Saliva modulates rumen pH, which 370 usually is beneficial for rumen fermentation (Owens et al., 1998) and likely improving 371 digestion of the nutrients. In addition, an increase in the time spent eating can be a 372

consequence of a reduction in intake rate (g/min). It is likely that the accessibility of 373 fibrolytic microbiota to feed will increase if the intake rate is low and meals are 374 frequent rather than if feeding occurs rapidly in large bouts. Increased saliva 375 376 production can be a consequence of higher ruminating times (González et al., 2012). Forage-based diets stimulate a greater time spent ruminating per day and per unit of 377 intake compared to diets with higher concentrate proportion (Faleiro et al., 2011). 378 This may be the reason why the effect of feeding time on feed efficiency is more 379 evident with fibrous compared to concentrate-based diets. 380

There was a tendency (P = 0.071) for greater activity (more frequent steps) to be 381 associated with poorer feed efficiency (RFI). This finding agrees with other studies. 382 Herd et al. (2004) attributed a 5% contribution of activity to the total variation in RFI 383 384 found between cattle lines divergently selected for high and low RFI. Richardson et al. (1999) reported that the variation in RFI explained by daily pedometer count could 385 reach up to 10%. Breeding or managing steers in such a way that they show 386 387 diminished activity and energy depletion may be effective in improving feed efficiency. 388

This experiment also investigated the possible effect of feeding behaviour and 389 activity on enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Respiration chambers, the gold-standard 390 approach for CH<sub>4</sub> assessment, require the isolation of a steer, which affects feed 391 392 intake (Llonch et al., 2016b) and possibly feeding behaviour and activity. The hoods fitted above the feeders in the home pen, which have been shown to robustly 393 measure CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in group-housed steers (Troy et al., 2016), were regarded 394 as the preferable method to study the association of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions with feeding 395 behaviour and activity. 396

The results of the current study show that steers with frequent feeding bouts 397 (*nFeed\_bouts*) emitted less CH<sub>4</sub>. One could hypothesise that this association is due 398 to changes in rumen retention time and digestibility. The association between DMI, 399 400 retention time and feed digestibility has been confirmed by several studies (Colucci et al., 1982; Shaver et al., 1986; DeVries and von Keyserlingk, 2009). In 1988, 401 Ørskov et al., reported that variation in ruminal retention time among cattle might be 402 explained by differences in DMI but also by differences in feeding behaviour. In this 403 sense, it could be argued that a steer showing highly distributed feeding patterns will 404 405 improve the digestion of feed and increase the production of CH<sub>4</sub>, however the results of this study show the opposite. 406

An explanation for the apparently beneficial effect of frequent feeding visits on CH<sub>4</sub> 407 408 emissions could result from the way that CH<sub>4</sub> was sampled in this study. Enteric CH<sub>4</sub> is mostly exhaled during respiration; therefore, less frequent but longer feeding bouts 409 would allow a greater level of CH<sub>4</sub> to accumulate. On the contrary, steers that visited 410 411 the feeder more frequently but for shorter visits may have performed much of their chewing and rumination out of the feeder. However, as our analysis found no 412 relationship between *bout\_length* and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, the impact of this artefact may 413 not have been great. Alternatively, increased activity around the pen could also 414 facilitate gas distribution within the rumen, easing rumen gas exhalation in more 415 416 active steers.

417

The results also revealed that steers that spent the longest time standing emitted more  $CH_4$ . In turn to the association between activity and feed efficiency we hypothesise that activity might influence, or be influenced by, feeding behaviour. For instance, the association between higher  $CH_4$  emissions and a greater standing time

could potentially result from more time spent at the feeder, which is actually where 422 the CH<sub>4</sub> was monitored in this experiment. In a study conducted with respiration 423 chambers, Nkrumah et al. (2006) found a positive relationship between feeding time 424 425 and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Using a laser detector, Chagunda et al. (2013) found that during feeding, cows produced a 34% more, measured in ppm, CH<sub>4</sub> than when idle. In our 426 study we found an association between feeding visits and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Thus it is 427 possible that steers showing more activity in the pen also show more feeding activity, 428 which ultimately affects CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Although it is not possible to establish which 429 430 is the cause and the consequence in such relationship, activity in the pen could still partially explain variations in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and be used to monitor them in beef 431 cattle production. 432

