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Unlocking Opportunities Through Sustainability	Collaborations
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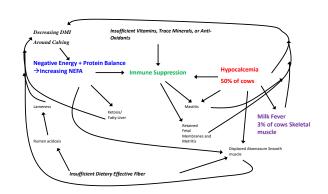
Transition Cows: Update on DCAD and Stumbling Blocks when Trying to Balance Rations Properly

Jesse Goff DVM, PhD Iowa State University College of Veterinary Medicine

Transition Cows: Update on DCAD and Stumbling Blocks when Trying to Balance Rations Properly

Jesse Goff DVM, PhD

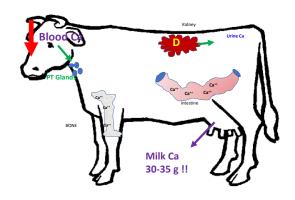
Professor Emeritus Iowa State University College of Veterinary Medicine

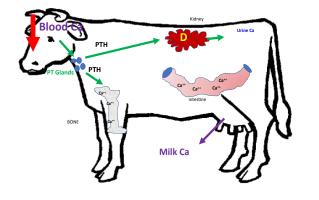


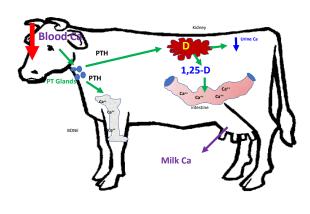
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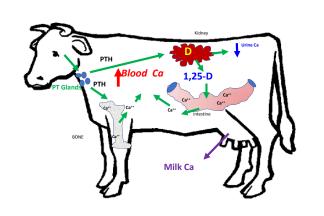
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6

Why doesn't Ca Homeostasis work in all cows???

Aged cows lose vitamin D receptors in intestine

Aged cows have fewer sites of active bone resorption (fewer osteoclasts) capable of responding to PTH rapidly

BLOOD pH AFFECTS TISSUE RESPONSE TO PTH!

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↑ High K , High DCAD Diet

Metabolic Alkalosis

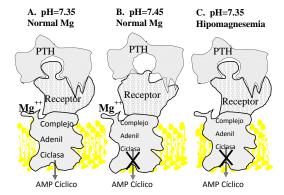
↓ Bone and Kidney Sensitivity to Parathyroid Hormone

↓ Production of 1,25-(OH)₂D

↓ Intestinal Ca Absorption

Hypocalcemia

8



Blood pH is dependent on Diet Cation -Anion Difference

DCAD = (mEq Na⁺ + mEq K⁺)- (mEq Cl⁻ + mEq SO⁻²_{Δ})

High DCAD diets, where K and Na are in much greater concentration than CI or SO₄ cause Alkalosis & milk fever

Cations (+) **absorbed** from forages and diet cause the blood and urine of the cow to become alkaline

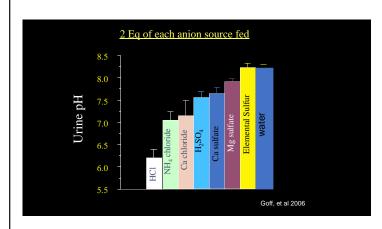
Anions (-) **absorbed** from forages and diet cause the blood and urine of the cow to become acidic

9 10

Milk Fever & Hypocalcemia Prevention

- Avoid very high potassium forages for close-up cows; practiced by most dairies in US.
- Add anions (CI or Sulfate) to diet to reduce blood and urine pH and improve tissue ability to respond to PTH!.

Choosing the right anion sources



Milk Fever & Hypocalcemia Prevention

- Avoid very high potassium forages for close-up cows; practiced by most dairies in US.
- Add anions (CI or Sulfate) to diet to reduce blood and urine pH and improve tissue ability to respond to PTH!.

Choosing the right anion sources

Palatability Issues

Soychlor

Soychlor usa cloruro como su única Fuente de aniones

- efecto muy predecible en el pH de orina

- las dietas típicas de Soychlor son eficientes cuando DCAD está entre -75 y -125 mEq/kg DM

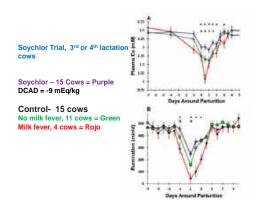
- menor necesidad de medir pH en orina

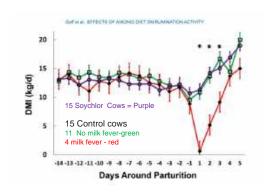
Soychlor usa HCl como Fuente de cloruro

- NO salado, por lo que mejora palatabilidad

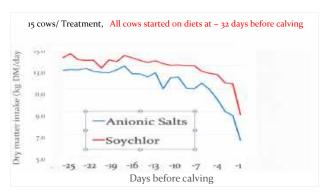
Soychlor aporta Mg en forma muy disponible

13 14





15 16



Strydom & Swiegart, 2016 ADSA

Milk Fever & Hypocalcemia Prevention

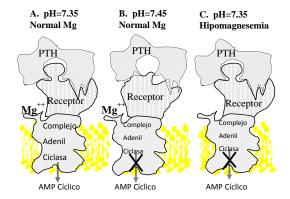
- Avoid very high potassium forages for close-up cows; practiced by most dairies in US.
- 2. Add anions (CI or Sulfate) to diet to reduce blood and urine pH and improve tissue ability to respond to PTH!.

Choosing the right anion sources

Palatability Issues

Over and under acidification

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Blood pH above 7.38 is associated with more problems with calcium metabolism.

With typical diets high in K we see blood pH above 7.4.

Blood pH is difficult to accurately measure in cows on farms

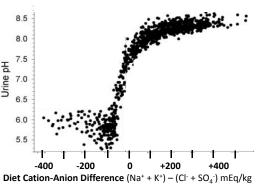
Urine pH is a good indicator of blood pH and easy to determine

We wish to avoid problems with PTH insensitivity of bone and kidneywhich occurs most when urine pH is above 7.25.

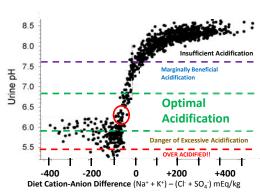
Our target is to induce a compensated metabolic acidosis in cows – a urine pH of 6.2-6.5.

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Adapted from Constable et al., 2017; Spanghero, 2004; and Charbonneau et al., 2006

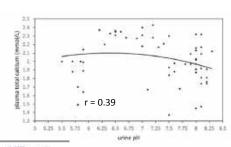


Adapted from Constable et al., 2017; Spanghero, 2004; and Charbonneau et al., 2006

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Hey Goff! How is it that you tell us the sweet spot for urine pH is around 6.3?

Other Anion Products tell us you need to be down between 5.5 and 6.0.

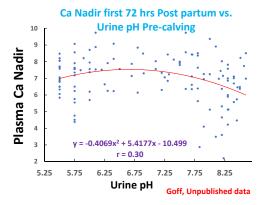


Urine pH	Stillborn %
<6.0 (n = 22)	13.67 (3/22)
6.0-7.0 (n = 46)	8.7 ^{ab} (4/46)
>7.0 (n = 135)	445 (6/135)

Melendez et al., Animal:2021

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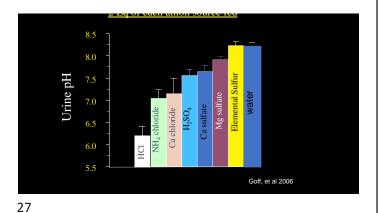


8.5 If anion is primarily chloride (0.6% Ca diet) Marginally Beneficial Acidification Urine pH 7.0 **Optimal** 6.5 **Acidification** 6.0 Danger of Excessive Acidification 5.5 -400 -200 0 +200 +400 Diet Cation-Anion Difference (Na $^+$ + K $^+$) – (Cl $^-$ + SO $_4$ $^-$) mEq/kg

Adapted from Constable et al., 2017; Spanghero, 2004; and Charbonneau et al., 2006

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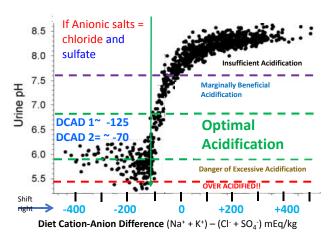
DCAD Equations

Traditional DCAD 1 equation (mEq Na + mEq K) – (mEq Cl + mEq S)
 Does not account for fact S is not as acidifying as Cl

2. DCAD 2 = (Na + K) - (Cl + 0.6 S) may be more biologically correct!!!

- which means mathematically if you use DCAD 1 you need to feed a more negative diet when using the sulfate salts to acidify

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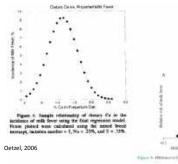


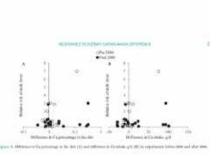
low DCAD diet???

How much Ca should I feed with a

Adapted from Constable et al., 2017; Spanghero, 2004; and Charbonneau et al., 2006

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Lean et al 2018

Santos et al., 2019

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DCAD Equations

1. Traditional equation (Na + K) - (CI + S)

Does not account for fact S is not as acidifying as Cl

2. (Na + K) - (Cl + 0.6 S)

Does not account for alkalinizing effect of diet Ca⁺⁺ coming from Calcium carbonate/ Limestone

3. (Na + K + 0.15 Ca + 0.15 Mg) - (Cl + 0.6 S + 0.5 P)

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You heard low DCAD diets need to be high in Ca and you bring diet Ca to 1.7% from a baseline diet of 0.8%. You will add 9~g~Ca/kg~X 13 kg = 117 g Ca from limestone.

Ca CO₃ is alkalinizing! Ca⁺⁺ is a cation!!! DCAD Eq 4 NRC 2001.

(Na + K + 0.15 Ca + 0.15 Mg) - (Cl + 0.6 S + 0.5 P)

If abs coeff is just 0.10!!

 $5.85 \text{ Eq} \times 0.10 \text{ abs} = 0.585 \text{ Eq} = +585 \text{ mEq} / \text{day}$

ADD LIMESTONE, BUY MORE ANION!!!!

33

A. pH=7.35 B. pH=7.45 C. pH=7.35 Normal Mg Normal Mg Hypomagnesemia Ádenyl Adenyl Adenyl cyclase cyclase cvclase omple Cyclic AMP Cyclic AMP Cyclic AMP

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Milk Fever & Hypocalcemia Prevention

- Avoid very high potassium forages for close-up cows; practiced by most dairies in US.
- Add anions (CI or Sulfate) to diet to reduce blood and urine pH; various forms practiced.
- 3. Close-up and Fresh cow Diet Mg ~ 0.4%

Magnesium sources

Pre-calving

- using $\mathrm{MgSO_4}$ or $\mathrm{MgCl_2}$ as "anions" also supplies readily available, $\mathbf{Soluble}$ $\mathrm{Mg}.$
- -The better anion supplements on the market include Mg in this form to remove Mg worries pre-calving.

Post-calving is the bigger issue!!!!!!

Magnesium Oxide – supplies Mg and acts as rumen alkalinizer.

MgO must be available for absorption by rumen wall!!!!

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Milk Fever & Hypocalcemia Prevention

- Avoid very high potassium forages for close-up cows; practiced by most dairies in US.
- 2. Add anions (CI or Sulfate) to diet to reduce blood and urine pH; various forms practiced.
- 3. Close-up and Fresh cow Diet Mg ~ 0.4%
- 4. Diet P < 0.35%, better below 0.25%

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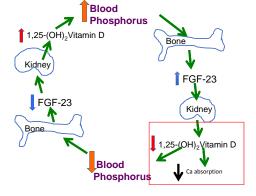
AVOID HIGH PHOSPHORUS DIETS

In addition to stimulating intestinal Ca transport 1,25-(OH)₂Vitamin D also stimulates transport of phosphate!!!

Now we know there is a phosphate homeostasis mechanism relying on a bone hormone called FGF23.

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Blood Phosphorus 1,25-(OH)₂Vitamin D FGF-23 Kidney



39 40

1,25-(OH)₂Vitamin D

Impact of Reducing DCAD on health and milk production

Blood

Phosphorus

Lean et al., 2019. Meta-analysis indicates significant beneficial effects (P<0.02) on: Milk Fever, Blood Ca (the day of calving and "postpartum"), Retained Placenta, Metritis, and risk of Multiple Health Events

But not Mastitis (P=0.63) and LDA (P= 0.73)

Milk Production – Multiparous → + 1.1 kg/day Nulliparous → - 1.28 kg/day

Santos et al., 2019 reducing DCAD from +200 to -100 mEq/kg Multiparous → 1.7 kg more milk / day (+1 kg DMI/d) Nulliparous → 1.4 kg less milk / day

Zimpel et al. 2021 (a,b) - negative effects on heifers not observed if "moderately low DCAD" was fed with urine pH 6.67 vs 5.41

DCAD During Lactation

Heavy corn silage diets can be low in potassium

- milk has 1.5 g K / Liter and 1.05 g Ca / Liter!

Acids are produced during metabolism

- mostly organic acids which are largely but not entirely metabolized within liver and other tissues

Raising DCAD can promote better control of blood pH during lactation

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DCAD Balancing is also important to Milk production

Beyond + 500 mEq/kg diet - milk production begins to fall.

Cows are too alkaline and they must decrease DMI to keep from dying of metabolic alkalosis

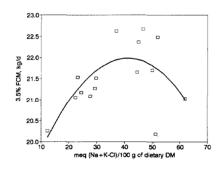
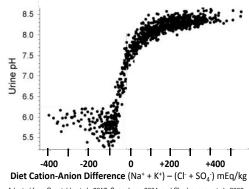


Figure 4. Yield of 3.5% FCM with varying cationanion difference.

Sanchez and Beede, 1991

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Adapted from Constable et al., 2017; Spanghero, 2004; and Charbonneau et al., 2006

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Heat Stress

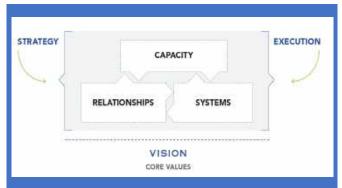
Loss of potassium via drool can increase requirement for K. Need potassium in addition to Na to help cow .

Counteract loss of potassium cations Counteract effect of slug feeding of diets that occurs when it cools off at night

Develop your Business by Developing your People

Jay Joy, CEO Milk Money, LLC moneycfo.com 785-275-2772





2

PLAN your Plan, Organize Action

Define "What".....

Product/service we are offering
Is our Target Market
Does our "ideal" Customer look like
CAPACITIES do we need to serve our customers and employees
RELATIONSHIPS do we need to serve our customers and employees
SYSTEMS do we need to serve our customers and employees

What is
Execution?

DO your Plan, Take Action

How do we.....

Provide the Product/Service are we offering
Engage with our Target Market
Influence our "Ideal" Customer
Develop the CAPACITY we need to serve the customer
Develop the RELATIONSHIPS we need to serve the customer
Develop the SYSTEMS we need to have in place to execute for the customer

3

"The ability or power to do, experience, or understand something"

• Physical
• Mental
• Emotional
• Financial
• Social
• Spiritual

5

"The way in which two or more concepts, objects, or people are connected; or the way they behave toward each other"

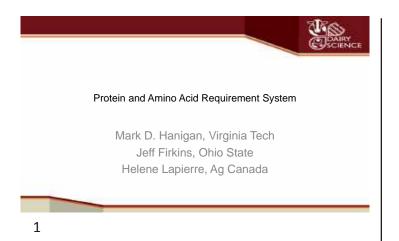
• Trusted
• Collaborative
• Transactional
• Co-Existence
• Avoidance
• Dysfunctional

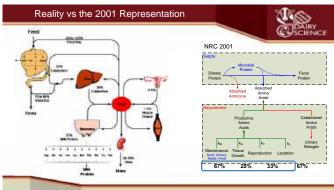
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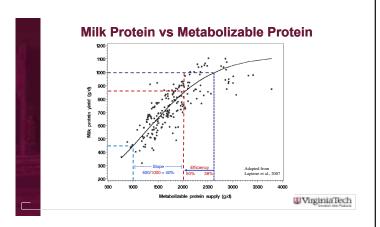
Protein and Amino Acid Requirement System

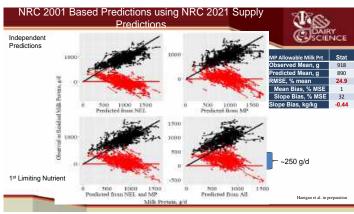
Mark D. Hanigan, Virginia Tech Jeff Firkins, Ohio State Helene Lapierre, Ag Canada



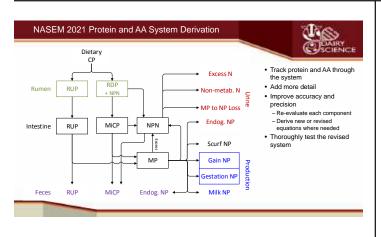


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3



NRC 2001

- RMSE = 42% with mean and slope bias
- Over-predicted RUP!!!
- Kp/Kd system has value, but ...
- particulate likely not reflective of protein Kp
- in situ Kd is an under-estimate

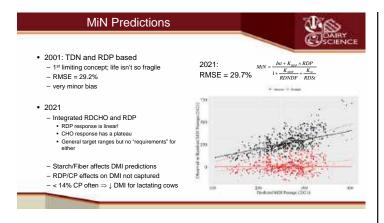
• 2021 Patch!
- Retain Kd's
- 6.4% passage of A fraction vs 0 from NRC 2001
- Kp Conc: fixed 5.28% h vs mean of -6.7%/h for 2001
- Kp Conc: fixed 5.28% h vs mean of -6.7%/h for 2001
- Kp Conc: fixed 5.28% h vs mean of -6.7%/h for 2001
- RMSE = 40.9% with less slope bias
- RUP of Conc declined

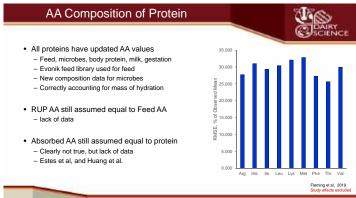
RUP Predictions
- RUP of Conc declined

- RMSE = 40.9% with less slope bias
- RUP of Conc declined

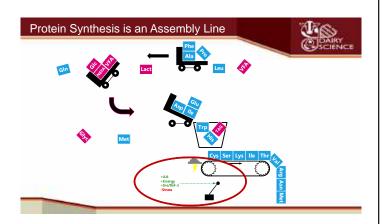
- RMSE = 40.9% with less slope bias
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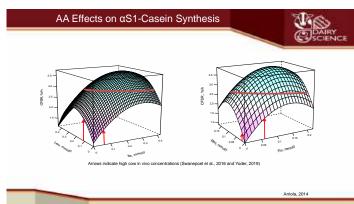
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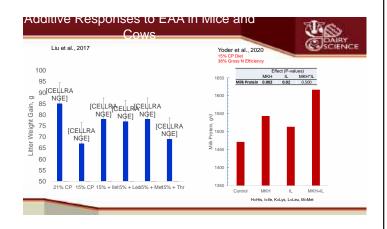


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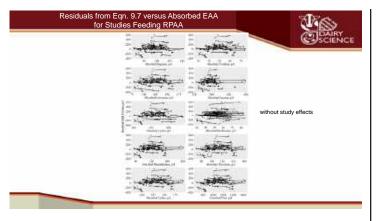


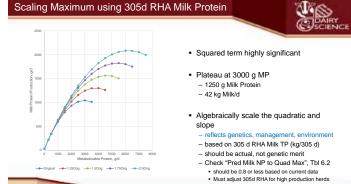
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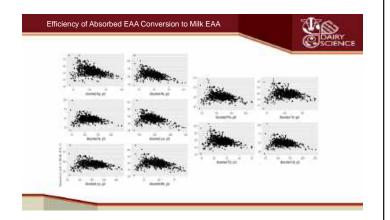
Integrated Milk Protein Predictions using NASEM 2021 Nutrient Supply $mPrt = Int + \alpha Arg + \beta His + \chi Ite + \delta Leu + \varepsilon Lys + \phi Met + \psi Fhe + \phi Thr + \mu Trp + \theta Val + \lambda Oth AA + \varpi \sum EAA^* + \kappa DEImp + \eta dNDF + \gamma dSI + \pi dFA + \mu BW$ Predictors Intercept His Ite Leu Lys Met Oth AA χEAA^* DEImp dNDFin BW χEAA^* DEImp dNDFin BW

11 12



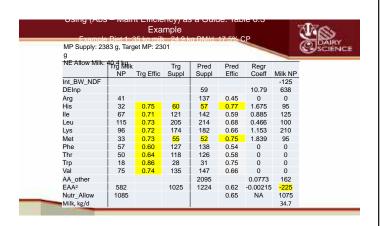


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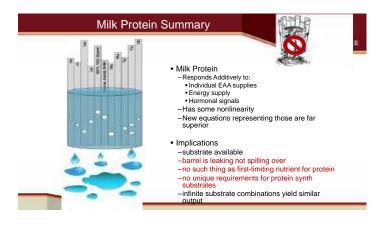


Report 6. Target Amino Acid Supply and Efficiency 6.3 Predicted and Target Supply of Metabolizable Protein and Amino Acids Target Metab AA Supply Mcal or g/d Metab AA Efficiency Milk Item
Intercept + BW effects + dNDF
DE Non-Protein
Arg
His
Ile
Leu
Lys
Met
Phe
Thr
Trp
Val
EAA
Other AA Milk Protein g/d -122 739 0 110 140 116 230 108 0 Efficiency Regr Coeff Protein g/o g/d 68 159 67 161 253 203 60 158 143 35 0.45 0.77 0.63 58 45 95 163 136 47 81 71 25 106 827 0.73 0.72 0.68 0.71 0.78 0.56 0.61 0.79 0.69 0.64 269 228 73 167 152 37 0.73 0.60 0.64 0.86 0.74 168 1407 0.00 Other AA Nutrient Allowable (1) Pred Milk NP / 305d Max (2)

15 16



Using Total AA Efficiency as a Guide: Table 6.3 Example Diet 3: 35 kg milk , 24.9 kg DM/d, 14.7% CP MP Supply: 2117 g, Target MP: 2320 g NE Allow Milk: 40.9 kg Trg Milk NP Trg
Trg Effic Suppl Pred Suppl Effic Milk NP Int_BW_NDI 62 10.79 665 130 54 133 0.47 0.81 0.64 0 1.675 0.885 0 91 117 Arg His 32 67 60 121 0.75 0.71 0.73 0.72 0.73 lle Leu Lys Met Phe Thr Trp Val 96 196 91 115 204 205 0.71 0.466 174 55 127 170 49 130 0.72 1.153 96 33 57 50 18 0.80 1.839 0.60 0.64 0.86 0.74 0 0 0 0 118 28 135 118 29 138 0.62 75 0.71 AA other 1976 0.0773 153 EAA2 Nutr_Allow 1156 1092 1085



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Protein System Summary



- Removed bias in RUP; RDP will be greater and RUP less for concentrates
- More mechanistic representation of MiN (RDCHO and RDP)
- Improved AA supply from MiN and dRUP; no longer empirically adjusted
- Endogenous N removed from supply
- Post-absorptive use more closely follows biology
- Updated maintenance representations
- MAJOR conceptual change in milk protein and export protein efficiency
- Considers all 10 EAA, but Arg is semi-essential and Trp data are very, very

20

Field Application via CNCPS CNCPS predictions of AA supply appear to be accurate (Martineau et al. in prepare). . Milk protein equation thus directly applicable given EAA supplies Milk Prt = fn(AA supply)!!! DON'T subtract maintenance or anything else first - CAN'T use most limiting AA approach, thus many report changes required · Efficiency calcs are more complicated - Milk EAA / (EAA Supply - Maintenance - Gestation) - new maintenance equations – corrected for hydration mass changes between AA and protein – endogenous urinary is only AA, not protein and at 100% efficiency CNCPS application certainly possible, just quite a bit of work - Helene has been working with Mike to incorporate

Acknowledgements Final model, publication, and software commissioned by NASEM, but extensive prior work supported the effort! sive prior work supported Funding

- UK Government

- Purisa Aiminal Natistion

- England and Wales Mik Marketing Board

- Nutreco

- AFRI Grant: 2012-67015-19464

- Balchamt: 2017-67015-28659

- Bards

- Persus Ag Solutions

- Persus Ag Solutions

- Persus Ag Solutions

- Adissoo

- Aginnone State Balaymen's Agescalation

- Virginia Agricultural Council Students/Tech
Tara Pilonero
Agustin Rius
Ranga Appuha
Ashley Bell
Sebastian Arrio
Milchelle Aguila USDA under Regional Research Project NC-1040/NC-2040

Transition Cows: Update on DCAD and Stumbling Blocks when Trying to Balance Rations Properly

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Feeding the fresh group for better health and lactation performance



Thomas R. Overton, Ph.D. Professor and Chair

Transition cow nutrition

- The vast majority of controlled research during the past 25 years on transition cow nutrition has focused on the *dry* cow
- Most lactating cow nutrition studies did not start until three to four weeks after calving
- Several studies published over the past 5 to 7 years focused specifically on feeding the fresh cow

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Fresh cow diets - common themes

- · Frequently based upon high cow diet
- · Some common "tweaks"
 - Lower starch

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3

- Higher physically effective fiber
 - Usually less than 0.5 kg/d of chopped straw/hay
- Additional RUP/AA
- Additional fat
- Strategic addition of other nutrients (e.g., RP-choline)
- Success usually gauged by farm-level outcomes

Fresh diets – a few key questions

- How fermentable should fresh cow diets be?
 - do we need to feed lower starch diets to fresh cows?
 - what about starch fermentability?
- How important is physically effective NDF in fresh cow diets?
- MP supply to the postcalving cow

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To starch, or not to starch?

Several experiments conducted by groups at University of Alberta, Miner Institute, Cornell, and Michigan State University

- Starch level in fresh diet
 - Dann and Nelson, 2011 Cornell Nutrition Conference
 - Sun and Oba. 2014. J. Dairy Sci. 97:1594-1602.
 - McCarthy et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98:3335-3350.
 - Williams et al., 2015 ADSA-ASAS Joint Annual Meeting
 - Haisan et al., 2021. J. Dairy Sci. 104:4362-4374.
- · Starch source in fresh diet
 - Rockwell and Allen. 2016. J. Dairy Sci. 99:4453-4463.
- Starch source and level in fresh diet
 - Dyck et al., 2011. J. Dairy Sci. 94:4636-4646.
 - Albornoz and Allen. 2018. J. Dairy Sci. 101:8902-8915.

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Dann and Nelson, 2011 Cornell **Nutrition Conference**

- 72 Holstein cows (2nd and greater lactation)
- · Fed high straw controlled energy diet for 40-d dry period
- · At calving, one of three starch regimens
 - Low starch (~ 21%) for first 91 DIM
 - Medium starch (~23%) for first 21 d followed by high starch (~25.5%) until 91 DIM
 - High starch (~25.5%) for first 91 DIM

Dann and Nelson, 2011 CNC

Ingredients, % of DM

Corn silage Haylage Wheat straw Corn meal Soybean meal Soybean hulls Wheat middlings

Canola meal

CP, % NDF, %

Sugar, %

AminoPlus
Other
Chemical composition
DM, %

Sugar, % Rumen fermentable starch, % Digestibility 24-h NDF, % NDF 7-h starch, % starch

8

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9

DMI and milk during first 13 wk of lactation for cows fed varying levels of starch in early lactation

Item	Low-low	Medium-High	High-High	SEM	P, Trt	P, Trt x wk
DMI, kg/d	25.2 ^x	24.9 ^{xy}	23.7 ^y	0.5	0.06	0.09
Milk, kg/d	47.9 ^{ab}	49.9ª	44.2 ^b	1.6	0.04	0.75
SCM, kg/d	47.4	47.9	43.5	1.5	0.09	0.39
NEFA, uEq/L (wk 1-3)	452 ^{aby}	577 ^{ax}	431 ^{by}	43	0.03	0.11
BHBA, mg/dL (wk 1-3)	9.3	8.8	7.8	1.1	0.15	0.97
ab Least squares means within a row without a common superscript differ $(P \le 0.05)$. xy Least squares means within a row without a common superscript differ $(P \le 0.10)$.						

Dann and Nelson, 2011 CNC

Effects of feeding a high-fiber byproduct feedstuff as a substitute for barley grain on numen fermentation and productivity of dairy cown in early lactation

- 61 Holstein cows (22 PP and 39 MP)
- Treatments fed from calving through 12 wk postpartum

Table 1. Ingredient and analyzed chemical composition (mean ± standard error) of

low, medium, and high starch diets fed to early lactation Holstein cows

34.6 ± 0.1 11.4 ± 0.4 4.1 6.9 ± 0.4 11.4 ± 0.1 9.7 6.1

3.1

10.2 ± 0.3

49.5 ± 0.7

 6.1 ± 0.1

 21.0 ± 0.3 16.8 ± 0.5

58.4 ± 0.6

34.6 ± 0.1 11.7 ± 0.3 4.1 11.1 ± 0.1 11.9 ± 0.1 6.5 ± 0.2 3.9 ± 0.1

6.1

10.1 ± 0.3

50.1 ± 0.9 17.0 ± 0.2 33.9 ± 0.4 5.8 ± 0.1 23.2 ± 0.3

18.9 ± 0.6

57.3 ± 0.5 76.7 ± 1.2

- Control (high starch; 29.2% of DM)
- DDGS (low starch; 19.1% of DM)

% of DM	Control	DDGS
Barley silage	43.0	43.1
Corn grain, rolled	21.6	21.6
Barley grain, rolled	17.3	
Wheat DDGS	***	17.2
Corn gluten meal	8.3	
Beet pulp	3.2	12.3
Balance	6.6	5.8
CP, %	17.3	19.4
NDF, %	27.2	30.5
Starch, %	29.2	19.1



34.6 ± 0.1 11.4 ± 0.4 4.1 16.7 ± 0.4 11.9 ± 0.1 3.2 1.8 ± 0.1

6.1

10.2 ± 0.2

49.6 ± 0.7 16.7 ± 0.2 31.9 ± 0.3 5.9 ± 0.1 25.5 ± 0.3

20.2 ± 0.5

54.0 ± 0.8 74.5 ± 1.2

Item	Control		DDG	DDGS		P	value
Milk, kg/d	35.3	35.3		34.9		0.83	
Fat, kg/d	1.33	3	1.31		0.05	0.85	
CP, kg/d	0.97	7	0.97	0.97			1.00
ECM, kg/d	35.6		35.4	35.4		0.88	
	PP	MP	PP	MP		TRT	TRT*PAR
DMI, kg/d	14.7	21.3	16.2	20.1	0.45	0.62	<0.001
Rumen pH, mean	6.33	3	6.3	0	0.07		0.78
pH < 5.8, min/d	126		108		49.4		0.80
Area, pH x min/d	28.8		16.6	6	11.3		0.53

Results

Sun and Oba, 2014



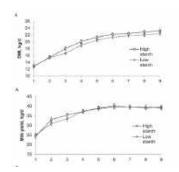
- M. M. McCarthy, "T Yakes," C. M. Ryans, '0, D. Machas, and T. R. Dwatter, Topical and of hand feature, Const Structure, Mann. (V. 1465).
- 70 Holstein cows (21 PP and 49 MP)
- Fed high straw, moderate energy diet during close-up
- At calving, fed one of two rations
 - Low starch (~ 20.9% starch; 35.9% NDF)
 - Higher starch (~ 25.5% starch; 33.6% NDF)
 - · Beginning at 22 DIM, all cows fed higher starch ration
- Also fed either 0 mg/d monensin or 400 mg/d prepartum/450 mg/d postpartum via topdress pellet

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Diet Composition, % of DM

Item	Prepartum	Postp	artum
		High Starch	Low Starch
Corn Silage	39.5		
BMR Corn Silage	_	37.0	37.0
Haylage	_	9.3	9.3
Wheat Straw	20.5	11.1	11.1
Corn meal, finely ground	3.9	20.2	9.9
Corn Germ Meal	_	2.4	5.4
Citrus Pulp	6.6	0.9	6.7
Soy Hulls	6.6	(–	3.4
Soybean Meal	5.0	5.5	3.7
Canola Meal	4.3	2.6	2.0
Blood Meal	1.0	1.9	1.9
Supplements	6.6	5.3	5.9
Topdress	6.1	4.2	4.2



DMI and milk yield for cows fed low vs. high starch postpartum.

From McCarthy et al. 2015

	DMI	Milk yield
	P, starch x wk	P, starch x wk
Wk 1 to 3	0.04	0.002
Wk 1 to 9	0.32	<0.001



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- 48 Holstein cows entering 2+ lactation
- 2 x 2 factorial
 - control vs. Cr-prop peripartum
 - Dry ground vs. High Moisture corn postpartum through d 28

% of DM	Dry corn	HM corn
Corn silage	25.0	25.0
Alfalfa silage	19.2	19.2
Alfalfa hay	11.8	11.8
Dry ground corn	23.3	
High-moisture corn		23.3
Soybean meal	12.9	12.9
Vitamin-mineral mix	7.8	7.8
CP, %	16.2	16.2
NDF, %	31.4	31.1
Starch, %	26.4	26.5



Results (d 1 to 28 postpartum)

Item	Dry corn	HM corn	SE	P value
Milk, kg/d	38.5	41.4	1.65	0.02
Fat, kg/d	1.95	1.99	0.13	0.33
TP, kg/d	1.27	1.32	0.06	0.28
ECM, kg/d	47.9	49.5	2.61	0.18
DMI, kg/d	18.1	18.6	0.7	0.53
Cumulative DMI, kg	507	521	20	0.51

Rockwell and Allen, 2016

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ource and content in postpartum dairy cow diets: on plasma metabolites and reproductive processes

• 40 Holstein cows (16 PP and 24 MP)

Three dietary treatments from calving until 70 DIM

% of DM	Alfalfa silage	Barley silage	Barley silage + starch
Alfalfa silage	44.7		
Barley silage		44.6	40.6
Alfalfa hay	10.0	10.0	10.1
Corn starch			4.0
Com	25.4	20.3	4.8
Barley	10.2	4.8	4.8
Balance of mix	10.4	20.3	20.3
CP, %	17.1	18.8	18.4
NDF, %	25.8	30.9	28.8
Starch, %	25.2	23.3	26.7



Results (d 1 to 70 postpartum)

Item	AS	BS	BS+S	SE	P va	alue
					Source	Level
DMI, kg/d	19.5	18.4	19.1	0.6	0.31	0.43
Milk, kg/d	35.7	35.8	38.3	1.7	0.49	0.29
Fat, kg/d	1.30	1.34	1.36	0.57	0.44	0.82
TP, kg/d	1.04	1.08	1.14	0.44	0.21	0.28

Source: AS vs (BS + BS+S) Level: BS vs BS+S

Dyck et al., 2011



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- 52 Holstein cows entering 2+ lactation
- 2 x 2 factorial arrangement of treatments (calving to 23 DIM)
 - Low (22%) starch vs high (28%) starch
 - Dry ground corn vs high-moisture corn

	Low s	tarch	High s	starch
% of DM	Dry com	HM corn	Dry corn	HM corn
Alfalfa silage	37.0	37.1	37.7	37.0
Grass hay	8.25	8.35	8.35	8.21
Dry ground corn	27.5		35.4	
High-moisture corn		28.1		36.2
Soyhulls	11.0	11.0	1.87	2.18
Soybean meal	11.7	11.1	12.2	12.4
Balance of mix	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
CP, %	17.2	16.7	17.3	16.9
NDF, %	33.0	33.0	28.3	27.6
Starch, %	21.4	21.9	27.1	27.8



Results (d 1 to 23 postpartum)

	Low sta	Low starch		High starch			P valu	е
Item	Dry	HM	Dry	HM	SE	L	S	LxS
DMI, kg/d	18.6	17.7	20.2	16.3	8.0	0.96	< 0.01	0.07
Cumulative DMI, kg	415	385	445	370	12	0.69	<0.01	0.20
Milk, kg/d	40.6	37.0	41.5	36.6	1.8	0.88	0.02	0.66
Fat, kg/d	1.81	1.70	1.84	1.58	0.10	0.59	0.03	0.40
TP, kg/d	1.24	1.14	1.35	1.09	0.07	0.64	0.01	0.21
ECM, kg/d	45.1	41.9	46.7	40.0	2.2	0.94	0.01	0.37
L = effect of s S = effect of s		e.						

Albornoz and Allen 2018



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Studies that had favorable responses to higher starch levels or increased starch fermentability generally had higher forage or forage NDF levels

• Favorable responses

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- McCarthy et al., 2015 (28.2% of DM as F-NDF)
- Rockwell et al., 2016 (27.4% of DM as F-NDF)
- Neutral or negative responses
 - Albornoz and Allen., 2018 (~22.5% of DM as F-NDF)
 - Sun and Oba, 2014 (Diet was 39.9% forage)
 - Dann and Nelson, 2011 (Diet was ~ 50% forage)
 - Haisan et al., 2021 (~18% of DM as F-NDF)

Adequate forage NDF; physically effective NDF; uNDF₂₄₀; peuNDF₂₄₀ in rations is probably very important in fresh cows

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A case study

- · Cornell study evaluating high or low starch diets for fresh cows
- · Controlled energy/high straw dry cow approach starting 28 to 35 days before calving
- At calving, one of two fresh diets until 21 DIM
- · First cows that calved onto either ration developed significant health problems; diets adjusted and study re-started



Table 3. Ingredient and chemical composition of diets (± SD1) before and after postpartum ration changes (DM basis)

			Po	stpartum	
llem	Preparture	HSLF	LSLF	HSHF	LSHF
ingredient (% of DM)	100 200				
Com slage, conv.	42.1		***		***
BMR com slage	Shell Co.	46.1	46.1	38.6	38.5
Wheat straw	21.2	3.84	3.84	11.5	11.5
Legume stage	min.	9.62	9.62	9.82	9.62
Com meat fine	4.28	21.0	10.3	21.0	10.3
Citrus pulp	7.23	1.01	7.15	1.01	7.15
Com germ meal	1000	2.62	5.55	2.52	5.56
Saybean hulls	7.08	-	3.58	400	3.58
Soybean meal	5.27	5.87	3.86	5.87	3.86
Canota meal	4.63	2.73	2.08	2.73	2.08
Slood meal	1.05	1.94	1.93	1.94	1.93
Expetier say	1.78	1.70	2.34	1.70	2.34
Bypess fet	manufacture of the same of the	0.77	0.96	0.77	9.96
Amonic suppl	1.33		909	(994)	man.
Sodium bicarbonate	1000	0.86	0.85	0.86	0.85
Minerals/vitamins	3.35	1.99	1.72	1.99	1.72
Chemical					
CP. N	13.0 ± 0.8	16.5	15.3	15.5 ± 1.2	15.4 ± 0.8
ADF. %	26.2 ± 1.2	17.7	22.3	22.7±1.2	25 2 ± 1.2
NOF, %	42.9 ± 2.0	26.4	31.5	343±15	36.8 ± 1.5
Sugar, %	4.9 ± 0.8	3.1	3.9	3.5±0.6	45±04
Starch, %	17.4 ± 1.2	28.3	22.0	26.2 ± 1.2	21.5 ± 1.0
Fat, %	2.6 ± 0.2	3.2	3.1	4.0 ± 0.2	22408
ONDFamily to OF DM	14.9	7.7	8.9	10.5	10.9



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Table 2. Health events for cows fed either high or low starch diets for the first 3 wk postpartum.

7.7.119.2.119	Postpartum ration ¹			Parity		P-values ²			
Item ⁵	HSLF	LSLF	HSHF	LSHF	Primi	Multi	5	F	P
Multiparous, n	3	8	27	28					
Primiparous, n	4	2	11	11					
Clinical ketosis ¹	4	1.1	4	6:	6	9	0.23	0.05	0.14
DA ⁴	4	2	Đ.	0	4	2	0,22	< 0.001	0.06
RP ¹	1	2	2	1	3	3	0.32	0.05	0.20
Total disorders	9	5	6	7					

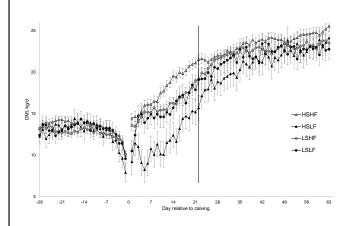
HSLF = high starch, low fiber (pre-change); LSLF = low starch, low fiber (post-change); HSHF = high starch, high fiber (post-change); LSHF = low starch, high fiber (post-change); LSHF = low starch, high fiber (post-change); ≥ S = effect of starch; F = effect of fiber; P = effect of parity; ≥ Clinical ketosis defined as rapidly decreased milk production and DMI and blood BHBA ≥ 2.6

mmoVL using Precision Xtrs, displaced abomasum by auscultation

⁴ Displaced abomasium diagnosed by auscultation.

⁵ Placenta retained for ≥ 24 h postcalving.

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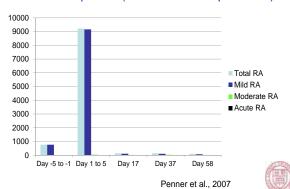


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Plasma metabolites and haptoglobin

	Low	fiber	High	fiber			P value	9
Item	High starch	Low starch	High starch	Low starch	SE	Fiber	Starch	FxS
NEFA, uEq/L	646	528	406	493	54	0.001	0.67	0.009
BHB, mg/dL	12.31	8.88	9.27	10.70	1.34	0.53	0.30	0.01
Haptoglobin, g/L	1.44	0.94	1.06	0.86	0.18	0.07	0.008	0.25

Severity of ruminal acidosis during the transition period (RA total area – pH x min)



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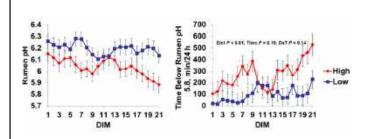
Fresh cow starch levels and acute phase response (Miner Institute and Zennoh)

- · Randomized design with 16 multiparous Holstein cows
- 55-d dry period and fed close-up diet fed starting 21 d before expected calving
- Treatments from calving to 21 DIM
 - Lower starch diet (21% starch, 37% NDF)
 - Higher starch diet (27% starch, 32% NDF)

Williams et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98(Suppl. 1):741-742.



Rumen pH and time below pH 5.8 for cows fed high and low starch fresh diets

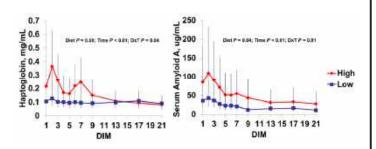


Williams et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98(Suppl. 1):741-742.



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Acute phase proteins in cows fed high and low starch fresh diets



Williams et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98(Suppl. 1):741-742.



Other studies reporting inflammatory markers with starch level or fermentability

- McCarthy et al. 2015b
 - Cows fed higher starch had higher circulating haptoglobin
- Albornoz et al., 2020
 - Cows fed high starch had higher haptoglobin, LBP, and TNF-alpha with HM corn but results were opposite at lower starch level
- Haisan et al., 2021
 - Cows fed high starch (32.8% of DM) had lower haptoglobin and serum amyloid A than cows fed lower starch (25.1% of DM)



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Can you go too far with higher peNDF/uNDF $_{240}$ /peuNDF $_{240}$ in fresh cow rations?

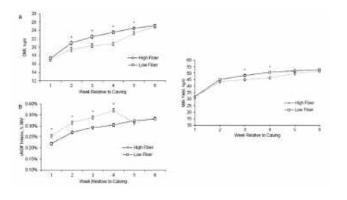
Ingredient and nutrient composition of experimental diets (LaCount et al., 2017)

		Diet	
Item	Prepartum	Low Fiber (LF)	High Fiber (HF)
Ingredients, % of ration DM		,	, ,
Conventional corn silage	45.21	42.31	38.46
Alfalfa hay	-	10.58	10.58
Straw	20.84	1.15	8.65
Corn meal	2.43	17.64	20.15
Soybean meal	-	6.03	4.73
Wheat middlings	-	4.82	1.58
Amino Plus	5.9	4.34	5.31
Canola meal	3.47	1.61	3.88
Corn gluten feed	1.74	1.61	0.47
Blood meal	2.43	0.95	1.09
Soybean hulls	6.95	2.41	-
Citrus pulp	4.52		0.79
Energy Booster	-	1.29	1.58
Rumensin, mg/d¹	439	365	334
Other	6.4	2.3	2.3
Analyses, % of ration DM			
aNDFom	43.1 ± 0.3	32.8 ± 1.4	35.3 ± 2.3
ADF	29.0 ± 0.5	21.3 ± 1.1	22.9 ± 2.1
Starch	15.6 ± 0.3	24.8 ± 1.7	24.6 ± 2.3
Sugar	3.5 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 0.7	3.9 ± 0.1
Fat	2.3 ± 0.2	3.3 ± 0.2	3.2 ± 0.2
uNDF ₂₄₀	12.8 ± 0.5	9.5 ± 0.4	12.2 ± 1.6
peNDF	33.3	21.6	23.2
MP, g/kg DM ¹	89.0	112.1	108.0

Dry matter intake, milk yield, and milk composition for cows fed low fiber (LF) or high fiber (HF) diets from d 1 to 28 postcalving. LaCount et al., 2017

				P-\	/alue
Item	LF	HF	SEM	Trt	Trt×Time
Prepartum DMI, kg/d	15	5.5		-	-
Postpartum DMI, kg/d	21.1	19.4	0.4	< 0.01	<0.01
uNDF intake, %BW	0.27	0.32	0.01	< 0.01	0.06
Milk yield, kg/d	46.2	44.7	1.0	0.26	0.001
Fat, %	3.89	4.06	1.1	0.55	0.10
Protein, %	3.27	3.20	0.06	0.31	0.41
Lactose, %	4.73	4.69	0.04	0.49	0.39
Total solids, %	12.9	13.0	0.2	0.50	0.57
ECM, kg/d	47.2	46.0	1.1	0.55	0.10
Rumination, min/d	544	543	8	0.56	0.14

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DMI, uNDF240 intake, and milk yield for cows fed High Fiber or Low Fiber diets from d 1 to 28 postpartum. From LaCount et al., 2017.

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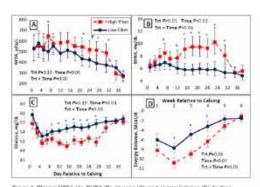
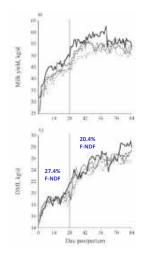


Figure 1 Plasma RCFA (A), Dritch (D), glucose (C), and energy classince (D) by sme properties to calking MEFA are Black reported as generative means with back transformed 95% confidence intervals. Significant differences indicted with an asteriak (1), thinds with a cross (f). Energy balance was calculated according to MEC (2001).

LaCount et al., 2017

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Effects of chromium propionate (CrPr) and corn grain source on (a) milk yield (kg/d) and (b) DMI (kg/d) over time during the treatment (1 to 28 d postpartum) and carryover (29 to 84 d postpartum) periods.

From Rockwell and Allen, 2016

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MP and AA in the fresh cow

Fig. 1. Calculated metabolizable protein (MP) balance in post-parturient cows (n80) fed on a ration containing (kg DM) 178 g crude protein (nitrogen \times 6.25) and 7.0M.) net energy for lactation. Individual values were calculated from daily individual measurements of crude protein intake and milk yield, and weekly measurements of milk composition.

Bell et al., 2000

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Increasing MP supply postpartum?

- · 8 Holstein cows entering second lactation
- Received either water (control) or casein infused into the abomasum to meet approximate calculated deficit in MP
- Casein was supplied at 360 g/d at 1 DIM, 720 g/d at 2 DIM, followed by daily reductions of 19.5 g/d ending at 194 g/d at 29 DIM.

Larsen et al., 2014. J. Dairy Sci. 97:5608-5622



Milk yield was increased (~ 7.2 kg/d) in cows receiving additional MP by casein infusion postpartum

From Larsen et al., 2014. J. Dairy Sci. 97:5608–5622

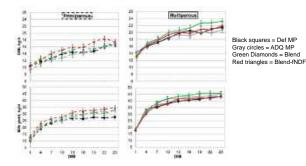


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- 80 Holstein cows (40 PP and 40 MP)
- Four dietary treatments from calving though 25 DIM

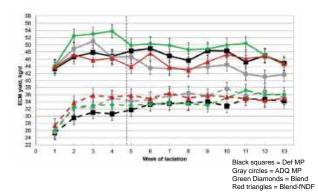
% of DM	Deficient MP	Adequate MP	Blend	Blend -fNDF
Corn silage	40.0	39.8	40.1	30.7
Alfalfa silage	12.3	12.6	12.1	9.6
Alfalfa hay	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.6
Corn grain ground	12.2	10.4	10.3	15.4
Soybean meal	17.7	15.0	12.7	12.8
Lignosulfonate SBM		11.4		
Protein and AA blend			13.9	13.8
Soy hulls	4.01			4.02
Beet pulp	2.99			2.99
RP-Met	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10
Mineral/vitamin mix	3.55	3.55	3.55	3.55
CP, %	16.9	20.2	19.9	19.7
NDFom, %	30.2	27.7	28.7	28.3
F-NDF, %	24.3	24.4	24.3	19.6
Starch, %	23.7	22.8	23.7	25.4



Parity by treatment interactions (P < 0.10) for DMI and milk yield; Tebbe and Weiss, 2021



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Parity by treatment interactions (P < 0.10) for milk yield; Tebbe and Weiss, 2021



Other areas of opportunity in feeding the fresh cow

- Strategic use of nutrients and feed additives to modulate metabolism, health, and performance
 - RP-choline, RP-Met and RP-Lys, Cr, biotin, improved trace mineral sources
 - Monensin, yeast culture/yeast products, rumen buffers, mycotoxin mitigators
- · Sugars in fresh cow diets
- Fatty acid nutrition

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- Essential FA and anti-inflammatory FA
- Macromineral nutrition
 - Ca and Mg

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Summary and implications

- Evolution in fresh cow feeding strategies over next few years – more than just tweaks of the high cow diet
- Starch level, source/fermentability, and NDF fractions all need to be considered when formulating fresh cow diets
 - Higher starch, higher peNDF/uNDF₂₄₀ diets may lead to best outcomes, but can easily limit intake by the second week postcalving if too high in peNDF/ uNDF₂₄₀
 - Heifers may benefit from replacing forage NDF with nonforage fiber sources in fresh diets
- Additional MP with AA balanced appears to improve performance and modulate protein metabolism
- Much opportunity to continue to improve our understanding of how nutritional strategies can improve fresh cow health and performance.