433

Association between temperament and dominance with feeding behaviour and
activity

According to our results, feeding behaviour is partially explained both by 436 temperament and dominance traits. Although no change in total feeding duration 437 was shown, more temperamental steers visited the feeder more frequently, had 438 shorter meals and a decreased feed intake. MacKay et al. (2013) also found that 439 temperamental steers eat less feed per day. Van Reenen et al. (2005) suggested 440 441 that in response to any challenging stimuli, temperamental steers will exhibit an active coping response manifest as a greater behavioural reaction relative to the 442 level of internal stress they are experiencing compared to less temperamental 443 steers. This may suggest that temperamental steers are more reactive to external 444 stimuli (i.e. social interactions) increasing the likelihood of disruption of feeding 445 events leading to a large number of shorter feeding bouts with a reduction in total 446

feed intake. As discussed in the previous section, more frequent feeding bouts leads 447 to a decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Additionally, the reduction in feed intake by 448 temperamental steers may have implications for both feed efficiency and CH<sub>4</sub> 449 450 emissions. Using the same population of steers, Llonch et al. (2016 a,b) demonstrated that a decrease in feed intake results in an increase in feed efficiency 451 but also in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per kg of DMI, possibly due to a reduction in passage rate. 452 At the same time, Llonch et al. (2016a) demonstrated that the population group of 453 steers considered more temperamental also showed a lower ADG (kg/day) 454 455 compared to calm steers, possibly due to increased energy expenditure. Thus, breeding for less temperamental steers would have multiple and contrasting effects 456 on efficiency and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Calmer steers will show poorer feed efficiency but 457 increased growth and will have a controversial effect on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, due to 458 effects on eating frequency and DMI. The goal is to complement this breeding 459 strategy with appropriate feeding management to counteract the decrease in feed 460 461 efficiency (when increasing intake) which could be achieved by promoting longer times spent eating, therefore improving digestion of feed. 462

A similar association between feeding behaviour and dominance was seen as 463 between feeding behaviour and temperament. The relationship between feeder 464 access and dominance behaviour has been extensively described in cattle (Harb et 465 al., 1985; DeVries and von Keyserlingk, 2009; Gonzalez et al. 2008, 2012) where it 466 is generally accepted that dominant steers limit access of subordinates to feed. In 467 this study, a strong association was found between feeding behaviour and total 468 displacements or displacement index, whereby dominant steers showed more 469 frequent but shorter feeding bouts. This result suggest that if subordinate steers can 470 be fed at their wish they will probably show a similar pattern than dominant steers, 471

with frequent and short feeding bouts, and as discussed earlier, potentially reduceCH<sub>4</sub>.

The results also show that dominant steers spent a greater time feeding compared to 474 475 subordinates which they could achieve since they were not displaced so frequently. The same association was found by De Vries et al. (2004) who showed that 476 subordinate cows have to adapt to the feeding patterns of dominant animals and 477 access feed when it is available which results in less frequent but longer feeding 478 bouts and less time spent eating than dominants. In our experiment, the increased 479 480 daily feeding time did not affect DMI which suggests that dominant steers must have slowed their ingestion rate. The impact of greater feeding time, potentially due to 481 higher dominance rank, on RFI have been discussed in the previous section 482 whereby a longer time feeding, in fibrous fed steers, is associated with greater feed 483 efficiency. Strategies to reduce dominance behaviour (e.g. by increasing the feeding 484 space or reducing the stocking rate) will increase both the frequency and the 485 486 average time spent eating by the herd which in this study simultaneously improved efficiency and reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and at the same time reduces agonistic 487 behaviour thereby benefiting animal welfare. 488