Transition Cows: Update on DCAD and Stumbling Blocks when Trying to Balance Rations Properly

Thomas R. Overton, Ph.D. Director, PRO-DAIRY program Department of Animal Science Cornell University, Ithaca, NY

Feeding the fresh group for better health and lactation performance



Thomas R. Overton, Ph.D. Professor and Chair

Transition cow nutrition

- The vast majority of controlled research during the past 25 years on transition cow nutrition has focused on the *dry* cow
- Most lactating cow nutrition studies did not start until three to four weeks after calving
- Several studies published over the past 5 to 7 years focused specifically on feeding the fresh cow

2

Fresh cow diets - common themes

- · Frequently based upon high cow diet
- · Some common "tweaks"
 - Lower starch

1

3

- Higher physically effective fiber
 - Usually less than 0.5 kg/d of chopped straw/hay
- Additional RUP/AA
- Additional fat
- Strategic addition of other nutrients (e.g., RP-choline)
- Success usually gauged by farm-level outcomes

Fresh diets – a few key questions

- How fermentable should fresh cow diets be?
 - do we need to feed lower starch diets to fresh cows?
 - what about starch fermentability?
- How important is physically effective NDF in fresh cow diets?
- MP supply to the postcalving cow

4

To starch, or not to starch?

Several experiments conducted by groups at University of Alberta, Miner Institute, Cornell, and Michigan State University

- Starch level in fresh diet
 - Dann and Nelson, 2011 Cornell Nutrition Conference
 - Sun and Oba. 2014. J. Dairy Sci. 97:1594-1602.
 - McCarthy et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98:3335-3350.
 - Williams et al., 2015 ADSA-ASAS Joint Annual Meeting
 - Haisan et al., 2021. J. Dairy Sci. 104:4362-4374.
- · Starch source in fresh diet
 - Rockwell and Allen. 2016. J. Dairy Sci. 99:4453-4463.
- Starch source and level in fresh diet
 - Dyck et al., 2011. J. Dairy Sci. 94:4636-4646.
 - Albornoz and Allen. 2018. J. Dairy Sci. 101:8902-8915.

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Dann and Nelson, 2011 Cornell **Nutrition Conference**

- 72 Holstein cows (2nd and greater lactation)
- · Fed high straw controlled energy diet for 40-d dry period
- · At calving, one of three starch regimens
 - Low starch (~ 21%) for first 91 DIM
 - Medium starch (~23%) for first 21 d followed by high starch (~25.5%) until 91 DIM
 - High starch (~25.5%) for first 91 DIM

Dann and Nelson, 2011 CNC

Ingredients, % of DM

Corn silage Haylage Wheat straw Corn meal Soybean meal Soybean hulls Wheat middlings

Canola meal

CP, % NDF, %

Sugar, %

AminoPlus
Other
Chemical composition
DM, %

Sugar, % Rumen fermentable starch, % Digestibility 24-h NDF, % NDF 7-h starch, % starch

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7

9

DMI and milk during first 13 wk of lactation for cows fed varying levels of starch in early lactation

Item	Low-low	Medium-High	High-High	SEM	P, Trt	P, Trt x wk	
DMI, kg/d	25.2 ^x	24.9 ^{xy}	23.7 ^y	0.5	0.06	0.09	
Milk, kg/d	47.9 ^{ab}	49.9ª	44.2 ^b	1.6	0.04	0.75	
SCM, kg/d	47.4	47.9	43.5	1.5	0.09	0.39	
NEFA, uEq/L (wk 1-3)	452 ^{aby}	577 ^{ax}	431 ^{by}	43	0.03	0.11	
BHBA, mg/dL (wk 1-3)	9.3	8.8	7.8	1.1	0.15	0.97	
ab Least squares means within a row without a common superscript differ (P ≤ 0.05). xy Least squares means within a row without a common superscript differ (P ≤ 0.10).							

Dann and Nelson, 2011 CNC

Effects of feeding a high-fiber byproduct feedstuff as a substitute for barley grain on numen fermentation and productivity of dairy cown in early lactation

- 61 Holstein cows (22 PP and 39 MP)
- Treatments fed from calving through 12 wk postpartum

Table 1. Ingredient and analyzed chemical composition (mean ± standard error) of

low, medium, and high starch diets fed to early lactation Holstein cows

34.6 ± 0.1 11.4 ± 0.4 4.1 6.9 ± 0.4 11.4 ± 0.1 9.7 6.1

3.1

10.2 ± 0.3

49.5 ± 0.7

 6.1 ± 0.1

 21.0 ± 0.3 16.8 ± 0.5

58.4 ± 0.6

34.6 ± 0.1 11.7 ± 0.3 4.1 11.1 ± 0.1 11.9 ± 0.1 6.5 ± 0.2 3.9 ± 0.1

6.1

10.1 ± 0.3

50.1 ± 0.9 17.0 ± 0.2 33.9 ± 0.4 5.8 ± 0.1 23.2 ± 0.3

18.9 ± 0.6

57.3 ± 0.5 76.7 ± 1.2

- Control (high starch; 29.2% of DM)
- DDGS (low starch; 19.1% of DM)

% of DM	Control	DDGS
Barley silage	43.0	43.1
Corn grain, rolled	21.6	21.6
Barley grain, rolled	17.3	
Wheat DDGS	***	17.2
Corn gluten meal	8.3	
Beet pulp	3.2	12.3
Balance	6.6	5.8
CP, %	17.3	19.4
NDF, %	27.2	30.5
Starch, %	29.2	19.1



34.6 ± 0.1 11.4 ± 0.4 4.1 16.7 ± 0.4 11.9 ± 0.1 3.2 1.8 ± 0.1

6.1

10.2 ± 0.2

49.6 ± 0.7 16.7 ± 0.2 31.9 ± 0.3 5.9 ± 0.1 25.5 ± 0.3

20.2 ± 0.5

54.0 ± 0.8 74.5 ± 1.2

Item	Control		DDG	DDGS		P	value
Milk, kg/d	35.3		34.9	34.9		0.83	
Fat, kg/d	1.33	1.33		1.31			0.85
CP, kg/d	0.97	0.97			0.03		1.00
ECM, kg/d	35.6		35.4		1.03		0.88
	PP	MP	PP	MP		TRT	TRT*PAR
DMI, kg/d	14.7	21.3	16.2	20.1	0.45	0.62	<0.001
Rumen pH, mean	6.33	3	6.3	0	0.07	0.78	
pH < 5.8, min/d	126		108		49.4	0.80	
Area, pH x min/d	28.8		16.6	6	11.3		0.53

Results

Sun and Oba, 2014



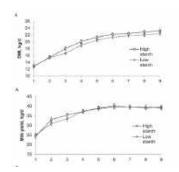
- M. M. McCarthy, "T Yakes," C. M. Ryans, '0, D. Machas, and T. R. Dwatter, Topical and of hand feature, Const Structure, Mann. (V. 1465).
- 70 Holstein cows (21 PP and 49 MP)
- Fed high straw, moderate energy diet during close-up
- At calving, fed one of two rations
 - Low starch (~ 20.9% starch; 35.9% NDF)
 - Higher starch (~ 25.5% starch; 33.6% NDF)
 - · Beginning at 22 DIM, all cows fed higher starch ration
- Also fed either 0 mg/d monensin or 400 mg/d prepartum/450 mg/d postpartum via topdress pellet

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Diet Composition, % of DM

Item	Prepartum	Postp	artum
		High Starch	Low Starch
Corn Silage	39.5		
BMR Corn Silage	_	37.0	37.0
Haylage	_	9.3	9.3
Wheat Straw	20.5	11.1	11.1
Corn meal, finely ground	3.9	20.2	9.9
Corn Germ Meal	_	2.4	5.4
Citrus Pulp	6.6	0.9	6.7
Soy Hulls	6.6	(–	3.4
Soybean Meal	5.0	5.5	3.7
Canola Meal	4.3	2.6	2.0
Blood Meal	1.0	1.9	1.9
Supplements	6.6	5.3	5.9
Topdress	6.1	4.2	4.2



DMI and milk yield for cows fed low vs. high starch postpartum.

From McCarthy et al. 2015

	DMI	Milk yield
	P, starch x wk	P, starch x wk
Wk 1 to 3	0.04	0.002
Wk 1 to 9	0.32	<0.001



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- 48 Holstein cows entering 2+ lactation
- 2 x 2 factorial
 - control vs. Cr-prop peripartum
 - Dry ground vs. High Moisture corn postpartum through d 28

% of DM	Dry corn	HM corn
Corn silage	25.0	25.0
Alfalfa silage	19.2	19.2
Alfalfa hay	11.8	11.8
Dry ground corn	23.3	
High-moisture corn		23.3
Soybean meal	12.9	12.9
Vitamin-mineral mix	7.8	7.8
CP, %	16.2	16.2
NDF, %	31.4	31.1
Starch, %	26.4	26.5



Results (d 1 to 28 postpartum)

Item	Dry corn	HM corn	SE	P value
Milk, kg/d	38.5	41.4	1.65	0.02
Fat, kg/d	1.95	1.99	0.13	0.33
TP, kg/d	1.27	1.32	0.06	0.28
ECM, kg/d	47.9	49.5	2.61	0.18
DMI, kg/d	18.1	18.6	0.7	0.53
Cumulative DMI, kg	507	521	20	0.51

Rockwell and Allen, 2016

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source and content in postpartum dairy cow diets: on plasma metabolites and reproductive processes

• 40 Holstein cows (16 PP and 24 MP)

Three dietary treatments from calving until 70 DIM

% of DM	Alfalfa silage	Barley silage	Barley silage + starch
Alfalfa silage	44.7		
Barley silage		44.6	40.6
Alfalfa hay	10.0	10.0	10.1
Corn starch			4.0
Com	25.4	20.3	4.8
Barley	10.2	4.8	4.8
Balance of mix	10.4	20.3	20.3
CP, %	17.1	18.8	18.4
NDF, %	25.8	30.9	28.8
Starch, %	25.2	23.3	26.7



Results (d 1 to 70 postpartum)

Item	AS	BS	BS+S	SE	P va	alue
					Source	Level
DMI, kg/d	19.5	18.4	19.1	0.6	0.31	0.43
Milk, kg/d	35.7	35.8	38.3	1.7	0.49	0.29
Fat, kg/d	1.30	1.34	1.36	0.57	0.44	0.82
TP, kg/d	1.04	1.08	1.14	0.44	0.21	0.28

Source: AS vs (BS + BS+S) Level: BS vs BS+S



Dyck et al., 2011

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- 52 Holstein cows entering 2+ lactation
- 2 x 2 factorial arrangement of treatments (calving to 23 DIM)
 - Low (22%) starch vs high (28%) starch
 - Dry ground corn vs high-moisture corn

	Low s	tarch	High s	starch
% of DM	Dry com	HM corn	Dry corn	HM corn
Alfalfa silage	37.0	37.1	37.7	37.0
Grass hay	8.25	8.35	8.35	8.21
Dry ground corn	27.5		35.4	
High-moisture corn		28.1		36.2
Soyhulls	11.0	11.0	1.87	2.18
Soybean meal	11.7	11.1	12.2	12.4
Balance of mix	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
CP, %	17.2	16.7	17.3	16.9
NDF, %	33.0	33.0	28.3	27.6
Starch, %	21.4	21.9	27.1	27.8



Results (d 1 to 23 postpartum)

	Low sta	rch	High st	High starch P value		P valu		
Item	Dry	HM	Dry	HM	SE	L	S	LxS
DMI, kg/d	18.6	17.7	20.2	16.3	8.0	0.96	< 0.01	0.07
Cumulative DMI, kg	415	385	445	370	12	0.69	<0.01	0.20
Milk, kg/d	40.6	37.0	41.5	36.6	1.8	0.88	0.02	0.66
Fat, kg/d	1.81	1.70	1.84	1.58	0.10	0.59	0.03	0.40
TP, kg/d	1.24	1.14	1.35	1.09	0.07	0.64	0.01	0.21
ECM, kg/d	45.1	41.9	46.7	40.0	2.2	0.94	0.01	0.37
L = effect of s S = effect of s		e.						

Albornoz and Allen 2018



19 20

Studies that had favorable responses to higher starch levels or increased starch fermentability generally had higher forage or forage NDF levels

- Favorable responses
 - McCarthy et al., 2015 (28.2% of DM as F-NDF)
 - Rockwell et al., 2016 (27.4% of DM as F-NDF)
- Neutral or negative responses
 - Albornoz and Allen., 2018 (~22.5% of DM as F-NDF)
 - Sun and Oba, 2014 (Diet was 39.9% forage)
 - Dann and Nelson, 2011 (Diet was ~ 50% forage)
 - Haisan et al., 2021 (~18% of DM as F-NDF)

Adequate forage NDF; physically effective NDF; uNDF₂₄₀; peuNDF₂₄₀ in rations is probably very important in fresh cows

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A case study

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- · Cornell study evaluating high or low starch diets for fresh cows
- · Controlled energy/high straw dry cow approach starting 28 to 35 days before calving
- At calving, one of two fresh diets until 21 DIM
- · First cows that calved onto either ration developed significant health problems; diets adjusted and study re-started



Table 3. Ingredient and chemical composition of diets (± SD1) before and after postpartum

			Postpartum ²						
llem	Preparture	HSLF	LSLF	HSHF	LSHF				
ingredient (% of DM)	100	1112.001	77.00		81007				
Com slage, conv.	42.1		7000	- err -	CHINA, CO.				
BMR com slage	Shell Co.	46.1	46.1	38.6	38.5				
Wheat straw	21.2	3.84	3.84	11.5	11.5				
Legume stage	min.	9.62	9.62	9.82	9.62				
Com meat fine	4.28	21.0	10.3	21.0	10.3				
Citrus pulp	7.23	1.01	7.15	1.01	7.15				
Com germ meal	100	2.62	5.55	2.52	5.56				
Saybean hulls	7.08	-	3.58	499	3.58				
Soybean meal	5.27	5.87	3.86	5.87	3.86				
Canota meal	4.63	2.73	2.08	2.73	2.08				
Slood meal	1.05	1.94	1.93	1.94	1.93				
Expeller soy	1.78	1.70	2.34	1.70	2.34				
Bypess fet	made Co.	0.77	0.96	0.77	0.96				
Amonic suppl	1.33		999	(998)	-				
Sodium bicarbonate	1000	0.86	0.85	0.86	0.85				
Minerals/vitamins	3.35	1.99	1.72	1.99	1.72				
Chemical									
CP, N	13.0 ± 0.8	16.5	15.3	15.5 ± 1.2	15.4 ± 0.8				
ADF: %	28.2 ± 1.2	17.7	22.3	22.7 ± 1.2	25 2 ± 1.2				
NDF, %	42.9 ± 2.0	26.4	31.5	343±15	36.8 ± 1.5				
Sugar, %	4.9 ± 0.8	3.1	3.9	3.5±0.6	45±04				
Starch, %	17.4 ± 1.2	128.3	22.0	26.2 ± 1.2	21.5 ± 1.0				
Fat, %	2.6 ± 0.2	3.2	3.1	4.0 ± 0.2	22408				
(NDFam) 15 of DM	14.9	7.7	8.9	10.5	10.9				

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Chemical composition was analyzed on 4-wk composite samples (n = 1 for HSLF, n = 1 for LSLF, n = 7 for HSRF, and n = 6 for LSHF).

**HSLF = high starch, low fiber (pre-change); LSLF = low starch, low fiber (post-change), HSHF = high starch, high fiber (post-change).

**Determined using well chemistry methods on a single composite sample from each diel (Camberland Valley Analytics).

Table 2. Health events for cows fed either high or low starch diets for the first 3 wk postpartum.

	Postpartum ration ¹				Parity		P-values ²		
Item ⁵	HSLF	LSLF	HSHF	LSHF	Primi	Multi	5	F	P
Multiparous, n	3	8	27	28					
Primiparous, n	4	2	11	11					
Clinical ketosis ¹	4	1.1	4	6:	6	9	0.23	0.05	0.14
DA ⁴	4	2	Đ.	0	4	2	0,22	< 0.001	0.06
RP ¹	1	2	2	1	3	3	0.32	0.05	0.20
Total disorders	9	5	6	7					

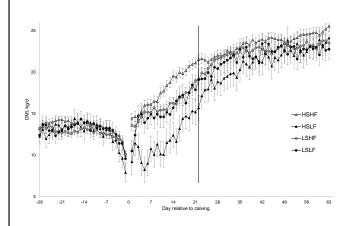
HSLF = high starch, low fiber (pre-change); LSLF = low starch, low fiber (post-change); HSHF = high starch, high fiber (post-change); LSHF = low starch, high fiber (post-change); LSHF = low starch, high fiber (post-change); ≥ S = effect of starch; F = effect of fiber; P = effect of parity; ≥ Clinical ketosis defined as rapidly decreased milk production and DMI and blood BHBA ≥ 2.6

mmoVL using Precision Xtrs, displaced abomasum by auscultation

⁴ Displaced abomasium diagnosed by auscultation.

⁵ Placenta retained for ≥ 24 h postcalving.

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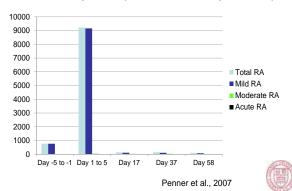


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Plasma metabolites and haptoglobin

	Low	fiber	High fiber				P value	
Item	High starch	Low starch	High starch	Low starch	SE	Fiber	Starch	FxS
NEFA, uEq/L	646	528	406	493	54	0.001	0.67	0.009
BHB, mg/dL	12.31	8.88	9.27	10.70	1.34	0.53	0.30	0.01
Haptoglobin, g/L	1.44	0.94	1.06	0.86	0.18	0.07	0.008	0.25

Severity of ruminal acidosis during the transition period (RA total area – pH x min)



28

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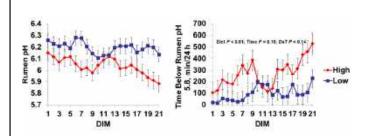
Fresh cow starch levels and acute phase response (Miner Institute and Zennoh)

- · Randomized design with 16 multiparous Holstein cows
- 55-d dry period and fed close-up diet fed starting 21 d before expected calving
- Treatments from calving to 21 DIM
 - Lower starch diet (21% starch, 37% NDF)
 - Higher starch diet (27% starch, 32% NDF)

Williams et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98(Suppl. 1):741-742.



Rumen pH and time below pH 5.8 for cows fed high and low starch fresh diets

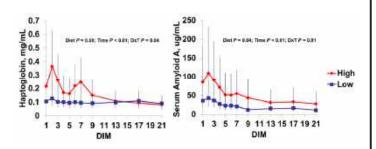


Williams et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98(Suppl. 1):741-742.



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Acute phase proteins in cows fed high and low starch fresh diets



Williams et al., 2015. J. Dairy Sci. 98(Suppl. 1):741-742.



Other studies reporting inflammatory markers with starch level or fermentability

- McCarthy et al. 2015b
 - Cows fed higher starch had higher circulating haptoglobin
- Albornoz et al., 2020
 - Cows fed high starch had higher haptoglobin, LBP, and TNF-alpha with HM corn but results were opposite at lower starch level
- Haisan et al., 2021
 - Cows fed high starch (32.8% of DM) had lower haptoglobin and serum amyloid A than cows fed lower starch (25.1% of DM)



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31 3

Can you go too far with higher peNDF/uNDF $_{240}$ /peuNDF $_{240}$ in fresh cow rations?

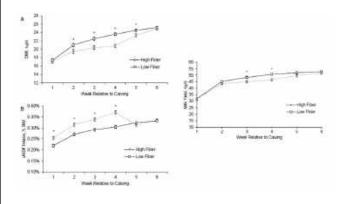
Ingredient and nutrient composition of experimental diets (LaCount et al., 2017)

	Diet			
Item	Prepartum	Low Fiber (LF)	High Fiber (HF)	
Ingredients, % of ration DM				
Conventional corn silage	45.21	42.31	38.46	
Alfalfa hay		10.58	10.58	
Straw	20.84	1.15	8.65	
Corn meal	2.43	17.64	20.15	
Soybean meal	-	6.03	4.73	
Wheat middlings	-	4.82	1.58	
Amino Plus	5.9	4.34	5.31	
Canola meal	3.47	1.61	3.88	
Corn gluten feed	1.74	1.61	0.47	
Blood meal	2.43	0.95	1.09	
Soybean hulls	6.95	2.41	-	
Citrus pulp	4.52		0.79	
Energy Booster	-	1.29	1.58	
Rumensin, mg/d1	439	365	334	
Other	6.4	2.3	2.3	
Analyses, % of ration DM				
aNDFom	43.1 ± 0.3	32.8 ± 1.4	35.3 ± 2.3	
ADF	29.0 ± 0.5	21.3 ± 1.1	22.9 ± 2.1	
Starch	15.6 ± 0.3	24.8 ± 1.7	24.6 ± 2.3	
Sugar	3.5 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 0.7	3.9 ± 0.1	
Fat	2.3 ± 0.2	3.3 ± 0.2	3.2 ± 0.2	
uNDF ₂₄₀	12.8 ± 0.5	9.5 ± 0.4	12.2 ± 1.6	
peNDF	33.3	21.6	23.2	
MP, g/kg DM ¹	89.0	112.1	108.0	

Dry matter intake, milk yield, and milk composition for cows fed low fiber (LF) or high fiber (HF) diets from d 1 to 28 postcalving. LaCount et al., 2017

				P-Value	
Item	LF	HF	SEM	Trt	Trt×Time
Prepartum DMI, kg/d	15	5.5		-	-
Postpartum DMI, kg/d	21.1	19.4	0.4	<0.01	<0.01
uNDF intake, %BW	0.27	0.32	0.01	<0.01	0.06
Milk yield, kg/d	46.2	44.7	1.0	0.26	0.001
Fat, %	3.89	4.06	1.1	0.55	0.10
Protein, %	3.27	3.20	0.06	0.31	0.41
Lactose, %	4.73	4.69	0.04	0.49	0.39
Total solids, %	12.9	13.0	0.2	0.50	0.57
ECM, kg/d	47.2	46.0	1.1	0.55	0.10
Rumination, min/d	544	543	8	0.56	0.14

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DMI, uNDF240 intake, and milk yield for cows fed High Fiber or Low Fiber diets from d 1 to 28 postpartum. From LaCount et al., 2017.

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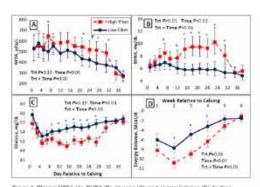
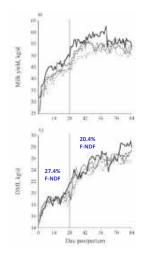


Figure 1 Plasma RCFA (A), Dritch (D), glucose (C), and energy classince (D) by sme properties to calking MEFA are Black reported as generative means with back transformed 95% confidence intervals. Significant differences indicted with an asteriak (1), thinds with a cross (f). Energy balance was calculated according to MEC (2001).

LaCount et al., 2017

37

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200

Effects of chromium propionate (CrPr) and corn grain source on (a) milk yield (kg/d) and (b) DMI (kg/d) over time during the treatment (1 to 28 d postpartum) and carryover (29 to 84 d postpartum) periods.

From Rockwell and Allen, 2016

38

MP and AA in the fresh cow

Fig. 1. Calculated metabolizable protein (MP) balance in post-parturient cows (n 80) fed on a ration containing (kg DM) 178 g crude protein (nitrogen \times 6.25) and 7.0 MJ net energy for lactation. Individual values were calculated from daily individual measurements of crude protein intake and milk yield, and weekly measurements of milk composition.

Bell et al., 2000

40



Increasing MP supply postpartum?

- 8 Holstein cows entering second lactation
- Received either water (control) or casein infused into the abomasum to meet approximate calculated deficit in MP
- Casein was supplied at 360 g/d at 1 DIM, 720 g/d at 2 DIM, followed by daily reductions of 19.5 g/d ending at 194 g/d at 29 DIM.

Larsen et al., 2014. J. Dairy Sci. 97:5608-5622



Milk yield was increased (~7.2 kg/d) in cows receiving additional MP by casein infusion postpartum

From Larsen et al., 2014. J. Dairy Sci. 97:5608–5622

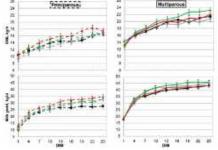


42



- 80 Holstein cows (40 PP and 40 MP)
- · Four dietary treatments from calving though 25 DIM

% of DM	Deficient MP	Adequate MP	Blend	Blend -fNDF
Corn silage	40.0	39.8	40.1	30.7
Alfalfa silage	12.3	12.6	12.1	9.6
Alfalfa hay	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.6
Corn grain ground	12.2	10.4	10.3	15.4
Soybean meal	17.7	15.0	12.7	12.8
Lignosulfonate SBM	-	11.4		
Protein and AA blend	-		13.9	13.8
Soy hulls	4.01			4.02
Beet pulp	2.99			2.99
RP-Met	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10
Mineral/vitamin mix	3.55	3.55	3.55	3.55
CP, %	16.9	20.2	19.9	19.7
NDFom, %	30.2	27.7	28.7	28.3
F-NDF, %	24.3	24.4	24.3	19.6
Starch, %	23.7	22.8	23.7	25.4

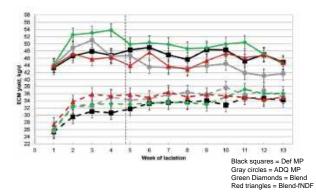


Black squares = Def MP Gray circles = ADQ MP Green Diamonds = Blend Red triangles = Blend-fNDF

Parity by treatment interactions (P < 0.10) for DMI and milk yield; Tebbe and Weiss, 2021



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Parity by treatment interactions (P < 0.10) for milk yield; Tebbe and Weiss, 2021



Other areas of opportunity in feeding the fresh cow

- Strategic use of nutrients and feed additives to modulate metabolism, health, and performance
 - RP-choline, RP-Met and RP-Lys, Cr, biotin, improved trace mineral sources
 - Monensin, yeast culture/yeast products, rumen buffers, mycotoxin mitigators
- · Sugars in fresh cow diets
- Fatty acid nutrition

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- Essential FA and anti-inflammatory FA
- Macromineral nutrition
 - Ca and Mg

46



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Summary and implications

- Evolution in fresh cow feeding strategies over next few years – more than just tweaks of the high cow diet
- Starch level, source/fermentability, and NDF fractions all need to be considered when formulating fresh cow diets
 - Higher starch, higher peNDF/uNDF₂₄₀ diets may lead to best outcomes, but can easily limit intake by the second week postcalving if too high in peNDF/ uNDF₂₄₀
 - Heifers may benefit from replacing forage NDF with nonforage fiber sources in fresh diets
- Additional MP with AA balanced appears to improve performance and modulate protein metabolism
- Much opportunity to continue to improve our understanding of how nutritional strategies can improve fresh cow health and performance.



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The Transition Period: Rethinking an Old Problem NASEM Nutrient Requirements

Dr. James K. Drackley University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign

The Transition Period: Rethinking an Old Problem NASEM Nutrient Requirements

James K. Drackley, Ph.D.

Professor of Animal Sciences University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign

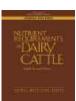






Nutrient Requirements of Dairy Cattle (8th rev. ed.)
National Academies of Sciences, Engineering and
Medicine (NASEM), 2021

- Replaces "NRC", 2001
- 21 chapters, over 500 pages
- \$149.95 (nap.edu)
- New computer model (similar interface), expanded outputs (free download)
- New material as well as extensively revised material from NRC 2001



1

2

Chapter 12 Dry and Transition Cows



2

Changes from NRC 2001

- Updated literature review
- New DMI equations
- Gestation requirement model structure
- Energy requirements and dietary energy concentrations
- · Mineral requirements
- · Vitamin E requirements

3

4

Estimated DMI by NASEM 2021

- Equations include parity, diet NDF, and week prepartum
 Week used because of uncertainty of calving date
- Insufficient data for true meta-analysis
- Insufficient data to evaluate interactions among parity, diet, and time prepartum
- Data from 2001 and all newer data available were used
- Almost all experiments used high forage diets; diets with byproduct NDF sources not represented

Estimating DMI using NASEM 2021

- Cows (% of BW):
 - = 1.47 [(0.365 0.0028 × NDF) week] 0.035 × week² where week = week from calving (i.e., it is negative) If cow > 3 wk from parturition, week = -3
- Heifers: Cow equation x 0.88

Insufficient new data, therefore average parity effect from 2001 was retained

5

Estimated DMI by cows using NASEM 2021

7

New DMI equations

For far-off dry cows (>3 wk prepartum)

- DMI will be between 1.8 and 2% of BW
- · Negatively correlated with dietary NDF

For close-up dry cows (<3 wk prepartum)

- DMI starts decreasing ~2.5 wk prepartum
- · Rate of decline negatively correlated with dietary NDF
- At about wk 1 prepartum DMI about the same for all NDF (1.65% of BW)

8

Calculation of gestation requirements

- Mass model for conceptus starts at d 12 of gestation (compared with d 190 in NRC 2001)
- Function of maternal BW (heifer has smaller calf)
- Energy = 0.88 Mcal/kg
- CP = 125 g/kg



Gestation energy and protein requirements

	Gestation	NEL, Mcal/d	Gestation MP, g/d		
Day of gestation	NRC 2001	NASEM 2021	NRC 2001	NASEM 2021	
50	0	0.04	0	3	
100	0	0.1	0	13	
150	0	0.5	0	43	
200	2.7	1.4	199	125	
220	3.0	2.0	245	185	
250	3.4	3.5	306	320	
275	3.8	5.4	357	489	

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Close-up starch, fiber, and energy

- Almost impossible to separate these effects (e.g., as NDF goes up starch and NEL usually go down)
- Increasing prefresh energy (more starch, less NDF):
 - ➤Increases prepartum DMI
 - ➤ Generally little effect on postpartum DMI
 - >Most studies show no effect on milk yield

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Use of pre-fresh diet to adapt rumen

- To "help rumen deal with higher starch postpartum diet"
 - "Based on available data, benefits of feeding a diet of moderate starch and fiber to transition ruminal cells and rumen tissue morphology from a high-forage diet to a higher-starch lactation diet are not evident."

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NEL concentration of diets: dry cows

Ingredient	% of DM
Corn silage	40.0
Wheat straw	40.8
Corn gluten feed	8.05
Soybean meal	5.9
Canola meal	3.0
Urea	0.30
Minerals and vitamins	1.95

1790 lb, 240 DCC, 30.8 lb/d DMI

- NEL NRC 2001: 0.63 Mcal/lb (19.5 Mcal/d)
- NEL NASEM 2021: 0.71 Mcal/lb (21.8 Mcal/d)

Requirements also increase!

Comparison of energy requirements - dry cows

Ingredient	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021
NEL maintenance, Mcal/d	11.4	15.2
NEL pregnancy, Mcal/d	3.6	3.1
Total NEL required, Mcal/d	15.0	18.3

1790 lb, 240 DCC, 30.8 lb/d DMI

13 14

Comparison of nutrient balances - dry cows

Ingredient	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021
ME balance, Mcal/d	6.3	5.4
NEL balance, Mcal/d	4.5	3.6
MP balance, g/d	219	373

1790 lb, 240 DCC, 30.8 lb/d DMI

Both dietary energy prediction and energy requirements are higher with NASEM 2021.

Must use dietary NEL calculated by NASEM to be accurate!

NEL concentration of diets: close-up cows

Ingredient	% of DM
Corn silage	32.1
Wheat straw	36.3
Corn gluten feed	8.2
Soy hulls	6.6
Wheat midds	6.2
Soybean meal	5.8
Canola meal	2.6
Urea	0.25
Minerals and vitamins	1.95

1790 lb, 270 DCC, 28.6 lb/d DMI

- NEL NRC 2001: 0.65 Mcal/lb (18.6 Mcal/d)
- NEL NASEM 2021: 0.73 Mcal/kg (20.9 Mcal/d)

Requirements also increase!

15 16

Comparison of energy requirements – close-up cows

Ingredient	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021
NEL maintenance, Mcal/d	11.4	15.2
NEL pregnancy, Mcal/d	3.6	5.2
Total NEL required, Mcal/d	15.0	20.4

1790 lb, 270 DCC, 28.6 lb/d DMI

Comparison of nutrient balances - close-up cows

Ingredient	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021
ME balance, Mcal/d	5.0	0.5
NEL balance, Mcal/d	3.6	0.3
MP balance, g/d	240	-113

1790 lb, 270 DCC, 28.6 lb/d DMI

Both dietary energy prediction and energy requirements are higher with NASEM 2021.

Must use dietary NEL calculated by NASEM to be accurate!

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NEL concentration of diets: fresh cows

% of DM
30.0
1.0
15.0
17.0
25.05
3.0
2.0
2.5
2.0
0.2
2.25

1375 lb, 15 DIM, 46.2 lb/d DMI, 88 lb/d milk

- NEL NRC 2001: 0.76 Mcal/kg (35.1 Mcal/d)
- NEL NASEM 2021: 0.84 Mcal/kg (38.8 Mcal/d)

Requirements also increase!

Comparison of energy requirements - fresh cows

Ingredient	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021
NEL maintenance, Mcal/d	10.0	12.5
NEL milk, Mcal/d	29.0	29.0
Total NEL required, Mcal/d	39.0	41.5
NEL balance, Mcal/d	-3.9	-3.4

1375 lb, 15 DIM, 46.2 lb/d DMI, 88 lb/d milk

Both dietary energy prediction and energy requirements are higher with NASEM 2021.

Must use dietary NEL calculated by NASEM to be accurate!

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Summary – diet energy concentrations (Mcal/lb DM)

Cow class	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021
Far-off dry cows	0.63	0.71
Close-up dry cows	0.65	0.73
Fresh cows	0.76	0.84

Don't mix systems!

Overall changes in energy balance are small.

Summary - Energy

- Energy requirements for NASEM 2021 are about 17-18 Mcal/d NEL for dry cows and about 19-20 Mcal/d NEL for transition cows (mature Holstein).
- Diets will be higher in calculated energy with NASEM 2021 than with NRC 2001.
- Balances will be lower with NASEM 2021 than with NRC 2001 – closer to what is observed in field.

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22

Dry cow dietary protein and milk production

- For NRC (2001) most studies fed treatments during entire dry period, not just pre-fresh
- Milk and milk composition during first 3 wk to 17 wk were the primary outcome variables
- In a few studies, diets were as low as 10% CP without effect on milk production (cows)
 - Diet with 10% CP prepartum remained in protein balance at d -10 (Putnam and Varga, 1998)

Dry cow dietary CP and milk production

Meta-analysis (Lean et al., 2013)

12 studies, 26 treatment comparisons

Control diets: 9.7 to 14.1% CP (avg. = 12.3)

Treatment diets: 11.7 to 23.4% CP (avg. = 15.9%)

Milk yield first 28 d to 120 d (avg = 65 DIM)

Average increase in milk = 0.1 kg/d (-0.6 to +1.2 kg/d)

23

Dry cow dietary MP and milk production

Meta-analysis (Husnain and Santos, 2019)

27 comparisons for heifers

97 comparisons for cows

Mostly prefresh treatment comparisons

Diets: 9 to 21% CP (avg. = 14.0%)

6 to 10% MP (avg. 9.3% for cows; 6 to 13%)

MP calculated according to NRC 2001

Dry cow dietary CP and milk production

- No difference in milk yield for cows
 - >Milk protein increased 60 g/1000 g MP intake in cows producing >36 kg/d milk
- Increased milk and milk protein in first lactation cows

(Husnain and Santos, 2019)

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Protein - NASEM 2001 model

Far-off dry cow and heifer

25

- ~11% CP (6.5% MP) will ~meet requirement
- 12% CP (7.2% MP) recommended because of limited data and potentially inadequate RDP
- Translates to 864 g/d (DMI 12 kg/d) to 1008 g/d (DMI 14 kg/d)

Protein - NASEM 2001 model

Close-up cow and heifer

- ~13% CP (7.8% MP) will meet requirement
- Translates to 936 g/d (DMI 12 kg/d) to 1014 g/d (DMI 13 kg/d)
- Might not be optimum for heifers
- Model ignores MP for colostrum and immune function

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Amino acid supply - close-up cows

Item DE Non-Protein Arg His Ile Leu	Predicted Supply Mcal or g/d 28 57 27 66 96
Lys Met	86 25
Phe	62
Thr	60
Trp	14
Val	70

Lys:Met = 3.44

Targets (not NASEM): Lys = 90 g/d Met = 31 g/d Lys:Met = 2.9:1

Would likely benefit from rumen-protected Met supplementation

Specific minerals/vitamins for transition cows

- Negative DCAD, Ca, P, Mg for hypocalcemia
- Higher vitamin E based on preventing mastitis, RP, and metritis
 - 1000 IU/d for dry cows and 2000 IU/d for prefresh cows (Holsteins)
- No other specific requirements

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Dietary concentrations (% of DM) required to meet the known requirements for macrominerals

Mineral	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021	Recommended ¹
Ca	0.45	0.37	1.5 - 2.0
P	0.23	0.21	0.35
Mg	0.12	0.13	0.40
K	0.52	0.65	1.0
Na	0.10	0.16	0.16
CI	0.15	0.13	0.7 - 0.9
S	0.20	0.20	0.20 - 0.35

¹ J. K. Drackley recommendation

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Dietary concentrations (mg/kg of DM) required to meet the known requirements for trace minerals

Mineral	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021	Recommended ¹
Co	0.11	0.20	0.20
Cu	13	19	19
1	0.4	0.54	0.54
Fe	13	14	14
Mn	18	41	60
Se	0.3	0.3	0.3
Zn	22	30	60

¹ J. K. Drackley recommendation

32

Dietary supply (IU/d) required to meet the known requirements for vitamins

Vitamin	NRC, 2001	NASEM, 2021	Recommended ¹
Α	82,610	81,500	100,000
D	22,530	22,000	25,000
E	1202	2000	2000

¹ J. K. Drackley recommendation

33

34

No requirement established

- Cr
 - Essentiality recognized but insufficient data to establish an adequate intake
 - Analytical challenges
- Choline
 - Committee acknowledges response to supplementation during transition but declined to establish a requirement
 - Endogenous synthesis
 - Variable results during lactation





Transition Cow Choline Supplementation: Harnessing **Long-term Benefits from Short-term Supplementation**

Dr. Heather White Associate Professor, Department of Animal & Dairy Sciences University of Wisconsin-Madison





Transition Cow Choline Supplementation:

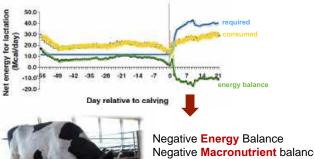
harnessing long-term benefits from short-term supplementation

Dr. Heather White Associate Professor, Department of Animal & Dairy Sciences University of Wisconsin-Madison

2

Peripartum Challenges and Opportunities 📆



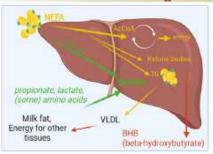


Negative Macronutrient balance Negative Micronutrient balance

Peripartum Challenges and Opportunities 📆



Nutrients that modulate these pathways can b e beneficial.





Negative Energy Balance Negative Macronutrient balance Negative Micronutrient balance

3

Nutrition Can Propagate our Impact



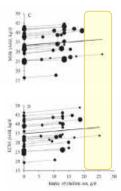
- Impact of RP Choline supplementation on lactation performance
- Mechanism of action to support production
- Impact of supplementing cows with RP Choline on offspring growth and health

Choline as a Nutritional Intervention



Choline meta-analysis of 23 transition cow studies; 74 treatment means; 1,938 cows

- Energy-corrected milk: Increased 1.61
- Milk fat yield: Increased 0.08 kg/day
- Milk protein yield: Increased 0.06 kg/day
- DMI: Increased pre- and postpartum 0.28 and 0.47 kg/d



5

Long-Lasting Benefits of Peripartum Supplementation



No choline in transition

Choline in transition Choline, P = 0.09 holine x Time, P = 0.80

6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15





feeding gates

 Treatment additives were balanced for non-choline nutrients and amount, and mixed into the TMR



Control: no RPC

Effects of Prepartum RPC Dose on

Postpartum Performance

- RPC1_{pp}: recommended dose (15 g choline ion; ReaShure, Balchem, Corp)
- RPC2_{pp}: recommended dose (15 g choline ion; concentrated RPC prototype, Balchem, Corp)
- RPC2_{HD}: high dose (22 g choline ion; concentrated RPC prototype, Balchem, Corp)

Prepartum: Individual Cow DMI Increasing prepartum RPC 8



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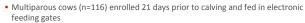
100

10/day

ECM.

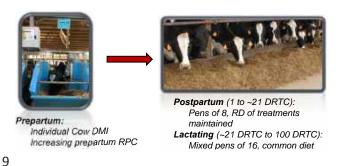
80

Effects of Rumen Protected Choline Supplementation on Cow and Calf Performance

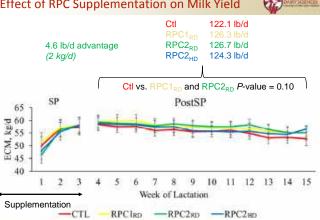


Week after calving

Treatments mixed into the TMR



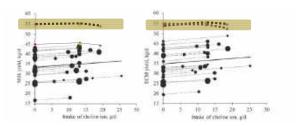
Effect of RPC Supplementation on Milk Yield



10

Milk Production compared with Meta Analysis





Overall Production Perspective:

During and after supplementation, Milk yield and ECM were ~30 - 37% greater than Meta-Analysis average

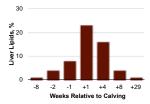
12

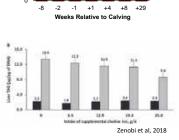


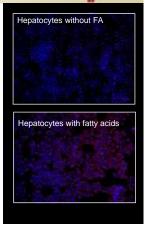
What is the mechanism of choline's effects during, and AFTER. supplementation of RP choline??

Fatty Liver and Cellular Lipids



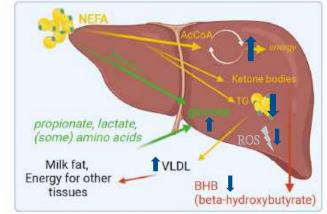






Choline Shifts Pathways in Liver Cells



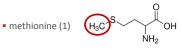


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Methyl Group Metabolism

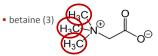


Methyl groups come from methyl donors





• choline (3) H₃C-N-CH₂-CH₂-OH



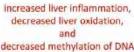
• folate (5-methyltetrahydrofolate; 1)

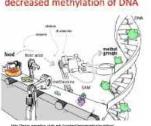
CH₃

15

13

Lack of methyl donors across species





What does this mean to the calf in utero?

16

Calves born to Cows fed RP Choline have increased average daily gain (ADG)



Birth to ~50 weeks of age by <u>heifers</u>

2015 0.80 vs. 0.85 kg/d P = 0.06 n = 35 2017 0.77 vs. 0.82 kg/d P = 0.09 n = 46 Birth to 5 weeks of age by <u>bulls</u> (given LPS)

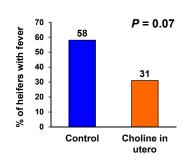
2017

0.44 vs. 0.56 kg/d P = 0.06 n = 38

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Performance of Choline Calves





Immune
Maturation & Function

Lung Development & Maturation

Rectal temperatures measured daily. Fever: >103.1°F; >39.5°C

Impact of In Utero Supplementation on Calf Growth









Female Holstein Calves

Male and Female Angus x Holstein **Cross Calves**

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Impact of In Utero Supplementation on Holstein Calf Growth



	Ctl	RPC1 _{RD}	RPC2 _{RD}	RPC2 _{HD}	P-value
Birth Weight, Ib	87.6	86.7	89.1	86.5	
1 to 2 week					
ADG, lb	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.08 Ctl vs RPC2 _{HD}
3 to 8 weeks					
ADG, lb	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.8	



Holdorf et al., ADSA, 2022

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Impact of In Utero Supplementation on Calf Growth



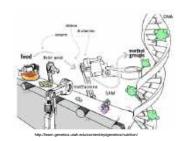
	Ctl	RPC1 _{RD}	RPC2 _{RD}	RPC2 _{HD}	P-value
Birth Weight, Ib					
Female	85.4	92.0	84.7	92.4	
Male	100.1	99.9	104.1	97.0	
to 2 week					
ADG, lb	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	
to 8 weeks					
ADG, lb					0.01 trt x time 0.08 Ctl vs RPC2 _{HD}
Female	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.1	
Male	2.1b	2.2ab	2.4 ^{ab}	2.6 ^b	
					A TOP OF THE PARTY

loldorf et al., ADSA, 2022

21

Was there increased DNA methylation with

in utero choline exposure?



22

A Long-Lasting Impact from Choline Supplementation



- Supplementing RP Choline during the transition period increases energy-corrected milk yield even at high production levels
 - Postpartum production relative to prepartum intake, together with long-lasting effects, suggests changes in metabolism or nutrient use efficiency
- Mechanism of RP Choline action is through improved liver function and health
- Supplementation of cows with RP Choline also improves calf growth, immune function, and metabolic health

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Relationships Between Transition Cow Nutrition and Management Strategies and Outcomes in Large Dairy Herds in the Northeastern US

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Department of Animal Science
Cornell University
Feed Dealer Seminars 2021

Complicats The

1

Part I – Identify biomarker thresholds and associations with postpartum outcomes

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Overview

- Associations between biomarkers and cow- and herdlevel outcomes
- 2. Associations between nutritional strategies and postpartum outcomes
- 3. Associations between management strategies and postpartum outcomes

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Background

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A should be a summary and a sum of the sum

Cornell CALS STREET

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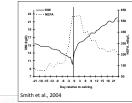
Objective

Complicats Invest

 Identify thresholds, cow-level performance associations, and herdalarm levels for metabolic- and inflammation-related biomarkers

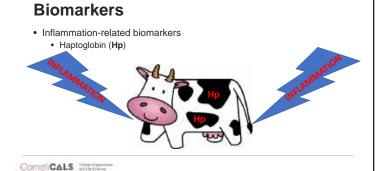
Biomarkers

- Metabolic-related biomarkers
 - Nonesterijied jatty acids (NEFA)
 - β-h<u>yd</u>hox<u>yb</u>ut<u>yr</u>ate (**BHB**)



Cornell CALS Triss Drackley et al., 2006

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7

What increases Haptoglobin?