Evidence was found indicating that decreased activity, in the form of fewer steps, is 489 associated with greater feed efficiency. On the other hand our results show that 490 491 temperamental steers were more active (more frequent standing bouts) which confirms the results of MacKay et al. (2013) who found that steers with high flight 492 speed were most active in the home pen. In this regard, the effect of activity on feed 493 494 efficiency could be partially mediated by temperament. More temperamental steers are more reactive to potentially threatening external stimuli. As a result, the energy 495 expenditure dedicated to body movement is likely to be higher which may decrease 496

the quantity of resources that can be dedicated to growth and compromise efficiency. 497 An association between temperament and feed efficiency has been reported by 498 Voisinet et al. (1997) and Nkrumah et al. (2007). In contrast, Llonch et al. (2016a) 499 500 could not find such a relationship but temperamental steers grew more slowly. Presumably in the latter study, the DMI was also reduced to some extent in more 501 temperamental steers which reduced the impact on feed efficiency. Minimising the 502 effects of activity on RFI offers a strategy to improve efficiency. Improving 503 temperament may be a potential way to reduce activity with down-stream benefits for 504 505 growth rate and efficiency.

506

#### 507 **Conclusions**

More time spent feeding on fibrous diets is associated with greater feed efficiency 508 possibly due to greater secretion of saliva and increased access of microbiota to 509 fibre. Dominant steers were able to eat for a longer period each day which suggests 510 that management aimed towards reducing competition for feed could help to 511 increase the average herd feeding time and improve feed efficiency. More frequent 512 feeding bouts contributed to a reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> per feed intake. Dominant steers 513 accessed the feeders more frequently suggesting that if access to feed is not 514 restricted steers show a pattern of frequent but short feeding bouts. Temperamental 515 516 steers reduced feed intake which previous studies have found to increase feed efficiency but to reduce growth rate and increase CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per feed intake. 517 Steers that were more active in the pen had a poorer RFI, presumably because of 518 the energetic demands of body movement. Considering that activity is partly 519 explained by temperament, management or breeding strategies that improve 520

temperament will reduce activity and ought to benefit feed efficiency if the opposingeffects on increased feed intake are controlled.

523

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533

#### 534 **Conflict of interest**

#### 535 Authors declare that we do not have any conflict of interest

536

#### 537 **Ethics**

This experiment was approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of SRUC in accordance with the requirements of the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986.

541

#### 542 Software and data repository resources

543 Data has not been deposited in an official repository.

544

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#### Figure 1 List of performance and behaviour variables assessed each day during an eight-week assessment period in beef cattle

#### 659

<sup>660</sup> \*Agg\_Total: number of aggressive interactions; Displ\_total: number of displacements; Displ\_Index: the aggression index is the proportion of interactions in

661 which the steer acted as a displacer; nFeed\_bout: average number of feeding events per day; dFeed\_time: the total time spent feeding per day; bout\_length:

662 duration per visit; Standing: percentage of time that the steer was standing; nStdBout: a count of the number of standing bouts; Standing: percentage of time

that the steer was standing; nSteps: number of steps per day; AvgeFS: average of the flight speed test; AvgeCS: average of the Crush Score.

## **Table 1** Mean (± SEM) of each dominance, feeding behaviour, activity and temperament trait according to breed and diet in beef