COTTO: CALS

Skinner et al., 1991; Katoh, 2002; Lomborg et al., 2008; Medzhitov, 2008; Cooke et al., 2011; Huzzey et al., 2011; Horst et al., 2021

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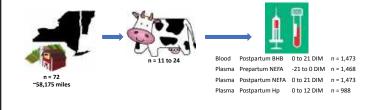
www.boometraining.com

Huzzey et al., 2009; Dubuc et al., 2010; Ospina et al., 2010a; Ospina et al., 2010b; Chapinal et al., 2011; Chapinal et al., 2012; Huzzey et al., 2015; Highlingale et al., 2015

performance

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Materials and Methods



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Thresholds associated with negative health events

- Prepartum NEFA
 - Threshold: 0.17 mmol/L -> culling within 30 DIM
- Postpartum NEFA
 - Threshold range: 0.46 to 0.59 mmol/L -> Metritis, DA, clinical ketosis, any 3 (DA, metritis, clinical ketosis)
- BHB
 - Threshold range: 0.9 to 1.2 mmol/L -> DA, clinical ketosis, any 3
- Нр
 - Threshold range: 0.45 to 0.96 g/L -> culling within 30 DIM, metritis

Comelicals Invitation

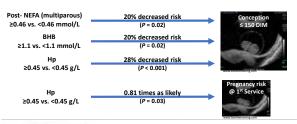
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Biomarkers associated with cow-level milk

				Multiparous cows			
I			ME305	BHB threshold, mmol/L	Difference in ME305, kg		<i>P</i> -value
Biomarker	Threshold	Parity	difference, kg	0.7	363	132	0.006
Pre- NFFA	≥0.17 mmol/L	Multiparous	-479	0.8	280	131	0.03
THE INCIPA	_0.17 IIIII0I/ L	Marciparous	473	0.9	164	138	0.24
Post- NEFA	≥0.46 mmol/L	Primiparous	+446	1.0	106	149	0.48
Deat NICEA	× 0. 4 C	N 4 - 142	200	1.1	129	157	0.41
Post- NEFA	≥0.46 mmol/L	Multiparous	-280	1.2	-2	172	0.99
BHB	≥0.9 mmol/L	Primiparous	+552	1.3	-274	184	0.14
DITO	20.5 mmoly E	Timparous	.332	1.4	-308	192	0.11
Нр	≥0.45 g/L	All cows	-492	1.5	-376	196	0.06

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Biomarkers associated with cow-level reproductive performance



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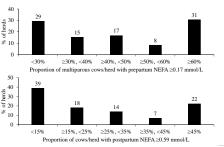
Herd-Alarm Levels Associated with Disorder Incidence (DA, clinical ketosis)

Biomarker	Proportion of cows	Parity Group	Threshold	Difference in Disorder Incidence	<i>P</i> -value
Pre- NEFA	≥30	Multiparous	≥0.17 mmol/L	+6.0%	0.05
Post- NEFA	≥15	Multiparous	≥0.59 mmol/L	+5.8%	0.04
Post- NEFA	≥15	Primiparous	≥0.59 mmol/L	+4.2%	0.02
ВНВ	≥15	All cows	≥1.2 mmol/L	+8.5%	<0.001
Нр	≥20	All cows	≥0.45 mmol/L	+5.3%	0.05

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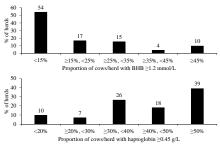
Prevalence of elevated NEFA



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Prevalence of elevated BHB and Hp



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Part II – Associations between transition cow nutritional strategies and postpartum outcomes

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Prepartum Nutritional Strategies

- Controlled energy diet through the dry period has increased in popularity
 - Supported by controlled-research trials for improving postpartum health (Janovick et al., 2011; Mann et al., 2015; Richards et al., 2020)
 - Decreased milk production? (Vickers et al., 2013)
- The "steam-up" approach has largely been abandoned
- Overfeeding energy through the dry period has been associated with:
 - decreased postpartum DMI, increased NEFA and BHB concentrations, and increased disorder incidence (Dann et al., 2006; Janovick et al., 2011; Mann et al., 2015)
 - No evidence that there was a treatment effect on milk yield

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Postpartum Nutritional Strategy

- High starch? Or low starch?
- · Varying results on metabolic- and inflammation-related biomarkers
- Hepatic oxidation theory (HOT): Feeding a lower starch diet could result in improved milk production compared to feeding higher levels of fermentable starch (Allen et al., 2009)
 - Supportive: Dann and Nelson, 2011
 - Opposed: Andersen et al., 2003; Rabelo et al., 2003; Rockwell and Allen, 2011; McCarthy et al., 2015)

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Current Challenges

- Recommendations are often driven from controlled research trials or anecdotal observations
- · Large-scale data availability is limited
 - · Particularly for the periparturient and fresh period
- · Previous studies have often been completed in tiestall barns
 - Removes influences of environment and management, potentially resulting in varying outcomes in freestall herds

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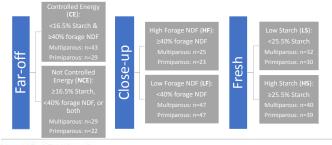
Objective

- Identify relationships between dry period and periparturient period nutritional strategies, as characterized by ration contents of starch, forage NDF, or both with:
 - · metabolic- and inflammation-related biomarkers
 - · health disorders
 - · milk production
 - · reproductive performance

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Materials and Methods



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Formulated Nutrient Composition

	Fa	r-off	Clo	se-up	Fresh		
Nutrient	CE	NCE	HF	LF	LS	HS	
DM, % of as fed	37.8 ± 5.3	45.3 ± 6.1	42.9 ± 6.3	45.9 ± 5.7	44.9 ± 4.2	45.8 ± 4.2	
CP	13.4 ± 2.0	14.0 ± 1.4	13.8 ± 1.1	14.8 ± 1.5	16.5 ± 0.9	16.3 ± 0.9	
Soluble protein, % CP	49.4 ± 8.0	38.3 ± 6.9	39.1 ± 6.2	37.0 ± 6.6	36.3 ± 5.0	38.1 ± 5.0	
ADF	32.9 ± 2.2	27.3 ± 2.0	29.4 ± 1.5	26.0 ± 2.2	20.6 ± 1.3	19.8 ± 1.3	
aNDFom	49.9 ± 3.3	43.3 ± 2.7	46.6 ± 1.9	41.3 ± 3.5	32.9 ± 1.8	31.2 ± 2.1	
Forage NDF	48.3 ± 3.8	38.7 ± 3.8	42.7 ± 2.0	34.8 ± 3.4	24.5 ± 1.9	23.6 ± 2.2	
Starch	11.8 ± 3.4	17.5 ± 3.9	15.9 ± 2.3	18.5 ± 2.5	23.7 ± 1.4	28.0 ± 1.5	
Sugar	2.9 ± 0.8	3.3 ± 1.1	3.3 ± 1.0	3.4 ± 1.0	4.8 ± 1.4	3.7 ± 1.0	
NFC	25.2 ± 3.9	30.7 ± 2.7	28.2 ± 2.5	30.6 ± 2.8	37.5 ± 1.6	40.1 ± 1.7	
Fermentable starch	7.8 ± 2.6	9.8 ± 2.9	9.4 ± 1.9	10.3 ± 2.0	19.3 ± 3.1	23.4 ± 3.8	
Fermentable NDF	13.7 ± 2.5	10.3 ± 2.0	11.2 ± 2.1	9.7 ± 1.7	12.0 ± 1.6	11.0 ± 1.8	
Fermentable total							
carbohydrate	27.1 ± 4.2	25.4 ± 4.5	25.6 ± 4.0	24.8 ± 3.8	39.8 ± 5.4	41.8 ± 5.7	
Ether extract	3.28 ± 0.40	3.20 ± 0.52	2.95 ± 0.28	3.61 ± 0.81	5.05 ± 0.71	5.15 ± 0.61	
NE _L , Mcal/kg	1.30 ± 0.05	1.37 ± 0.06	1.32 ± 0.06	1.38 ± 0.05	1.59 ± 0.04	1.61 ± 0.04	
ME, Mcal/kg of DM	2.02 ± 0.09	2.13 ± 0.09	2.06 ± 0.10	2.15 ± 0.08	2.47 ± 0.06	2.50 ± 0.07	
MP, g/kg of DM	70.87 ± 5.62	86.65 ± 7.49	84.43 ± 5.67	91.67 ± 7.94	108.68 ± 6.22	106.58 ± 6.73	

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Dry Period – Far-off x close-up

Variable	Prevalence of Elevat	ed BHB	P-value
Primiparous cows			
Far-off × close-up			0.10
Controlled energy × High forage NDF	7.6 ± 5.1		
Controlled energy × Low forage NDF	15.4 ± 4.3		
Not controlled energy × High forage NDF	16.7 ± 7.9		
Not controlled energy × Low forage NDF	5.8 ± 4.3		
	21-d PR		
Primiparous cows			
Far-off × close-up			0.07
Controlled energy × High forage NDF	31.7 ± 2.3		
Controlled energy × Low forage NDF	26.4 ± 2.0		
Not controlled energy × High forage NDF	26.9 ± 3.5		
Not controlled energy × Low forage NDF	30.8 ± 2.0		

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Dry Period – Close-up

	Variable	Prevalence of Elevated BHB	P-value
	Multiparous cows		
_	Close-up strategy		0.07
C	High forage NDF	13.0 ± 3.6	
Ī	Low forage NDF	21.1 ± 2.6	
		Prevalence of Elevated Hp	
	All cows		
	Close-up strategy		0.14
	High forage NDF	51.6 ± 3.6	
	Low forage NDF	45.0 ± 2.7	
		21-d PR	
	Multiparous cows		
	Close-up strategy		0.14
٢	High forage NDF	22.2 ± 1.4	
	Low forage NDF	24.7 ± 1.0	

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Periparturient Period – Close-up x Fresh

Variable	Prevalence of Elevated Post NEFA	P-valu
Primiparous cows		
Close-up × fresh		0.05
High forage NDF × Low starch	16.1 ± 6.7×y	
High forage NDF × High starch	28.7 ± 6.5×	
Low forage NDF × Low starch	21.9 ± 5.1×y	
Low forage NDF × High starch	11.7 ± 4.3 ^y	
	Disorder Incidence	
All cows		
Close-up × fresh		0.009
High forage NDF × Low starch	18.9 ± 4.0	
High forage NDF × High starch	7.4 ± 4.1	
Low forage NDF × Low starch	9.7 ± 3.2	
Low forage NDF × High starch	17.1 ± 2.7	
	Conception Risk	
Primiparous cows	•	
Close-up × fresh		0.14
High forage NDF × Low starch	40.6 ± 2.8aby	
High forage NDF × High starch	50.1 ± 2.7 ^{ax}	
Low forage NDF × Low starch	40.2 ± 2.3 ^{by}	
Low forage NDF × High starch	42.5 ± 1.9 ^{aby}	

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Periparturient Period - Fresh

Prevalence of Elevated BHB	P-value
	0.02
17.8 ± 2.5	
10.0 ± 2.3	
Prevalence of Elevated Hp	
	0.06
47.2 ± 5.0	
59.9 ± 4.6	
	17.8 ± 2.5 10.0 ± 2.3 Prevalence of Elevated Hp 47.2 ± 5.0

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Nutritional strategies were <u>NOT</u> associated with milk production outcomes

(305-d ME milk ~120 DIM or wk 4 milk yield)

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Part III – Associations between transition cow management strategies and postpartum outcomes

Comolicals Time

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Background



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Bach et al., 2008

Background

- · Non-nutritional management factors
 - · Stocking density
 - Pen moves
 - Commingling



Complicats Invited

Cook and Nordlund, 2004; von Keyserlingk et al., 2008; Huzzey et al., 2012

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Current Challenges

- · Controlled trials typically evaluate the change in 1 management factor, while minimizing other potential stressors
- · Limited research has evaluated management factors during the transition cow period and relationships with outcomes

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Objectives

- · Identify relationships between putative periparturient management factors at the pen- and herd-level with:
 - metabolic- and inflammation-related biomarkers
 - · health disorders
 - milk production
 - · reproductive performance

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Management variables assessed

Pen-level

- · Stall and bunk stocking density
- Linear water space (cm/cow)
- · Penn State Particle Separator
- peNDF, peuNDF240, uNDF240
- · Feed pushup frequency
- · Feeding frequency
- Commingling

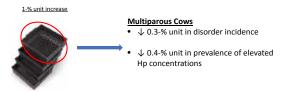
Herd-level

- · Vaccination in the calving and fresh pen
- Pre- and postpartum pen moves
- · Time spent in the calving and
- Time locked up for fresh checks in fresh pen
- · Maternity vs. calving pen

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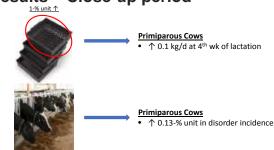
Results - Far-off period



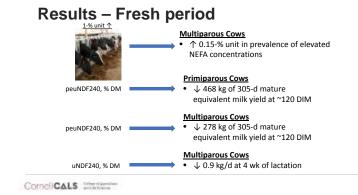
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Results - Close-up period



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Results - Herd-level



All Cows

↑ 12.6-% unit in disorder incidence

Multiparous Cows

↓ 4.1 kg/d at 4 wk of lactation

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Results - Herd-level



>8 h vs. ≤8 h in calving pen

- All Cows

 ↑ 22.6-percentage unit in prevalence of elevated postpartum NEFA concentrations
- \downarrow 3.6-percentage unit in 21-d PR
- ↓ 4.5-percentage unit in CR
- ↓ 13.7-percentage unit in pregnancy risk to first service

Multiparous Cows

■ ↓ 13.0-percentage unit in prevalence of elevated BHB concentrations

Primiparous Cows

- ↑ 19.4-percentage unit in prevalence of elevated BHB concentrations
- ↑ 32.7-percentage unit in prevalence of elevated Hp concentrations

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Results - Fresh period



Primiparous Cows

↓ 8.1-% unit in prevalence of elevated BHB concentrations

Multiparous Cows

- \downarrow 18.4-% unit in prevalence of elevated BHB concentrations
- \downarrow 7.3-% unit in disorder incidence

Primiparous Cows

- ↑ 9.9-% unit in prevalence of elevated BHB concentrations
- ↓ 1.8 kg/d at wk 4 of lactation

Multiparous Cows

 ↓ 18.4-% unit in prevalence of elevated Hp concentrations

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Results - Herd-level



Primiparous Cows

Prepartum pen moves (≥3 vs. < 3)

↑ 11.9-percentage unit in prevalence of elevated Hp concentrations

Postpartum pen moves (≥3 vs. < 3)

↓ 719 kg of 305-d mature equivalent milk yield at ~120 DIM

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Takeaways

- · In general, elevated concentrations of biomarkers are associated with an increased risk of disorders, decreased milk production, and decreased reproductive performance.
- . BOTH nutritional and management factors influence transition cow outcomes
- Feeding a controlled-energy far-off, high forage NDF close-up, and high starch fresh diet to **primiparous** cows maximized reproductive performance, minimized the prevalence of elevated BHB, and reduced disorder incidence.
- Feeding a high forage NDF close-up and high starch fresh diet to multiparous cows resulted in a decreased prevalence of elevated BHB concentrations and reduced disorder incidence

ComelCals Internation

Takeaways

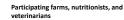
- Maximize close-up bunk space.
- Maximize bunk space, avoid commingling, increase the feeding frequency, and avoid high peuNDF240/uNDF240 diets during the fresh period.
- Avoid vaccination in the calving pen, minimize pre- and postpartum pen moves, and avoid long stays (≥8 h) in calving pen after parturition.
- Due to limited data and contradicting results, further research is needed to evaluate management factors.



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Acknowledgements

- Dr. Daryl Nydam Dr. Buzz Burhans



Numerous people who assisted with data collection





LISDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture



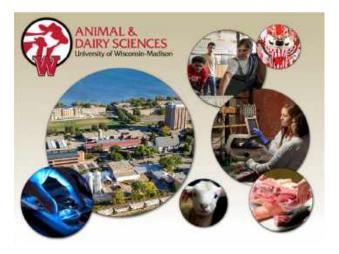


Complicats Transmit

Email: abl37@cornell.edu; tro2@cornell.edu

Feed Intake and Feed Efficiency: Can We Make More With Less?

Dr. Heather White Associate Professor, Department of Animal & Dairy Sciences University of Wisconsin-Madison



Feed Intake and Feed Efficiency: Can we make more with less?

Dr. Heather White Associate Professor, Department of Animal and Dairy Sciences University of Wisconsin-Madison

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Feed Intake and Feed Efficiency



The simply story. . . .

- · Cows eat an amount of feed
- Cows produce a volume of milk

Feed Efficiency = kg milk / kg dry matter intake

Feed Intake and Feed Efficiency



Things are rarely as simply as they seem. . . .

- · Cows eat an amount of feed, but they also eat an amount of energy (and nitrogen, nutrients, etc.)
- Cows produce a volume of milk but depending on components, this volume has a different energy amount/content and potentially a different economic value
- We feed cows even when they aren't producing milk
- Given this, there are actually many possible ways to express feed or milk efficiency

Feed Efficiency =

FCM / kg DMI Mcal milk / kg DMI Milk N / feed N \$ Milk / \$ Feed Feed Saved

3

How do we measure?



- Feed intake?
- Milk yield?
- Milk composition?

by farm? by pen? by cow?

We can collect a lot of pen level feed efficiency data easily,

but that doesn't help us select for feed efficiency or to understand sources of individual animal variance. . .

How do we measure in research?



Calan Gates

it is all about the individual!







What could go wrong?

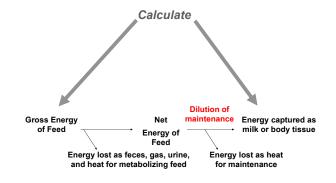
- Cows can appear to be very feed efficient if they steal feed from other cows
- Result: we select for the most dominant cows
- · Solution: modify facilities to prevent stealing and monitor data closely
- Cows can appear to be very feed efficient if they mobilize body stores to make up energy deficits
- Result: we select for cows that lose excessive BCS
- Solution: we measure RFI during mid-lactation and we account body weight change
- Cows can appear less efficient if they spill water into their feed and their feed refusals have more moisture than we account for
 - · Result: we select for "neat" cows
- · Solution: modify tie-stalls to prevent



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What do we do with all this individual cow data?

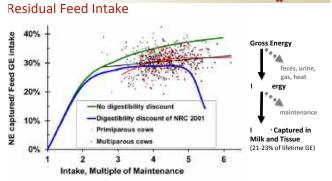




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Gross Feed Efficiency vs.



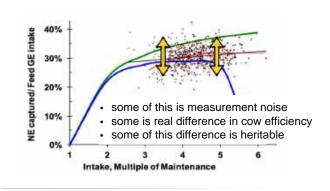


maintenance requirement is about 10 Mcal NE (25 Mcal GE, or 6 kg of feed) and each multiple is about 15 kg of extra milk

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Gross Feed Efficiency vs. Residual Feed Intake

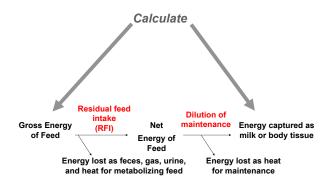




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What do we do with all this individual cow data?

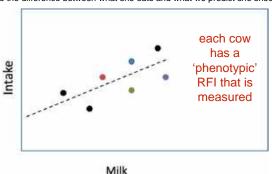




Residual Feed Intake (RFI): in a simplistic sense



RFI is the variance that is not explained by dilution of maintenance. It is the difference between what she eats and what we predict she should eat.



Example shown without digestion depression; constant marginal efficiency

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Residual Feed Intake (RFI): in a realistic sense Primiparous Multiparous Observed DMI (kg/d) 30 25 20 RFI = Observed DMI - Expected DMI 15 15 Predicted DMI from parity, mBW, NEmilk, BW change, and cohor **Energy Sinks** Maintenance A negative RFI is what we want! Neight Gain/Loss

Feed Saved



- Although RFI is what we use in research, the real-life outcome is 'Feed Saved'
 - Feed Saved = Ib of DM saved by more efficient cows



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Limitations

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- We are limited by
 - The rate at which we can collect individual cow feed intake and energy output PHENOTYPES
 - Expensive and time-consuming

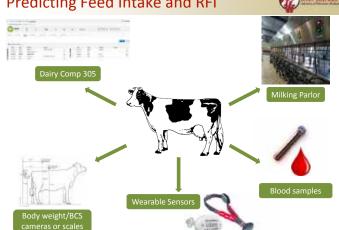
However, there is more to efficiency than RFI. We also want high production and healthy cows.

- Restricted to a handful of research stations across the country and a few dozen around the world
- Collection of phenotypes from genetically progressive cows
 - Data becomes outdated quickly
- We are not limited by genotypes. . . .

How do we measure the phenotype in a more high-throughput manner?

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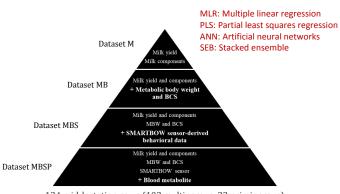
Predicting Feed Intake and RFI



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Predicting Feed Intake and RFI





124 mid-lactation cows (102 multiparous, 22 primiparous) were enrolled across two replicates of 45 d duration

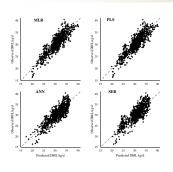
Predicting Feed Intake and RFI



Item ¹	R ²	CCC	RMSEP, kg/d		
Multiple linear regression					
Dataset M	0.67	0.80	2.16		
Dataset MB	0.80	0.89	1.68		
Dataset MBS	0.82	0.90	1.59		
Dataset MBSP	0.82	0.90	1.59		
Partial least squares					
Dataset M	0.64	0.78	2.26		
Dataset MB	0.78	0.88	1.74		
Dataset MBS	0.79	0.89	1.71		
Dataset MBSP	0.78	0.88	1.76		
Artificial neural network					
Dataset M	0.64	0.80	2.31		
Dataset MB	0.79	0.88	1.75		
Dataset MBS	0.81	0.90	1.64		
Dataset MBSP	0.78	0.88	1.78	Dataset M	ı 🔺
Stacked ensemble					Milk yield
Dataset M	0.65	0.79	2.21		Milk components
Dataset MB	0.77	0.87	1.81	Dataset MB	Milk yield and components
Dataset MBS	0.78	0.87	1.77		+ Metabolic body weight and BCS
Dataset MBSP	0.76	0.87	1.82	_	
				Dataset MBS	Milk yield and components MBW and BCS
					MARTBOW sensor-derived behavioral data
				Dataset MBSP	Milk yield and components MBW and BCS
et al., 2021				Dataset PIDSF	SMARTBOW seasor + Blood metabolite
et al., 2021					+ Dated metabolite

How much data do we need?





- Reasonable predictions were built on 6 wk of milk, body size, and sensor data
- Use of 1 wk of data only marginally reduced predicted accuracy
 - Ex. CCC of 0.90 -> 0.88
- None of the approaches predicted RFI accurately
- Still not practical on privatelyowned dairy farms

Can we predict DMI with a "DHI-test worth of data"?

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Single day DMI predictions



- Compiled 315 single-day DMI observations from mid-lactation Holstein cows
- A morning milk sample with macronutrients and milk fatty acids
- Body weight and BCS
- Multiple linear regression

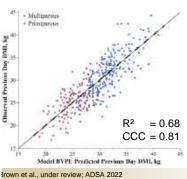
Model	Model candidate variables				
В	Milk yield and components				
P	MBW, BCS, Lact. #, DIM				
BY	Model B				
ы	+ Fatty acid yields				
BYPE	Model B				
DIFE	+ Fatty acid yields, Prod. & Eff. PTA				

Brown et al., under review; ADSA 2022

20

Single day DMI predictions



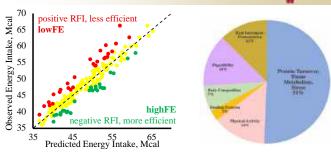


- Explained 81% of variance in DMI with single-day, DHI-style data
- Ability to more accurately predict DMI could support management and nutrition decisionmaking on farm
- Can we do better??

21

Sources of Variance in RFI



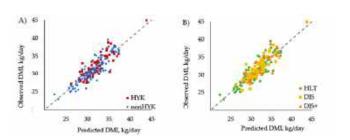


- Post-absorptive nutrient utilization is one of the sources of individual animal variance in RFI
- Is metabolism different between high and low feed efficient cows?
- Does better matching nutrient needs influence feed efficiency?

22

RFI and Postpartum Health

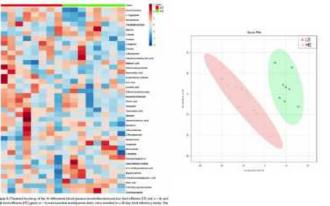




23

RFI and Nutrient Use Efficiency





Take-Home Messages



- · Precision is key for determining phenotypic residual feed intake
- RFI is the difference in what the cow ate vs. what we predict she should have eaten; Feed Saved is the 'tangible' trait
- Predicting feed intake may help inform management and nutrition decisions on farm and increase throughput of FE research
- There are many biological sources of RFI variance and understanding their contribution will help further clarify animal to animal differences
 - Postpartum HYK or other health disorder does not impact midlactation RFI
 - Understanding post-absorptive nutrient use and metabolism differences between high and low feed efficient cows may allow us to maximize feed efficiency and metabolic health
 - Many others currently under investigation: feeding behavior, feed bunk competition, starch content, etc.

25





27

Acknowledgements



- UW-Madison Feed Efficiency Team:
- Francisco Penagaricano, Kent Weigel, Heather White
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 - Kent Weigel and Heather White, University of Wisconsin
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- Partners: Joao Durr and Kristen Parker-Gaddis, Council for Dairy Cattle Breeding

Utilizing Alternative Feedstuffs in Dairy Rations for Profit & Sustainability

Dr. Gail Carpenter Department of Animal Science Iowa State University

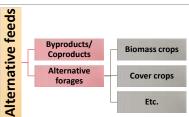
Utilizing Alternative Feedstuffs in Dairy Rations for Profit & Sustainability

DR. GAIL CARPENTER
DEPARTMENT OF ANIMAL SCIENCE, IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY | Dairy Team

1

What are "alternative feeds"?



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2

Feed is expensive!



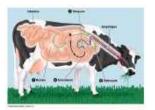


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3

Carbohydrates in the ruminant

- Convert unavailable carbon into highly digestible protein for human consumption
- Utilize a wide variety of forage sources as long as sugar polymers are present
- VFA are produced from microbial digestion
- Cellulose → acetate, butvrate → lipogenio
- Starch → propionate → glucogenic



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4

Carbohydrates in the ruminant



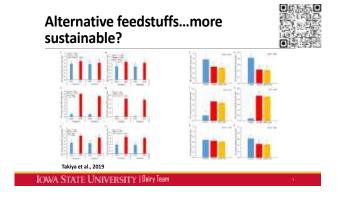
- Variation in digestibility based on factors such as maturity and plant genetics
- \uparrow biomass \Rightarrow \downarrow available carbon
- Susceptibility to mold & toxins
- Palatability in TMR

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Feed vs. Food?

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6



Consider producer motivations



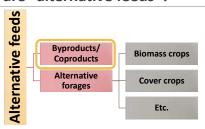
*Lower ranked in western provinces
**Higher ranked in western provinces

Gee et al., 2021

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8

What are "alternative feeds"?



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9

7

What are coproducts?



10

Consider the following...

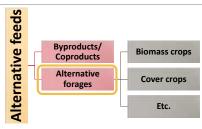
- ·What byproducts are you seeing?
- ·How many producers are feeding byproducts? Coproducts?
- •What are your best practices for incorporating new feeds?



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What are "alternative feeds"?



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What are the "alternatives"?

- ·Cover crops
- ·Cocktail mixes
- ·Biomass crops
- √ Beware of antinutritional factors
- ✓ Consider appropriate allocation



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Biomass forages





Most forages can be useful!*

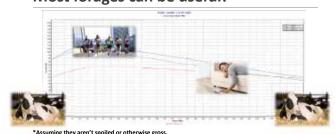


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13

Most forages can be useful!*



*Assuming they aren't spoiled or otherwise gross. IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY | Dairy Team

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Three Rations

- •Inventory/storage
- ·Frequency of feeding
- •Frequency of push-up
- ·Stocking density
- ·Bunk availability
- •Reduce long forage PS
- ·Liquid (water or wet molasses)
- •Remove refusals



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Managing rumen fill: peuNDF240

uNDF240

- •Undigested NDF
- 0.35-0.40% of BW peNDF
- •Physical effectiveness factor (pef) × NDF
- •21-23% of diet DM

uNDF240 is static, peNDF is not!