#### 665 cattle

|                   | Charolais-sired     |                     |         | Luing               |                     |         |                             |                         |                  |
|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------|---------------------|---------------------|---------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|
|                   | Diet                |                     |         | Diet                |                     |         | _                           |                         |                  |
|                   | Concentrate         | Mixed               |         | Concentrate         | Mixed               |         |                             |                         |                  |
|                   | Mean                | Mean                | SEM     | Mean                | Mean                | SEM     | P-value diet<br>(Charolais) | P-value diet<br>(Luing) | P-value<br>breed |
| Dominance         |                     |                     |         |                     |                     |         |                             |                         |                  |
| Agg_total         | 0.22                | 0.19                | 0.017   | 0.27                | 0.23                | 0.018   | 0.49                        | 0.21                    | 0.07             |
| Displ_total       | 0.59                | 0.56                | 0.019   | 0.56                | 0.54                | 0.018   | 0.69                        | 0.72                    | 0.21             |
| Displ_Index       | -2.03               | -2.01               | 0.020   | -1.99               | -1.98               | 0.030   | 0.66                        | 0.95                    | 0.28             |
| Feeding behaviour |                     |                     |         |                     |                     |         |                             |                         |                  |
| nFeed_bout        | 28.8 <sup>b</sup>   | 45.4 <sup>a</sup>   | 2.258   | 27.9 <sup>b</sup>   | 41.8 <sup>a</sup>   | 2.073   | <0.001                      | <0.001                  | 0.21             |
| dFeed_time (s)    | 5784.6 <sup>b</sup> | 8755.5 <sup>ª</sup> | 278.589 | 6795.5 <sup>b</sup> | 9366.5 <sup>ª</sup> | 308.313 | <0.001                      | <0.001                  | 0.005            |
| Bout_length (s)   | 237.0 <sup>b</sup>  | 216.4 <sup>b</sup>  | 10.054  | 271.1 <sup>a</sup>  | 261.6 <sup>ª</sup>  | 12.616  | 0.51                        | 0.70                    | 0.008            |
| Activity          |                     |                     |         |                     |                     |         |                             |                         |                  |
| nStdBout          | 65.3                | 66.1                | 6.359   | 67.2                | 66.2                | 7.755   | 0.95                        | 0.98                    | 0.94             |
| Standing (min)    | 916.8 <sup>b</sup>  | 941.9 <sup>b</sup>  | 12.236  | 1016.0 <sup>a</sup> | 1003.7 <sup>a</sup> | 10.99   | 0.31                        | 0.61                    | 0.001            |
| nSteps            | 1221.7 <sup>a</sup> | 1316.1 <sup>ª</sup> | 31.166  | 1140.4 <sup>b</sup> | 1134.2 <sup>b</sup> | 45.816  | 0.13                        | 0.75                    | 0.029            |
| Motion Index      | 4383.7 <sup>a</sup> | 4438.0 <sup>a</sup> | 146.970 | 3880.7 <sup>b</sup> | 3504.3 <sup>b</sup> | 735.931 | 0.87                        | 0.29                    | 0.97             |
| Temperament       |                     |                     |         |                     |                     |         |                             |                         |                  |
| AvgeFS (m/s)      | 1.80                | 1.59                | 0.074   | 1.50                | 1.56                | 0.074   | 0.19                        | 0.71                    | 0.14             |
| AvgeCS            | 1.75                | 1.85                | 0.129   | 1.51                | 1.68                | 0.136   | 0.58                        | 0.55                    | 0.34             |

666

667 <sup>a,b,c</sup> Values within a row with different superscripts differ significantly at *P*<0.05.

668 Agg\_Total: number of aggressive interactions; Displ\_total: number of displacements; Displ\_Index: the aggression index is the proportion of interactions in

669 which the steer acted as a displacer; nFeed\_bout: average number of feeding events per day; dFeed\_time: the total time spent feeding per day; bout\_length:

670 duration per visit; nStdBout: a count of the number of standing bouts; Standing: percentage of time that the steer was standing; nSteps: number of steps per 671 day; Motion Index: indicator of the overall activity of the steer, was calculated using the average magnitude of acceleration on each of the 3 axes; AvgeFS:

average of the flight speed test; AvgeCS: average of the Crush Score.

## **Table 2** Mean (±SEM) weight of each diet, breed, feeding behaviour and activity trait with a significant effect on multivariate models

#### 674 of performance and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in beef cattle

| Outcome<br>variable       | Intercept    | Fixed effects   | Feeding behaviour                           | Activity                             |
|---------------------------|--------------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| DMI (kg)                  | 11.99±0.1934 | diet (CONC; b= -1.0691±0.2826)***   |   |                                      |
| ADG (kg/d)                | 0.78±0.2993  | diet (CONC; <i>b</i> = -0.11±0.050)* breed (CHx;<br><i>b</i> =0.14±0.049)** MTLW ( <i>b</i> = 0.0015±0.000)** |   |                                      |
| FCR (kg/kg)               | 1.807±0.1576 | breed (CHx; <i>b</i> =-0.15±0.028)*** MLW ( <i>b</i> =0.0006±0.000)*  |   |                                      |
| RFI                       | 1.687±0.6406 | diet (CONC; <i>b</i> =-2.44±0.786)** breed (CHx; <i>b</i> =-0.37±0.139)**                                     | Diet*dFeed_time<br>(b=-0.00014±0.000)*      | Steps ( <i>b</i> = 0.0006±0.000)↑    |
| CH <sub>4</sub> (g/kgDMI) | 7.244±1.4449 | diet (CONC; b=-3.499±0.8067)***   | nFeed_bouts<br>( <i>b</i> =-0.0146±0.0081)* | Standing ( <i>b</i> =0.0038±0.0018)* |

675  $\uparrow$ , \*, \*\* or \*\*\* symbols refer to a tendency, *P* < 0.05, *P* < 0.01 and *P* < 0.001.

676 DMI: Dry Matter Intake; ADG: Average Daily Gain; FCR: Feed Conversion Ratio; RFI: Residual feed Intake; CH<sub>4</sub>: methane; CONC: concentrate; CHx:

677 Charolais sired; nFeed\_bout: average number of feeding events per day; dFeed\_time: the total time spent feeding per day; Standing: percentage of time that

678 the steer was standing; nSteps: number of steps per day.

### **Table 3** Mean (±SEM) weight of each diet, breed, temperament and dominance trait with a significant effect on multivariate models

#### 680 of feeding behaviour in beef cattle

| Outcome<br>variable        | Intercept                     | Fixed effects  | Temperament variables  | Dominance variables   |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|--|--|---|
| DMI (kg)                   | 13.028±0.5008                 | Diet (CONC; <i>b</i> =-0.9454 0.2763)***   | AvgeFS ( <i>b</i> =-<br>0.5920±0.2946)*                                      |   |
| nFeed_bouts<br>bout_length | 21.459±5.764<br>466.23±43.518 | Diet (CONC; <i>b</i> =-15.5341±3.1593)***<br>Breed (CHx; <i>b</i> =-30.615±15.383)*  | AvgeFS ( <i>b</i> =6.493±2.092)**<br>AvgeFS ( <i>b</i> =-<br>34.498±16.468)* | Displ_Tot ( <i>b</i> =20.235±8.555)*<br>Displ_Tot ( <i>b</i> =-<br>257.3±66.100)*** |
| dFeed_time<br>(min)        | 1321±1719.94                  | Diet (CONC; <i>b</i> =-2614.48±282.73)***<br>Breed (CHx; <i>b</i> =-794.51±284.60)** | 04.400±10.400)   | Disp_Index<br>( <i>b</i> =1905.22±860.46)*  |

681  $\uparrow$ , \*, \*\* or \*\*\* symbols refer to a tendency, P< 0.05, P < 0.01 and P < 0.001.

682 DMI: Dry Matter Intake; nFeed\_bout: average number of feeding events per day; bout\_length: duration per visit; dFeed\_time: the total time spent feeding per

683 day; CONC: concentrate; CHx: Charolais sired; Displ\_total: number of displacements; Displ\_Index: the aggression index is the proportion of interactions in

684 which the steer acted as a displacer; AvgeFS: average of the flight speed test; AvgeCS: average of the Crush Score.

#### **Table 4** Mean (±SEM) weight of each diet, breed, temperament and dominance trait with a significant effect on multivariate models

#### 686 of activity in beef cattle

| Outcome<br>variable | Intercept      | Fixed effects                           | Temperament variables | Dominance variables |
|---------------------|----------------|---|-----------------------|---------------------|
| nStdBout            | 32.076±10.909  |   | (AvgeCS;              | b=                  |
|                     |                |   | 19.84±5.466)***       |                     |
| Standing (min)      | 612.59±7.035   | Breed (CHx; <i>b</i> =-48.073±9.826)*** |                       |                     |
| Steps               | 1180.31±100.92 | Breed (CHx; <i>b</i> =120.01±54.004)*   |                       |                     |

687 t, \*, \*\* or \*\*\* symbols refer to a tendency, P< 0.05, P < 0.01 and P < 0.001.

588 Standing: percentage of time that the steer was standing; nStdBout: a count of the number of standing bouts; nSteps: number of steps per day; CHx:

689 Charolais sired; AvgeCS: average of the Crush Score