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Monitoring new rations

- •Feed intake
- ·Cud chewing
 - When cows are resting after eating, at least 50% should be ruminating
- · Can monitor rumination with sensors
- Manure consistency
- •Milk components
- Milk fat should stay the same or increase
- Consider monitoring de novo fatty acids



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Consider the following...

- •What alternative forages are you seeing?
- •What questions are producers asking about forages?
- •What are your best practices?



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Food for thought

- •What else can cows recycle?
- •How can we prevent bottlenecks in alternative feed utilization?
- Additives (e.g., enzymes, yeast, amino acids)
- Supplemental nutrition (e.g., sugar, fat)



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21

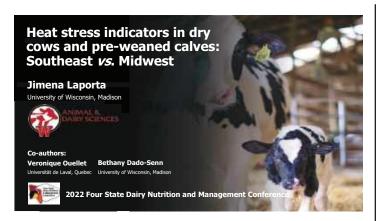
Where to next?

Dr. Gail Carpenter ajcarpen@iastate.edu (517) 204-4957



Heat stress indicators in dry cows and pre-weaned calves: Southeast vs. Midwest

Dr. Jimena Laporta University of Wisconsin



Presentation outline 1 Background and definitions 2 Associations between environmental and thermoregulatory animal-based indicators Dry cows: Southeastern US region Calves: Southeastern US region · Calves: Midwestern US region Heat stress abatement methods for calv 4 Take-homes & recommendations

2

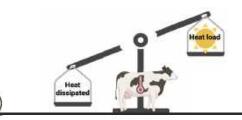
Heat stress in mature dairy cows

• Cows are homeotherms, just like humans ©

1

3

- They maintain core temperature at a set-point of ~38.5°C (101.3°F)
- Cow's **thermoneutral zone** is from -15°C to 22°C (LCT | UCT)
 Cows will become **heat stressed** when the heat load exceeds their ability to dissipate heat, they start accumulating instead of effectively dissipating heat



How do cattle dissipate heat?

1) Radiation Sensible routes

 → Require a thermal gradient between the cow & the environment
 → When the thermal environment 2) Conduction 3) Convection

4) Evaporation

Insensible route

Require a pressure gradient → Respiratory (15-30%)

→ Cutaneous (~70-85%) → Humidity becomes important meets or exceeds the cow's body temperature these routes of heat exchange become ineffective

4

Largest challenge to dairy cattle productivity

- Modern dairy cows increased productivity and metabolic heat production are more sensitive to changes in temperature
- Focus of research and mitigating technologies
- → immediate drop feed intake and milk production: \$ pit

Heat stress does not discriminate

• Impact physiology, productivity, and welfare independent of age or physiological status

Dry cow

 Develop methods to identify cattle under HS: timely and precisely prevent/mitigate HS: mechanically, nutritionally, both?



Nulliparous heifer



Heat stress does not discriminate (cont..)

- Climate change is causing global temperature to rise 2019 & 2020 ranked as the warmest years on record (NASA) Certain regions more impacted by others...
- The average U.S dairy cow experience 96 days of heat stress





• FL, GA, TX: 150 days
• Hot & humid, subtropical climate

Northern states

- ID, MN, WI, PA, NY: ~50 days



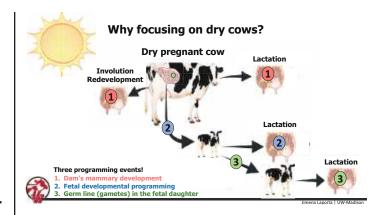


5

How to estimate the impact of "heat" on your cows?

THI combines ambient temperature & relative humidity to estimate the "heat load" cattle experience

• Lactating cows start to show reductions in milk production at a THI cut-off: 68 even at THI's 65 rumination begins to change. What about non-lactating cattle? more thermotolerant (non-lactating state) unknown animal & environmental indicators to identify HS onset timely & precisely



8

Associations between environmental & thermoregulatory animal-based indicators of heat stress in dry cows

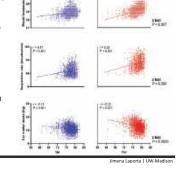


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Correlations between THI and each animal-based indicators

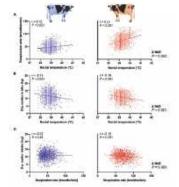
- Correlations in HS-dry cows are moderate to strong (r = -0.22 to r = 0.35), with the strongest correlation between THI and RT followed by RR
- Correlations in CL-dry cows were collectively weaker (r = -0.13 to r = 0.19)
- All Z-scores were significantly different CL-dry vs HS-dry
- Coefficients in dry cows are much lower than those estimated for lactating cows in a similar (subtropical) environment (Dikmen and Hansen, 2009)



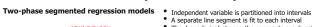
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Correlations between animal-based indicators

- Correlations in CL-dry cows were collectively weaker (r = -0.02 to r = 0.12)No significant correlation between DMI and RR
- Stronger correlations between the different animal-based indicators in HS-dry cows (r = -0.12 to r = 0.31) Strongest correlation between RR and RT Negative/significant correlation between DMI and RR
- All Z-scores were significantly different CL-dry vs HS-dry



Thresholds or "break-points" for dry cows

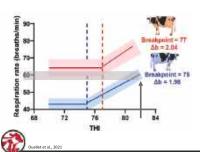


- The boundaries between the segments are breakpoints
- 39.75 Ab = 0.42 39.50 39.25 39,00 HS-dry cows had a THI breakpoint of 77 RT began rising at a rate of 0.12 °C for every 28.75 unit increase in THI above the threshold No breakpoint for CL-dry cows was detected THI

11

Thresholds or "break-points" for dry cows

Two-phase segmented regression models



HS-dry cows had a THI breakpoint of 77

CL-dry cows had a breakpoint of 75 RR began rising at a rate of ~2 bpm for every unit increase in THI above the threshold!

 No THI threshold was detected for DMI or **skin temperature** within the THI range of 68 to 82 evaluated herein

Thresholds or "break-points" for dry cows



- The THI threshold established for lactating cows is not suitable to accurately assess HS in dry cows
- Provision of active cooling devices skewed the correlation THI/animal-based indicators
- ullet These results should aid with proper identification and monitoring of HS in dry cows
- Improve dry cow welfare and provide accurate management of dry cows in a subtropical climate!

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What about dairy calves?

Pre-weaned dairy calves feel the heat too!

- Calves do not regulate body temperature very well
 - Thrive in environments between 12–25 °C (s3 77%) UCT: 25–32 °C (77 89.6%) Above that, nutrients consumed will be diverted towards heat dissipation at the expense of growth and immune function
- Heat abatement is rarely considered for dairy calves
- Low-cost options and best management practices

 - → Most studies emphasize in hutch material, shade supplementation

 Lammers et al., 1996; Coleman et al., 1996; Hill et al., 2011, Carter et al., 2014; Manriquez et al., 2018

Limited data on methods to assess and prevent heat stress!



Visible signs of HS

· open-mouthed panting





What about dairy calves?

Pre-weaned dairy calves feel the heat too!



- When do calves begin to experience thermal discomfort?
- When should we start monitoring them? How should we monitor them?
- Can we "actively" cool calves?



· open-mouthed panting





15

16

14



Environmental & thermoregulatory animal-based indicators of heat stress in dairy calves

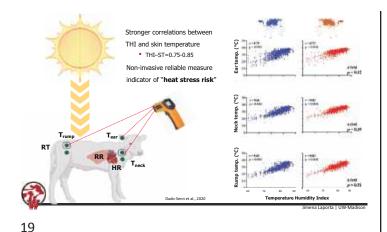
- Automatic feeders, grouped-housed
 One barrel fan at the calf level and
 one oscillating fan above the ground
 forces air movement
 promotes convective cooling
 lowers calves' thermal indices





Correlations between THI and animal-based indicators of HS THI – RR or RT<0.30 • THI – HR ~ 0

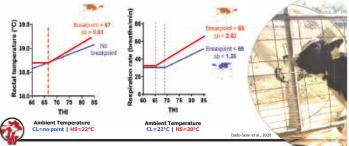
18



When do calves begin to feel thermal discomfort?

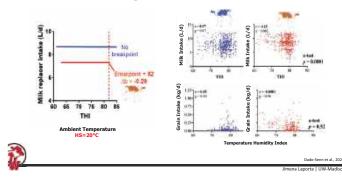
→ Segmented regressions to find thresholds at which significant changes in physiological responses occur

→ Monitor calves *before* THI reaches 65 to prevent risks of heat stress



20

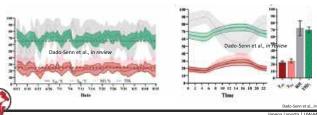
When do calves begin to reduce intake?



Correlations & thresholds in a continental climate?



- → Temperate humid continental climate
- → Temperatures vary greatly from summer to winter and cooler evening diurnal patterns
 → Data from 2007-2013 (June-Aug): RH=70, Temp=69.3 F, THI=73 (max 88!)
- → 2021 (June-Aug): cattle are under risk of HS for 12-13 h/d



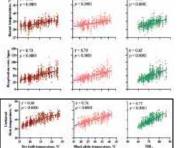
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22

Correlations between environmental & animal-based indicators of heat stress in dairy calves: continental climate



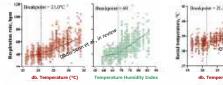


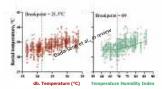


When do calves begin to feel thermal discomfort?

→ Thresholds for dairy calves raised in outdoor hutches in **continental climate**

→ Monitor calves before THI of 69 or dbT of 21.0°C to prevent risks of heat stress





23

Heat abatement for outdoor hutch-housed calves?



Solar energy converted into energy to power fans redirecting the air-flow inside the hutch

- → increases air speed inside the hutch (0.05 to ~2 m/s)
 → improves hutch microclimate (temperature and THI during daytime)
 → lowers calf respiration rates (-14 bpm)





26



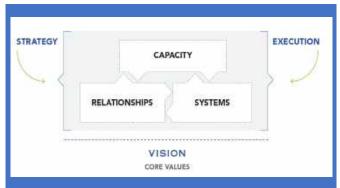


27

Developing your People for High Performance Business

Jay Joy, CEO Milk Money, LLC moneycfo.com 785-275-2772





2

PLAN your Plan, Organize Action

Define "What".....

Product/Service we are offering
Is our Target Market
Does our "Ideal" Customer look like
CAPACITIES do we need to serve our customers and employees
RELATIONSHIPS do we need to serve our customers and employees
SYSTEMS do we need to serve our customers and employees

What is
Execution?

Do your Plan, Take Action

How do we.....

Provide the Product/Service are we offering
Engage with our Target Market
Influence our "Ideal" Customer
Develop the CAPACITY we need to serve the customer
Develop the RELATIONSHIPS we need to serve the customer
Develop the SYSTEMS we need to have in place to execute for the customer

3 4



"The way in which two or more concepts, objects, or people are connected; or the way they behave toward each other"

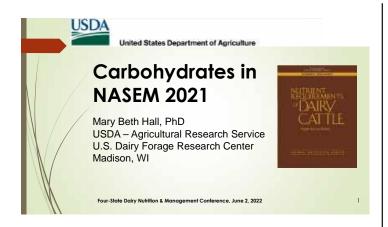
1 Trusted
1 Collaborative
2 Transactional
4 Co-Existence
5 Avoidance
6 Dysfunctional

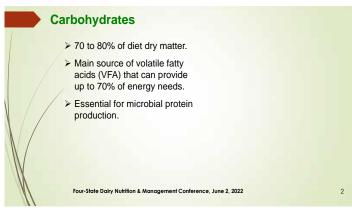
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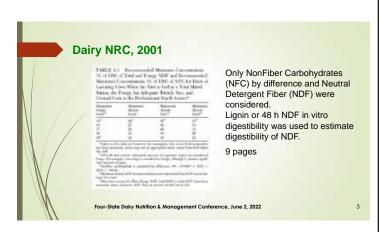
Carbohydrates in NASEM 2021

Mary Beth Hall, PhD USDA – Agricultural Research Service U.S. Dairy Forage Research Center Madison, WI



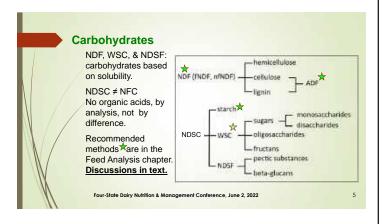


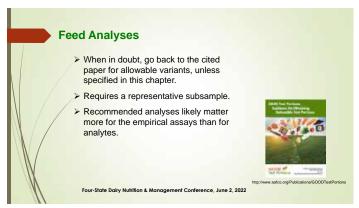
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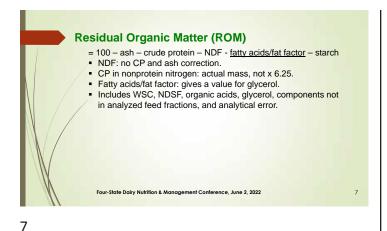


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5



Neutral Detergent Fiber (NDF)

Hemicellulose, cellulose, & lignin. Discussion on research findings, primarily on rumen function and estimating digestion.

Ruminal NDF fermentation is affected by

NDF composition -- lignin

physical form – forage vs. nonforage

pH

retention time

fragility

rate of fermentation

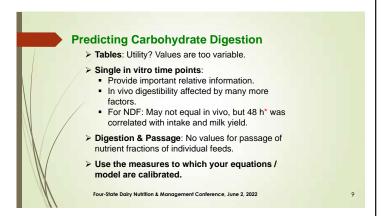
RDP(?)

Entire diet

...

Four-State Daily Nutrillon & Management Conference, June 2, 2022

8





NDSC

Recommendations on formulation with NDSC?

To give specific feeding recommendations on the different NDSC, we need more research data across more varied diets with WSC, starch, and NDSF composition, particle size, etc. reported for diets and feeds.

Four-State Daily Nutrillon & Management Conference, June 2, 2022

Energy & Carbohydrates

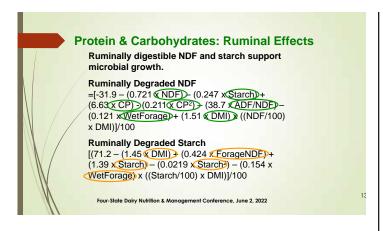
Starch, NDF, and residual organic matter (ROM) were used to predict energy in the diet.

dNDF_NDF_base
= {0.075 x (NDF - Lignin) x [1 - (Lignin/NDF)^{0.667}]}/NDF
Or = 0.12 + 0.61 x 48h IVNDFD
Further affected by dry matter intake and starch in the diet.

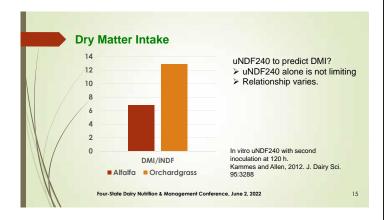
dStarch_Starch_base
Tabular: for corn 0.94 steam flaked, 0.92 fine, 0.77 coarse Changes at DMI > or < 3.5% of BW (1%unit/1%unit)

dROM_base
= ROM x 0.96

Four-State Dairy Nutrition & Management Conference, June 2, 2022

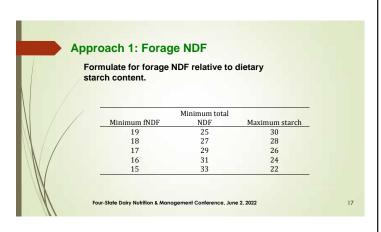


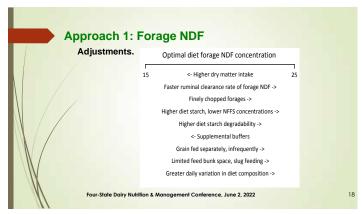
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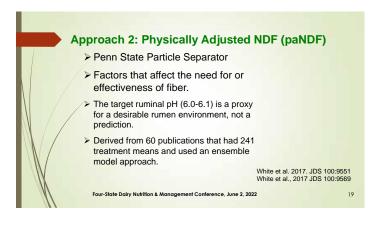
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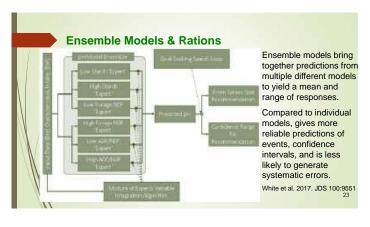








21 22



Physically Adjusted NDF (paNDF)

Inputs:

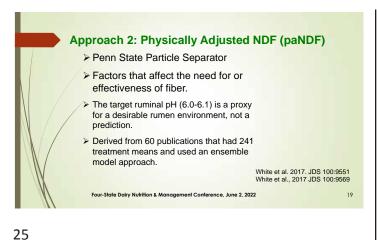
Diet characteristics, % of dry matter
Forage NDF, total forage, wet forage
Cottonseed: whole, hulls, meal
NDF, ADF, CP, starch
Body weight
Penn State Particle Separator (PSPS)

% of TMR DM on 0.75" / 19 mm sieve (1.18 optional)

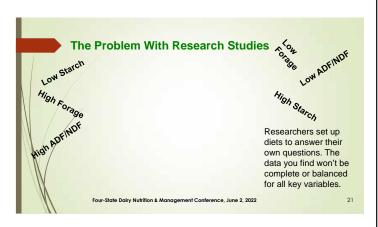
Output predictions:
Recommended % of TMR DM on 0.315" / 8 mm sieve
Minutes per day of rumination

Four-Slate Dairy Nutrition & Management Conference, June 2, 2022

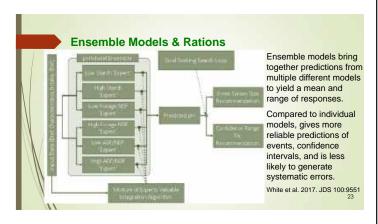
23 24









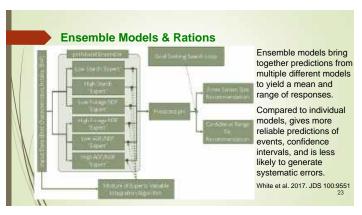


Physically Adjusted NDF (paNDF)

Inputs:

Diet characteristics, % of dry matter
Forage NDF, total forage, wet forage
Cottonseed: whole, hulls, meal
NDF, ADF, CP, starch
Body weight
Penn State Particle Separator (PSPS)
% of TMR DM on 0.75" / 19 mm sieve (1.18 optional)

Output predictions:
Recommended % of TMR DM on 0.315" / 8 mm sieve
Minutes per day of rumination
Four-State Daily Nutrition & Management Conference, June 2, 2022



Transition Cow Myths and How They Influence the Interpretation of a Nutritionist's Success

M. A. Abeyta¹, S. K. Kvidera², E. A. Horst³, E. J. Mayorga¹, B. M. Goetz¹, S. Rodriguez-Jimenez¹, J. Opgenorth¹, A. D. Freestone¹, and L. H. Baumgard¹

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²Elanco Animal Health

³Innovative Liquids

Introduction

Suboptimal milk yield limits the U.S. dairy industry's productive competitiveness, marginalizes efforts to reduce inputs into food production, and increases animal agriculture's carbon footprint. There are a variety of circumstances in a cow's life which activate the immune system and result in hindered productivity (i.e., metritis, mastitis, intestinal dysfunction). Although there are many etiological origins, a commonality among them is increased production of inflammatory biomarkers and markedly altered nutrient partitioning. Importantly, nutrition programs are frequently inculpated for poor transition cow performance because of the (likely fallacious) presumed adverse effects of elevated lipid metabolites and hypocalcemia on production and immunosuppression. In contrast, we suggest that many post-calving undesirable phenotypes (reduced dry matter intake [DMI], hypocalcemia, elevated non-esterified fatty acids [NEFA], hyperketonemia) are a direct consequence of immune activation and not themselves causative of transition cow maladies. For a more detailed description of the areas covered herein, see our recent review (Horst et al., 2021).

Traditional Dogmas

Long-standing tenets describe a causal role of hypocalcemia, increased NEFA, and hyperketonemia in the incidence of transition diseases and disorders (Figure 1). Hypocalcemia has traditionally been considered a gateway disorder leading to ketosis, mastitis, metritis, displaced abomasum, impaired reproduction, and decreased milk yield (Curtis et al., 1983; Goff, 2008; Martinez et al., 2012; Chapinal et al., 2012; Riberio et al., 2013; Neves et al., 2018a,b). The proposed mechanisms by which hypocalcemia leads to these ailments include impaired skeletal muscle strength and gastrointestinal motility (Goff, 2008; Oetzel, 2013; Miltenburg et al., 2016), decreased insulin secretion (Martinez et al., 2012, 2014), and the development of immunosuppression (Kimura et al., 2006). Like hypocalcemia, increased NEFA and hyperketonemia are presumed causative to illnesses such as DA, retained placenta, metritis, reduced lactation performance, poor reproduction, and an overall increased culling risk (Cameron et al., 1998; LeBlanc et al., 2005; Duffield et al., 2009; Ospina et al., 2010; Chapinal et al., 2011; Huzzey et al., 2011). Excessive NEFA mobilization and the affiliated increase in hepatic lipid uptake, triglyceride (TG) storage, and ketone body production has been traditionally believed to be the driving factor leading to ketosis and fatty liver (Grummer, 1993; Drackley, 1999). Additionally, elevated NEFA and ketones are thought to compromise immune function (Lacetera et al., 2004; Hammon et al., 2006; Scalia et al., 2006; Ster et al., 2012) and suppress feed intake (Allen et al., 2009). Thus, the magnitude of changes in NEFA, BHB and Ca have traditionally thought to be predictors of future performance and problems.

Inflammation in the Transition Period

Regardless of health status (Humblet et al., 2006), increased inflammatory biomarkers are observed in nearly all cows during the periparturient period (Ametaj et al., 2005; Humblet et al., 2006; Bionaz et al., 2007; Bertoni et al., 2008; Mullins et al., 2012). The magnitude and persistency of the inflammatory response seems to be predictive of transition cow performance (Bertoni et al., 2008; Bradford et al., 2015; Trevisi and Minuti, 2018). During the weeks surrounding calving, cows are exposed to a myriad of stressors which may permit endotoxin entry into systemic circulation and thereby initiate an inflammatory response (Khafipour et al., 2009; Kvidera et al., 2017c; Proudfoot et al., 2018; Barragan et al., 2018; Koch et al., 2019). The frequency and severity of these inflammation-inducing insults presumably determines the level of inflammation that follows (Bertoni et al., 2008; Trevisi and Minuti, 2018). Common origins of endotoxin entry include the uterus (metritis) and mammary gland (mastitis). Additionally, we believe the gastrointestinal tract may contribute as many of the characteristic responses (rumen acidosis, decreased feed intake, and psychological stress) occurring during the transition period can compromise gut barrier function (Horst et al., 2021).

Although an overt inflammatory response is present around calving, numerous reports have described a reduction in immune competence during this time (Kehrli et al., 1989; Goff and Horst, 1997; Lacetera et al., 2005). Traditionally, hypocalcemia and hyperketonemia have been primary factors considered responsible for periparturient immunosuppression (Goff and Horst, 1997; Kimura et al., 2006; LeBlanc, 2020); however, recent evidence suggests this is more complex than originally understood and that the systemic inflammatory milieu may be mediating the immune system to become "altered" and not necessarily "suppressed" around calving (Trevisi and Minuti, 2018; LeBlanc, 2020). Whether or not the "immune incompetence" frequently reported post-calving is causative to future illnesses or is a consequence of prior immune stimulation needs further attention.

The Importance of Glucose

To adequately recognize the connection between inflammation and transition period success, an appreciation for the importance of glucose is a prerequisite. Glucose is the precursor to lactose, the milk constituent primarily driving milk volume through osmoregulation (Neville, 1990). Approximately 72 g of glucose is required to synthesize 1 kg of milk (Kronfeld, 1982). A variety of metabolic adaptations take place in lactating mammals including increased liver glucose output and peripheral insulin resistance which allows for skeletal muscle to have increased reliance upon lipid-derived fuel (i.e., NEFA and BHBA) to spare glucose for milk synthesis and secretion by the mammary gland (Baumgard et al., 2017). The immune system is also heavily reliant on glucose when activated. The metabolism of inflammation (discussed below) has its own unique metabolic footprint to direct glucose toward the immune system. Consequently, when the onset of inflammation and lactation coincide, glucose becomes an extremely valuable and scarce resource.\

Ketogenesis occurs when glucose is in short supply. This can come from a combination of factors including lack of substrate (i.e., reduced feed intake and ruminal fermentation) or high glucose utilization by other tissues (i.e., the immune system or mammary gland). When glucose demand is high, the TCA cycle intermediate oxaloacetate leaves the cycle to supply carbon for gluconeogenesis. Oxaloacetate is also the molecule that combines with acetyl CoA (the end-product of adipose-derived NEFA) to allow the TCA cycle to continue progressing. If the TCA cycle is limited in its progression due to lack of oxaloacetate, acetyl CoA enters into ketogenesis. The link between onset of lactation, immune system activation, and lack of glucose leading to ketogenesis may help to explain the metabolic footprint of a poorly transitioning dairy cow.

Metabolism of Inflammation

Inflammation has an energetic cost which redirects nutrients away from anabolic processes (see review by Johnson, 2012) and thus compromises productivity. Upon activation, most immune cells become obligate glucose utilizers via a metabolic shift from oxidative phosphorylation to aerobic glycolysis (not anaerobic glycolysis typically learned about in biochemistry classes), a process known as the Warburg effect (Figure 2).

This metabolic shift allows for rapid ATP production and synthesis of important intermediates which support proliferation and production of reactive oxygen species (Calder et al., 2007; Palsson-McDermott and O'Neill, 2013). In an effort to facilitate glucose uptake, immune cells become more insulin sensitive and increase expression of GLUT3 and GLUT4 transporters (Maratou et al., 2007; O'Boyle et al., 2012), whereas peripheral tissues become insulin resistant (Poggi et al., 2007; Liang et al., 2013). Furthermore, metabolic adjustments including hyperglycemia or hypoglycemia (depending upon the stage and severity of infection), increased circulating insulin and glucagon, skeletal muscle catabolism and subsequent nitrogen loss, and hypertriglyceridemia occur (Filkins, 1978; Wannemacher et al., 1980; Lanza-Jacoby et al., 1998; McGuinness, 2005). Interestingly, despite hypertriglyceridemia, circulating BHB often decreases following LPS administration (Waldron et al., 2003a,b; Graugnard et al., 2013; Kvidera et al., 2017a). The mechanism of LPS-induced decreases in BHB has not been fully elucidated but may be explained by increased ketone oxidation by peripheral tissues (Zarrin et al., 2014). Collectively, these metabolic alterations are presumably employed to ensure adequate glucose delivery to activated leukocytes.

Energetic Cost of Immune Activation

The energetic costs of immunoactivation are substantial, but the ubiquitous nature of the immune system makes quantifying the energetic demand difficult. Our group recently employed a series of LPS-euglycemic

clamps to quantify the energetic cost of an activated immune system. Using this model, we estimated approximately 1 kg of glucose is used by an intensely activated immune system during a 12-hour period in lactating dairy cows. Interestingly, on a metabolic body weight basis the amount of glucose utilized by LPSactivated immune system in mid- and late-lactation cows, growing steers and growing pigs were 0.64, 1.0, 0.94, 1.0, and 1.1 g glucose/kg BW0.75/h, respectively; Kvidera et al., 2016, 2017a,b, Horst et al., 2018, 2019). A limitation to our model is the inability to account for liver's contribution to the circulating glucose pool (i.e., glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis). However, both glycogenolytic and gluconeogenic rates have been shown to be increased during infection (Waldron et al., 2003b; McGuinness, 2005) and Waldron et al. (2006) demonstrated that ~87 g of glucose appeared in circulation from these processes. Furthermore, we have observed both increased circulating glucagon and cortisol (stimulators of hepatic glucose output) following LPS administration (Horst et al., 2019) suggesting we are underestimating the energetic cost of immunoactivation. The reprioritization of glucose trafficking during immunoactivation has consequences as both are considerable glucose-demanding processes. Increased immune system glucose utilization occurs simultaneously with infection-induced decreased feed intake: this coupling of enhanced nutrient requirements with hypophagia obviously decrease the amount of nutrients available for the synthesis of valuable products (milk, meat, fetus, wool, etc.).

Inflammation and Metabolic Disorders

The periparturient period is associated with substantial metabolic changes involving normal homeorhetic adaptions to support glucose sparing for milk production. Early lactation dairy cows enter a normal physiological state during which they are unable to consume enough nutrients to meet maintenance and milk production costs and typically enter negative energy balance (NEB; Drackley, 1999; Baumgard et al., 2017). During NEB, cows mobilize NEFA in order to partition glucose for milk production in a homeorhetic strategy known as the "glucose sparing." However, increasing evidence suggests that chronic inflammation may be an additional energy drain that initiates the sequence of these disorders (Bertoni et al., 2008; Eckel and Ametaj, 2016) and this is supported by human, rodent, and ruminant literature which demonstrate effects of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and inflammatory mediators on metabolism and hepatic lipid accumulation (Li et al., 2003; Bradford et al., 2009; Ilan et al., 2012; Ceccarelli et al., 2015). We and others have demonstrated that cows which develop ketosis and fatty liver postpartum have a unique inflammatory footprint both pre- and post-partum (Ohtsuka et al., 2001; Ametaj et al., 2005; Abuajamieh et al., 2016; Mezzetti et al., 2019; Figure 3). Because the activated immune system has an enormous appetite for glucose, it can exacerbate a glucose shortage by both increasing leukocyte glucose utilization and reducing gluconeogenic substrates by inhibiting appetite. Reduced DMI is a highly conserved response to immune activation across species (Brown and Bradford, 2021) which can further increase NEFA mobilization and hepatic ketogenesis (Figure 4).

Inflammation and Subclinical Hypocalcemia

Subclinical hypocalcemia remains a prevalent metabolic disorder afflicting ~25% of primiparous and ~50% of multiparous cows in the United States (Reinhardt et al., 2011). Although no overt symptoms accompany SCH, it has been loosely associated with poor gut motility, increased risk of DA, reduced production performance (i.e., milk yield and feed intake), increased susceptibility to infectious disease, impaired reproduction, and an overall higher culling risk (Seifi et al., 2011; Oetzel and Miller, 2012; Caixeta et al., 2017). Recent reports indicate that the severity of negative health outcomes observed in SCH cows appears dependent on the magnitude, persistency, and timing of SCH (Caixeta et al., 2017; McArt and Neves, 2020). For example, Caixeta et al. (2017) classified cases as either SCH or chronic SCH and observed more pronounced impairments on reproductive performance with chronic SCH. Similarly, McArt and Neves (2020) classified cows into 1 or 4 groups based on post-calving Ca concentrations: normocalcemia (>2.15 mmol/L at 1 and 2 DIM), transient SCH (≤ 2.15 mmol/L at 1 DIM), persistent SCH (≤ 2.15 mmol/L at 1 and 2 DIM), or delayed SCH (> 2.15 mmol/L at 1 DIM and ≤ 2.15 mmol/L at 2 DIM). Cows experiencing transient SCH produced more milk and were no more likely to experience a negative health event when compared to normocalcemic cows, whereas the opposite (i.e., higher health risk and hindered productivity) was observed in cows experiencing either persistent or delayed SCH. Clearly not all cases of SCH are equivalent; in fact, transient hypocalcemia appears to be correlated with improved "health" and productivity and this may explain why inconsistencies exist in the relationship between SCH and reduced productivity and health (Martinez et al., 2012; Jawor et al., 2012; Gidd et al., 2015). However, it remains unclear why despite successful implementation of mitigation strategies, SCH remains prevalent, why SCH is associated with a myriad of seemingly unrelated disorders, and what underlying factors may be explaining the different "types" of SCH.

Impressively, immune activation was originally hypothesized by early investigators to be involved with milkfever (Thomas, 1889; Hibbs, 1950), but until recently (Eckel and Ametaj, 2016) it has rarely been considered a contributing factor to hypocalcemia. Independent of the transition period, we and others have repeatedly observed a marked and unexplainable decrease in circulating calcium following LPS administration in lactating cows (Griel et al., 1975; Waldron et al., 2003; Kvidera et al., 2017b; Horst et al., 2018, 2019; Al-Qaisi et al., 2020). Infection-induced hypocalcemia is a species conserved response occurring in humans (Cardenas-Rivero et al., 1989), calves (Tennant et al., 1973; Elsasser et al., 1996;), dogs (Holowaychuk et al., 2012), horses (Toribio et al., 2005), pigs (Carlstedt et al., 2000) and sheep (Naylor and Kronfeld, 1986). Additionally, hypocalcemia occurs in response to ruminal acidosis in dairy cows (Minuti et al., 2014). It is unlikely that cows (even those that are presumably "healthy") complete the transition period without experiencing at least one immune stimulating event and we are likely underestimating its contribution to postpartum hypocalcemia. In summary, it is probable that immune activation is at least partially explaining the incidence of SCH in the postpartum period (Figure 4). It is intriguing to suggest that cases of delayed, persistent, and chronic SCH recently described by Caixeta et al. (2017) and McArt and Neves (2020) may be related to the severity of the periparturient inflammatory response. This hypothesis may explain why these cases of SCH are associated with reduced "health", as these represent direct consequences of immune activation rather than being related or caused by decreased Ca.

In addition to SCH, there are on-farm milk-fever situations that are biologically difficult to explain. For example, even while strictly adhering to a pre-calving calcium strategy, there remains a small percentage (~<1%) of cows that develop clinical hypocalcemia. Additionally, reasons for why a mid-lactation cow develops milk-fever are not obvious. Further, there appears to be an undecipherable seasonality component to clinical hypocalcemia in the southwest and western USA that coincides with the rainy season. Inarguably, there remain some aspects of Ca homeostasis that continue to evade discovery.

Conclusion

New evidence and thinking around inflammation is challenging the traditional dogmas surrounding hypocalcemia, elevated NEFA, and hyperketonemia as the causative factors in transition cow disease. We suggest, based upon the literature and on our supporting evidence, that activation of the immune system may be the causative role in transition cow failure rather than the metabolites themselves as inflammation markedly alters nutrient partitioning and these metabolites as a means of supporting the immune response (Figure 4). More research is still needed to understand the causes, mechanisms, and consequences of immune activation and how to prevent immune activation or support its efficacy to provide foundational information for developing strategies aimed at maintaining productivity.

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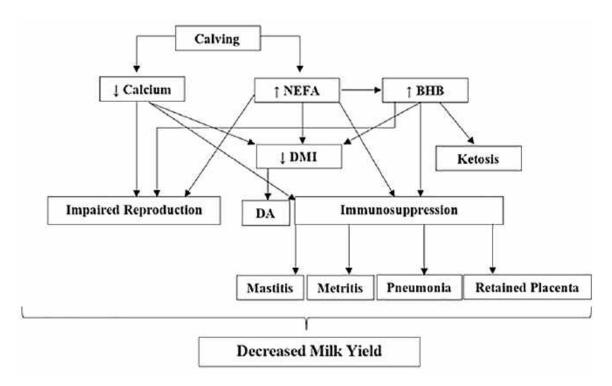


Figure 1. Traditional mechanisms by which hypocalcemia and increased NEFA and ketones are thought to cause poor transition cow health and performance

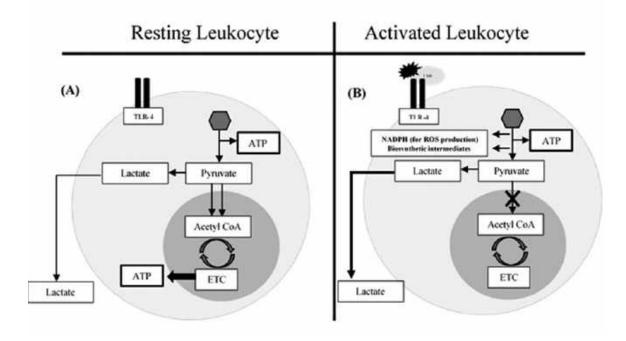


Figure 2. Metabolic pathway of a resting (A) vs. activated (B) leukocyte

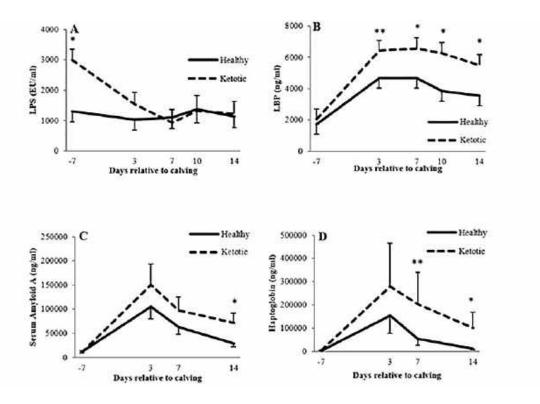


Figure 3. Markers of inflammation in healthy (solid line) and ketotic (dashed line) transition cows

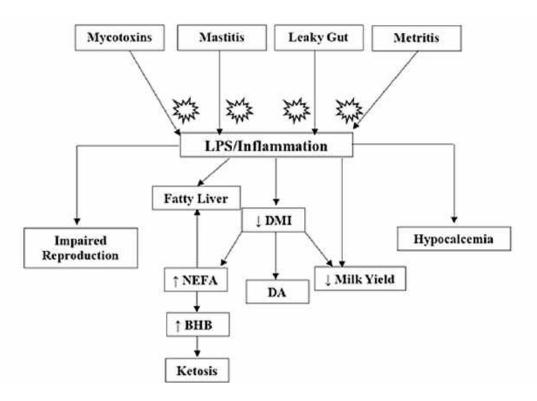


Figure 4. Potential downstream consequences of immune activation. In this model, decreased feed intake, hypocalcemia, excessive NEFA, hyperketonemia and hepatic lipidosis are not causative to poor transition cow performance and health, but rather a reflection of prior immune stimulation.

Why Heifer Maturity MattersThe Peter Pan Problem

Dr. Gavin Staley BVSc | MMedVet | Dipl. ACT Technical Service Specialist Diamond V



Why Heifer Maturity Matters The Peter Pan Problem

Dr. Gavin Staley

BVSc | MMedVet | Dipl. ACT Technical Service Specialist



Heifer maturity - what does that mean?

 Heifer Maturity Definition: The phenotypic characteristics (frame and body weight) that allow full expression of genetic potential (e.g. milk production) over the animal's lifetime

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4

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Economic incentives to breed heifers earlier

- Begin milk production earlier
- ◆ Reduce heifer inventory
- Lower heifer feed costs

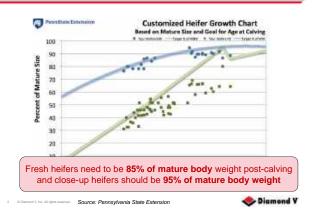
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Heifers needed to maintain herd size at different culling rates and AGEFR

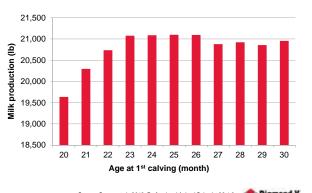
Age at first calving	Cuttrate %	Total number of herfers/100 cows required to incention herd stre		
34	40	- 86		
23	40	. 114		
22	40	80		
21	40	17		
24	15	п		
23	35	74		
22	35	70		
21	35	17		
34	30	117		
25	30	63		
22	30	60		
21	30	38		

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Mature heifer growth guidelines



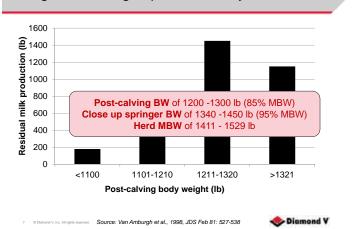
Age at calving impacts maturity



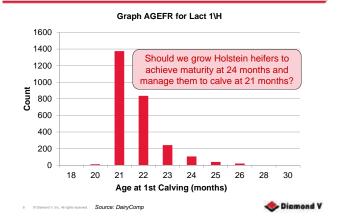
6 © Diamond V, Inc. All rights reserved. Source: Curran et al., 2013, Professional Animal Scientist 29:1-9

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Weight at calving impacts maturity



Average Daily Gain (lb/day) is critical



8

Anecdotal evidence: a tale of two dairies



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Dairy A: rBST



Dairy B: no rBST



Dairy A: rBST supplementation

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Dairy A: Holstein, 3X, with rBST supplement

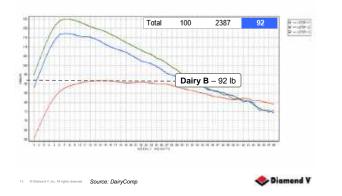


Dairy B: no rBST supplement

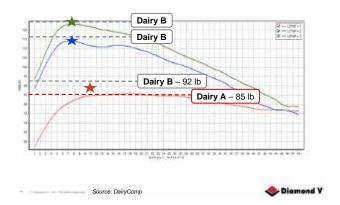


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Dairy B: Holstein, 3X, no rBST supplement

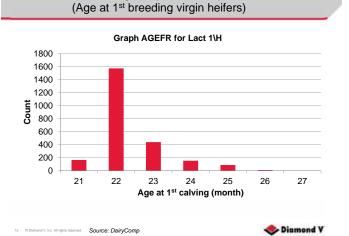


Dairy A (with Dairy B letgp production)

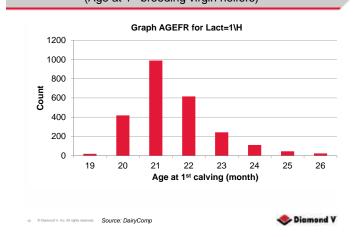


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Dairy B (No rBST)



Dairy A (rBST) (Age at 1st breeding virgin heifers)



Observations 1-4



- Week 10 Lact 1 milk approximates herd annual avg. milk
- The difference in milk between Lact 1 and Lact 2 animals at Week 5 of lactation is 30 pounds (for Holsteins)
- AGEFR impacts Lact 1 milk production
- AGEFR impacts Lact 2 milk production

Observation 1



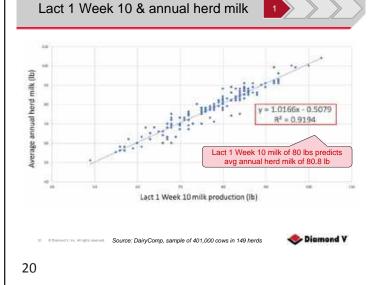
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- ◆ AGEFR impacts Lact 2 milk production

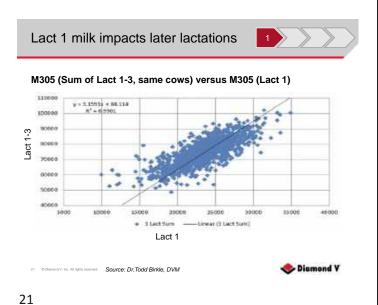
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Observation 1 Week 10 Lact 1 milk approximates herd annual avg. milk LCTGP = 1 LCTGP = 3 WMLKT Personal evaluation of DC305 records from 20 25 30 WEEKLY WEIGHTS Source: DairyComp





All animals have completed 3 lactations
2.2 its of milk in 2rd + 3rd lactation for every 1.0 its of milk in 1rd lactation

Lat 1 Protections * Relationship to Total Productions

Lat 1 Protections * Relationship to Total Production Over 2 Lactablers

10000

10000

10000

2 ** | Lact 3 Graph

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2 ** | Lact 3 Graph

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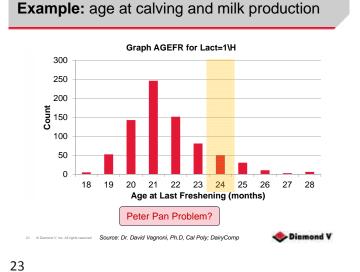
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Predict average annual milk for the ENTIRE herd from one single value (and vice versa)
 Lact 1 milk production sets "ceiling" for whole herd
 Herd cannot outperform production level set by Lact 1
 Example: a herd with 75 lb Lact 1 "peaks" (Week 10 milk) will not be capable of reaching 85 lb herd avg

Observation 2



- · Week 10 Lact 1 milk approximates herd annual avg. milk
- The difference in milk between Lact 1 and Lact 2 animals at Week 5 of lactation is 30 pounds (for Holsteins)
- AGEFR impacts Lact 1 milk production
- · AGEFR impacts Lact 2 milk production

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Implications of Observation 2



- Lact 2 and 3 production tightly linked to Lact 1 production
- For Holsteins at Week 5:
 - ◆ the difference between Lact 1 and Lact 2 is 30 lb
 - ◆ the difference between Lact 2 and Lact 3 is 8-10 lb
- This difference appears to be independent of the level of production or milking frequency.

"A rising tide lifts all boats"

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Observation 3

Observation 2

120

110

100

75

lactation is 30 pounds (for Holsteins)

B-10 pour

30 pounds



LCTGP + 3

- · Week 10 Lact 1 milk approximates herd annual avg. milk
- The difference in milk between Lact 1 and Lact 2 animals at Week 5 of lactation is 30 lb (for Holsteins)

The difference in milk between Lact 1 and Lact 2 animals at Week 5 of

20 25 30 WEEKLY WEIGHTS

- AGEFR impacts Lact 1 milk production
- · AGEFR impacts Lact 2 milk production

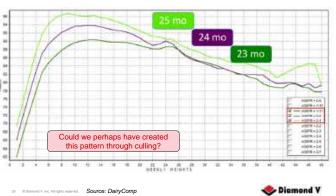
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Observation 3

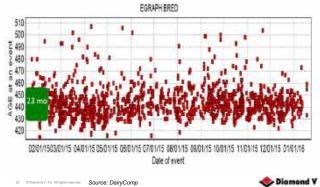


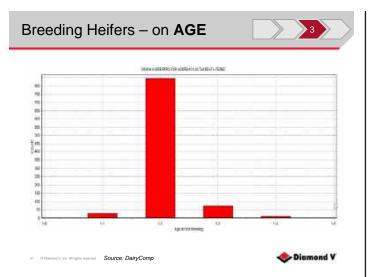
AGEFR impacts Lact 1 milk production

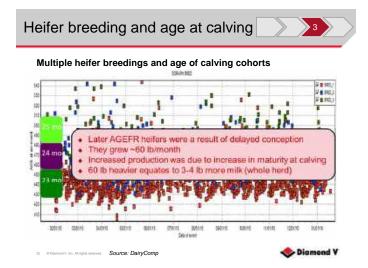


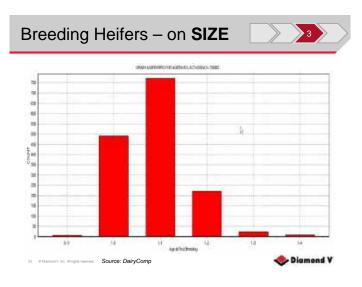
Heifer breeding and age at calving

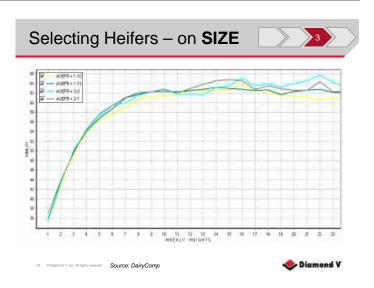
1st heifer breeding and 23 month age at calving cohort











33 34



- Week 10 Lact 1 milk approximates herd annual avg. milk
- The difference in milk between Lact 1 and Lact 2 animals at Week 5 of lactation is 30 pounds (for Holsteins)
- AGEFR impacts Lact 1 milk production
- AGEFR impacts Lact 2 milk production

AGEFR can impact Lact 2

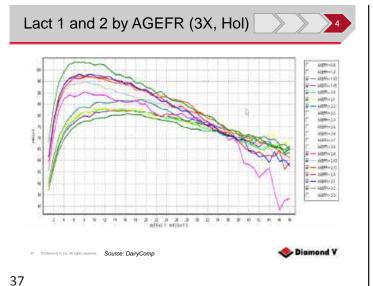
| Average lactation? | Ave

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36

Observation 4



Heifer breeding on Size and Lact2 lactation curves 120 AGEFR AGEFR = 2-2 AGEFR = 2-8 110 100 WMLK1 90 80 70 60 10 WEEKLY WEIGHTS Source: DairyComp Diamond V 38

Observations 1-4

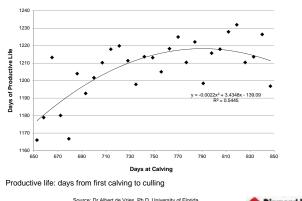


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- AGEFR impacts Lact 2 milk production

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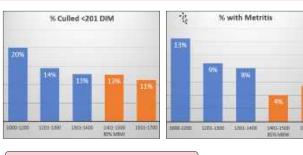
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Productive Life by AGEFR



Source: Dr Albert de Vries, Ph.D, University of Florida DHIA data: calvings in New York State, 2009; sample of 246,286 cows

Weight at calving - survival / disease



Sample of 1,880 cows Animals weighed approximately 1-12 hrs post-calving

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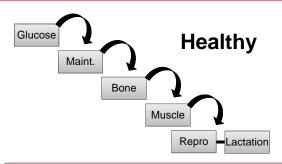
Corroborating articles



41

42

Energy Partitioning - growth priorities



If an animal does **not** reach the required level of maturity **BEFORE** calving, she will reach it **DURING** lactation ... at the expense of production

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Growing during lactation is costly

770

Energetic cost of growth

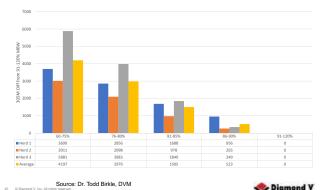
- ◆ 2.3 Mcal/lb growth
- 0.3 Mcal/lb milk
- ◆ Nets out to 8:1 ratio

Pre-calving maturity deficit will be paid back in lactation Every missing lb BW will cost 8 lbs milk ("Heifer Shrink") Growth will be 7x slower after calving than before

Source: Dairy Calf and Heifer Association 2016 Gold Standards

44

Difference in 305M for Lact=1 at different % MBW (postcalving) compared to animals at 91-120% MBW



45

Field Example

(Holstein, Post-calving Lact 1 Weights)

Command ? SUM W8MK BY WEIGH FOR LACT=1 WEIGH>1040\Q4 SUM W8MK By WEIGH Count 1172 25 56 71.6 1261 25 56 79.1 1330 26 59 83.2 1428 25 57 -------100 228 Total

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Sechop Data 8/1/2017 Puggeoted

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Field Example

(Holstein, Pre-calving Lact 1 Weights)

ADG	ву	CUWGT	Pct	Count	Αv	W8MK	Avagefr	Αv	AGED
_	 -								
1.5 lb/d		1144	24	10	_/	60.4	23		838
1.6 lb/d		1220	26	11	- [61.3	23		839
1.7 lb/d		1299	26	11	- (68.2	23		833
1.9 lb/d	<u> </u>	1412	24	10	_	68.5	23		840
	Tota	al	100	42		64.6	23		837

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Field Example

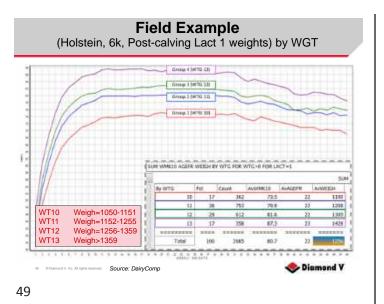
(Jersey, Lact 1-3 M305, same animals

		teclusion	89				_	
Agel	resh 1) .	-	\$1130500	2nd 305M	3rd 305M	Sum	Deviation from Asg. Sum
	48				a sometime.	2,522,530	2-211	
.19	21	40	12.0%	24131	10116	21097	56682	13354
21	22	163	49.1%	26876	1307001	21561	57228	-608
22	23	102	10.2%	37944	10954	22000	55683	648
23	-24	39	11.7%	STITUE	12423	21875	59550	1004
24	. 25	19	5.7%	FALSE	FALSE	TALSE		FALSE
25	26	2	0.6%	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE		FALSE
25	27	4	1.2%	FALSE	FALSE	TALSE		FALSE
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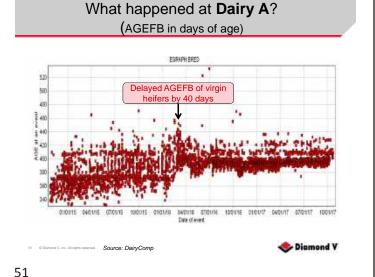
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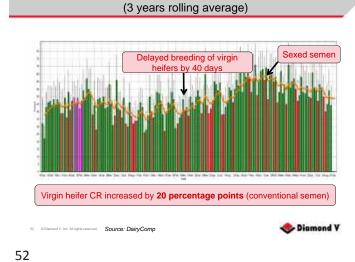
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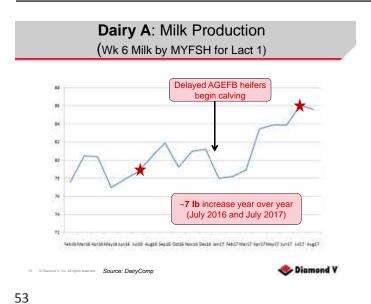


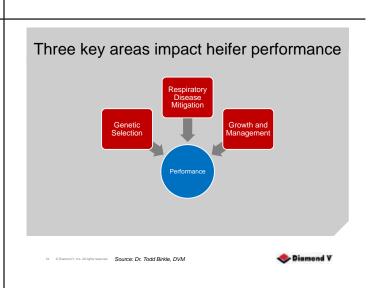
Field Example





Dairy A: Virgin Heifer Conception Rate

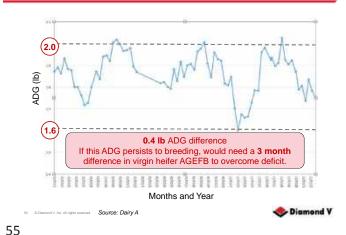




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Graph of Seasonal Fluctuation in ADG

(Heifers of 4-5 months age, average bodyweight of cohort)



Has Calving Immature Heifers been Successful?

- ♦ No! ... Why not?
- Calved heifers earlier without changing management.
- Immaturity affects entire productive life not just Lact 1
- Lact 1 do not "catch up" (there is no compensatory growth, no "reset to factory settings"!).

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Has Calving Immature Heifers been Successful?

- Focus on heifer health (mortality), not on growth.
- Focus on raising heifers cheaply with little regard to growth.
- · Common management practices e.g. overcrowding
- No or little actionable, objective monitoring (weights, heights).

A profound disconnect between growth rate (ADG) and AGEFR has occurred on many dairies

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So what's the solution?

(Caveat: FRAME not just weight)

- ◆ Weigh Lact 3 and Lact 4 cows (80-120 DIM) MBW
- Weigh Springers (DCC>260) (Goal: 95% MBW) or fresh cows (Goal: 85% MBW). May need to do several times (seasonality)
- Calculate weight difference between desired and actual weights
- Calculate ADG that heifer raising system is achieving
- Determine ADG or AGEFB required to achieve maturity at critical stages (esp. at breeding of heifers)
- Set heifer health and growth goals for all key stages of growth from birth to calving (Colostrum to Calving)
- Goal is to calve mature heifers as early as possible
 Manage and Monitor for Maturity.

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DC305 Commands used

- Average annual herd milk:
 - ◆ Econ\ID; Select Reports
- Lactation Group curves (to determine Lact 1 wk10mk and calculate difference between Lact 1 & 2 at wk5mk):
 - ◆ Plot wmlk1 by lctgp (or lgrp)
- Lactation 1 and 2 lactations by age at calving (impact of agefr on production curves):
 - ◆ Plot wmlk1 by agefr for lact=1-2 agefr<40



Why Productive Life Matters

Dr. Gavin Staley BVSc | MMedVet | Dipl. ACT Technical Service Specialist Diamond V

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Why Productive Life matters

Dr. Gavin Staley

BVSc | MMedVet | Dipl. ACT Technical Service Specialist



Productive life - what is it?

- "Productive lifespan of dairy cattle may be defined as the time from first calving to exit from the herd when the cow is no longer sufficiently productive."
 - Albert De Vries PhD, (JDS 2020, Vol 103, No. 4)
- "A long productive life ("PL") is a desirable trait from several different perspectives. Longevity combines all of the characteristics that are directly associated with a cow's ability to successfully stay in the herd."
 - Tsuruta et. al, (JDS 2005, Vol 88, No. 3)

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Why should the dairy industry be concerned with Productive Life?

- Economics
 - Profitability
 - Survival in future markets
- Societal Concerns
 - ◆ Animal Welfare

Maintaining high animal welfare up to death is increasingly more important. The public has also indicated a willingness to pay for improved dairy cattl welfare (Wolf and Tonsor, 2017).

• Climate Change

A herd with a high proportion of young animals emits more methane and excretes more phosphorus in the environment per unit of milk compared with a herd with a greater proportion of multiparous cows (Hristov et al., 20:

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Global trends in Productive Life

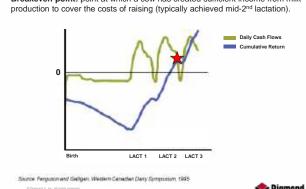
Country	Average productive life*		
New Zealand	4.2		
United Kingdom	3.9		
The Netherlands	3.7		
Poland	3.34		
France	3.25		
China	2.7 ⁶		
USA	2.77		
Canada	2,7 ⁸		
Israel	2.5		

*Productive life = time span between first calving and culling Source: FAO⁹

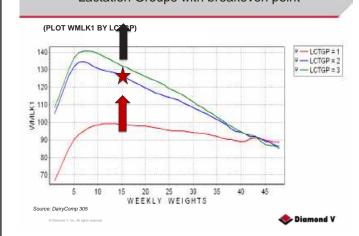
Why is productive life important?

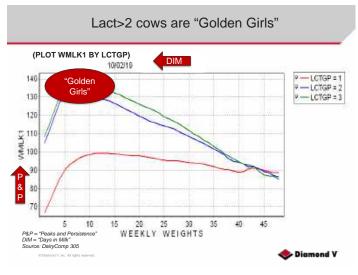
Breakeven point – lactations with cumulative return

Breakeven point: point at which a cow has created sufficient income from milk

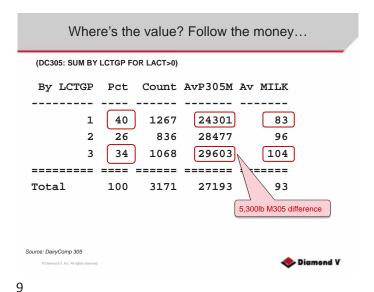


Lactation Groups with breakeven point





"Golden Girls" and demographics (PLOT WMLK1 BY LCTGP) -1.CTGP = 2Girls' Healthy (enough) F-LCTGP=3 Fertile (enough) High ECM (>6lbs 100 We need more of them! L3+ >40% means: L1 = 30-35% Culling: 30-35% Lact=0: ~35-40% (of total animals) Or, ~70-80% of Lact>0 20 25 30 WEEKLY WEIGHTS Source: DairyComp 305 🔷 Diamond V



By LCTGP Pct Count Av 305M Av MILK

1 30 1033 16764 60

2 23 809 20013 73

Ave Lact: 2.6
3 47 1608 21602 80

🔷 Diamond V

Where's the value? Follow the money...

Jersey
 47% L3: 1,608 cows, previously 37% L3
 1,276 cows

So, 332 more L3 cows
 Producing 4,800 lb more milk per lactation (M305)
 Equals 1.6M lb more milk for same number of cows

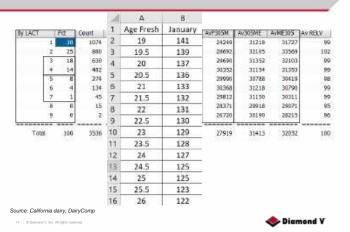
3450 19842

Total

Where's the value? Follow the money... By LACT Pct Count Av MILK AvP305M AvME305 Total ~8,000 lbs Piamond V "Lactree"

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Where's the value? Follow the money...



Culling rate and number of heifers needed

Ago at first celeling	Cult rate Ni	Total number of helfers/100 cows required to maintain herd size		
24	40 40	88		
27	40	84		
22	40	80		
21	40	H.		
24	35	77		
23	36	74		
22	16	70		
21	36	67		
24	30	67		
21	30	43		
22	20	60		
21	30	58		

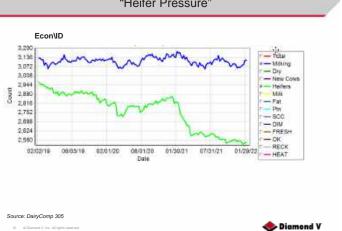
Source: Terry Batchhelder, Ph.D in Progressive Dairymen, Dec 2018

ce: Terry Batchneider, Ph.D in Progressive Dairymen, Dec 20

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Excessive heifers (sexed semen, ~30% 21-day PR) "Heifer Pressure"



How many heifers do you need?

Equation: 2*(Herd size)*(TOR)*(AFC/24)*(1+NCR)

Variables:

TOR

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- Turnover rate ("culling rate")
- Expressed as a decimal fraction

AFC

Age at first calving (months)

NCR

- Non-completion rate
- Heifers born alive (not DOA) that leave before entering the herd
- Expressed as a decimal fraction

Source: David Vagnoni, Ph.D, Cal Poly

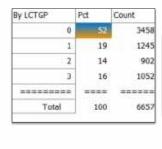
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Typical herd lactation demography

(DC305: SUM BY LCTGP)



How many heifers produced and noncompletion rate?

- Econ for Lact=0 gndr=F\E (current)
 Events\3SD (set 12 mth interval 3 yrs prior; subtract DOA's)
 - Events\2SI1415 ID BDAT FDAT ARDAT for lact=0 gndr=F BDAT=?-? (set same 12mth interval and set parameters to allow 2 yrs to pass for all animals)

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Dairy with high number of heifers

By LCTGP Pct Count 50 0 4951 20 1 1988 2 1444 14 3 16 1598 100 9981 Total

This dairy has **50% heifers** (of all animals):

- Heifer attrition birth to calving (~24%)
- So ~40% will calve
 % heifers minus attrition will be herd
- culling rate
 If the dairy only needs 30% Heifers
 (Lact=0) to maintain a 30% Cull Rate,
 there are ~10% TOO MANY heifers

10% of 4951 =495 heifers 495 X \$2/day X 365 =\$361,000

Source: DairyComp 305

Source: DairyComp 305

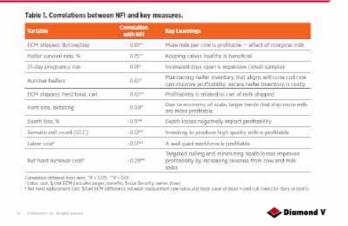
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Source: California dairy, DairyComp

Five key factors influencing herd parity demographic "The five drivers of total cost of maintaining herd structure" 1200 1000 80 70 60 50 40 30 800 calf value opportunity cost ě 600 sged cow cost 400 200 herd replacement cost. genetic opportunity cost 58 33 20 17 14 13 10 5 6 7 8 9 10 Top: Annual coll rate (%) w Averson number of lactation Source: Albert De Vries PhD, JDS, 2020, Vol. 103, No. 4 b Diamond V

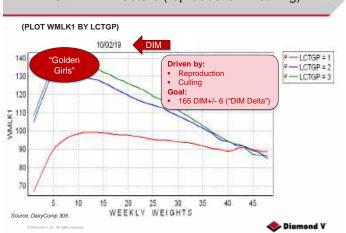
Zoetis/Compeer Financial Evaluation



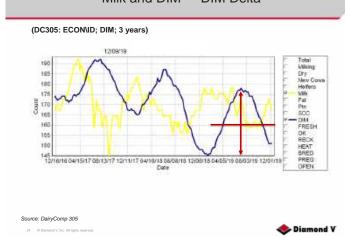
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Part 1: DIM factors (reproduction + culling)



Milk and DIM - "DIM Delta"

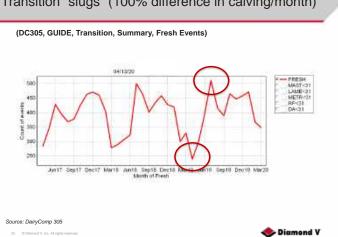


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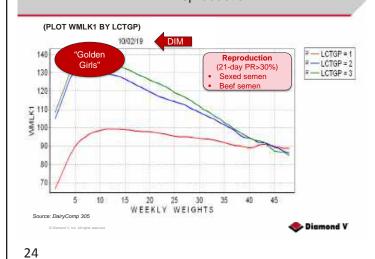
21

23

Transition "slugs" (100% difference in calving/month)



DIM: Reproduction



Reducing DIM: 21-day PR (longitudinal analysis) (pC305: Bredsum \ar, Option E, Graph) The minimation Risk Percent of Herd Still Open PR 95% CI Pregnancy Risk Percent of Herd Still Open PR 95% CI Pregnancy Risk Percent of Herd Still Open PR 95% CI Pregnancy Risk Percent of Herd Still Open Pregnancy Risk Pregnancy Risk Percent of Herd Still Open Pregnancy Risk Pre

Reducing DIM — heat stress & conception rate (3-yr) By date from 11/6/16 through 11/18/19 Total 15/16 through 11/18/19

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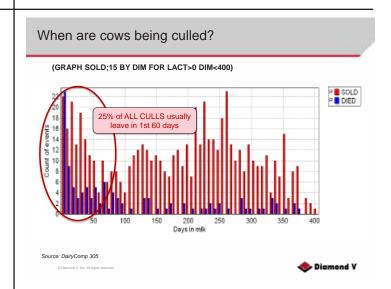
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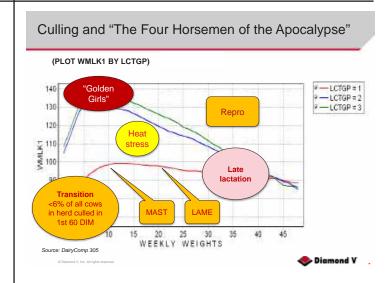
Culling information for cows (DC305, Econ for Lact>0\E; Events, Option 6) Cows sold/dead from 10/ 2/18 through 10/ 2/19 DCAR Jan19 Feb19 Mar19 Apr19 May19 Jun19 Jun19 Aug19 Sep19 Oct* Nov18 Dec18 Total Sold -- dairy Sold -- dairy Sold -- low production 49 77 49 72 26 18 45 12 18 30 15 36 447 Sold -- injury, sick 21 19 27 20 14 11 29 25 9 9 22 13 22 228 Died 15 18 12 16 17 13 12 10 11 18 16 12 170 Sold -- martitis 4 9 7 3 0 4 5 1 22 14 13 7 79 Abort 0 0 1 1 0 5 0 3 0 1 0 2 13 Totals 89 124 96 112 57 51 87 51 60 85 47 79 238 Source: DairyComp 305

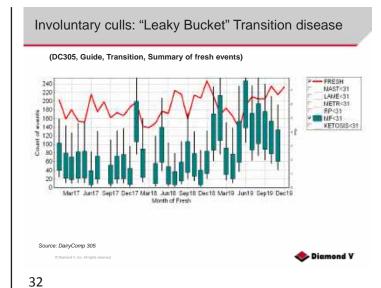


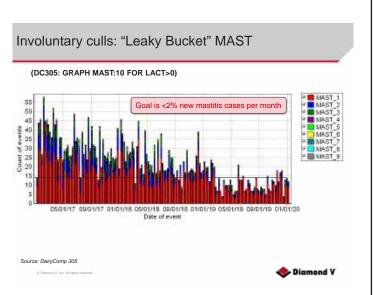
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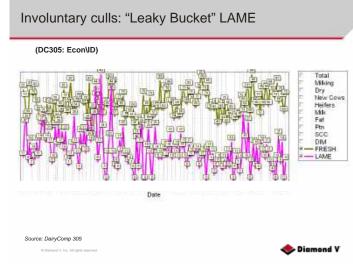
Table 1. Romero for Coding Cover more Davig Heads

| Woodstay Cutting | Heads | Heads









Part 2: Peaks and Persistence (DC305: PLOT WMLK1 BY LCTGP) 10/02/19 "Golden F-LCTGP=1 -LCTGP = 2 130 -LCTGP=3 120 Ţ 110 ₩ 100 5 40 45 WEEKLY WEIGHTS Source: DairyComp 305 Diamond V

Increasing productive life: "Peaks and Persistence"

1. Heifer maturity ("Peter Pan Problem")
2. Production (ECM, >6lb fat and protein)*
3. Smooth Transition (Disease %)
4. Cow comfort (Facilities, Bedding, Rubber)
5. Genetics (Crossbreds, Health traits)
6. Forage Quality (corn and winter silage, byproducts)
7. Optimize heat abatement (Holding pen, Fans, Soakers)

Source: Steve Bodart, Comper

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Lact =1 10 week milk & avg annual herd milk

Value of heifer maturity

Lact =1 10 week milk & avg annual herd milk

Value of heifer maturity

Lact =1 10 week milk & avg annual herd milk

Value of heifer maturity

Lact =1 10 week milk of 80lb predicts avg annual herd milk of 80.8lb

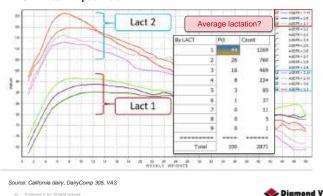
38

Source: 401k cows in 149 herds

37

Impact of heifer maturity on Lact 1 and 2

AGEFR can impact Lact 2



39

Involuntary culls: stopping the "Leaky Bucket"

- 12. Mastitis (% clinical and subclinical, parlor efficiency)
- 13. Lameness (alleyways, %, type, occurrence, hoof trimming)
- 14. Transition Disease
- 15. People (attitude, skill, loyalty)

Increasing productive life: reducing DIM & variability

Lact=1 Week 10 Milk

- 8. DIM (160 +\- 5 days) (seasonal calving variability)
- Pregnancy Rates (synch. programs, 21-day PR>25%, abortions)
- 10. Heat abatement (Bredsum\r, "Slugging")
- 11. Culling (late lactation, voluntary)

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Summary

1/11

- The average lactation of most dairy herds is low (2.1-2.2) which means productive life is limited
- Many cows still have a replacement cost "mortgage" since breakeven point is in 2nd lactation
- ♦ Healthy mature cows (Lact>2) are most profitable
- Two key factors are: (1) lowering DIM and (2) increasing peaks and persistence

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Summary II/II

 Limiting heifer inventory is key to lowering culling rate ("Heifer Pressure")

- Managing/mitigating the causes for involuntary culling ("The 4 Horsemen of the Apocolypse") are critical to increasing the number of healthy mature cows
- Dairies can shift the demographics to mature the herd ("graduate cows")
- This is a primarily a voluntary management decision on most dairies

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Dry-off Inflammation and its Association with Transition Cow Performance

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Introduction

Suboptimal milk yield limits the U.S. dairy industry's productive competitiveness, marginalizes efforts to reduce inputs into food production, and increases animal agriculture's carbon footprint. There are a variety of circumstances in a cow's life which activate the immune system and result in hindered productivity (i.e., metritis, mastitis, intestinal dysfunction). Although there are many etiological origins, a commonality among them is increased production of inflammatory biomarkers and markedly altered nutrient partitioning. Importantly, nutrition programs are frequently inculpated for poor transition cow performance because of the (likely fallacious) presumed adverse effects of elevated lipid metabolites and hypocalcemia on production and immunosuppression. In contrast, we suggest that many post-calving undesirable phenotypes (reduced dry matter intake [DMI], hypocalcemia, elevated non-esterified fatty acids [NEFA], hyperketonemia) are a direct consequence of immune activation and not themselves causative of transition cow maladies. For a more detailed description of the areas covered herein, see our recent review (Horst et al., 2021).

Traditional Dogmas

Long-standing tenets describe a causal role of hypocalcemia, increased NEFA, and hyperketonemia in the incidence of transition diseases and disorders (Figure 1). Hypocalcemia has traditionally been considered a gateway disorder leading to ketosis, mastitis, metritis, displaced abomasum, impaired reproduction, and decreased milk yield (Curtis et al., 1983; Goff, 2008; Martinez et al., 2012; Chapinal et al., 2012; Riberio et al., 2013; Neves et al., 2018a,b). The proposed mechanisms by which hypocalcemia leads to these ailments include impaired skeletal muscle strength and gastrointestinal motility (Goff, 2008; Oetzel, 2013; Miltenburg et al., 2016), decreased insulin secretion (Martinez et al., 2012, 2014), and the development of immunosuppression (Kimura et al., 2006). Like hypocalcemia, increased NEFA and hyperketonemia are presumed causative to illnesses such as DA, retained placenta, metritis, reduced lactation performance, poor reproduction, and an overall increased culling risk (Cameron et al., 1998; LeBlanc et al., 2005; Duffield et al., 2009; Ospina et al., 2010; Chapinal et al., 2011; Huzzey et al., 2011). Excessive NEFA mobilization and the affiliated increase in hepatic lipid uptake, triglyceride (TG) storage, and ketone body production has been traditionally believed to be the driving factor leading to ketosis and fatty liver (Grummer, 1993; Drackley, 1999). Additionally, elevated NEFA and ketones are thought to compromise immune function (Lacetera et al., 2004; Hammon et al., 2006; Scalia et al., 2006; Ster et al., 2012) and suppress feed intake (Allen et al., 2009). Thus, the magnitude of changes in NEFA, BHB and Ca have traditionally thought to be predictors of future performance and problems.

Inflammation in the Transition Period

Regardless of health status (Humblet et al., 2006), increased inflammatory biomarkers are observed in nearly all cows during the periparturient period (Ametaj et al., 2005; Humblet et al., 2006; Bionaz et al., 2007; Bertoni et al., 2008; Mullins et al., 2012). The magnitude and persistency of the inflammatory response seems to be predictive of transition cow performance (Bertoni et al., 2008; Bradford et al., 2015; Trevisi and Minuti, 2018). During the weeks surrounding calving, cows are exposed to a myriad of stressors which may permit endotoxin entry into systemic circulation and thereby initiate an inflammatory response (Khafipour et al., 2009; Kvidera et al., 2017c; Proudfoot et al., 2018; Barragan et al., 2018; Koch et al., 2019). The frequency and severity of these inflammation-inducing insults presumably determines the level of inflammation that follows (Bertoni et al., 2008; Trevisi and Minuti, 2018). Common origins of endotoxin entry include the uterus (metritis) and mammary gland (mastitis). Additionally, we believe the gastrointestinal tract may contribute as many of the characteristic responses (rumen acidosis, decreased feed intake, and psychological stress) occurring during the transition period can compromise gut barrier function (Horst et al., 2021).

Although an overt inflammatory response is present around calving, numerous reports have described a reduction in immune competence during this time (Kehrli et al., 1989; Goff and Horst, 1997; Lacetera et al., 2005). Traditionally, hypocalcemia and hyperketonemia have been primary factors considered responsible for periparturient immunosuppression (Goff and Horst, 1997; Kimura et al., 2006; LeBlanc, 2020); however, recent evidence suggests this is more complex than originally understood and that the systemic inflammatory milieu may be mediating the immune system to become "altered" and not necessarily "suppressed" around calving (Trevisi and Minuti, 2018; LeBlanc, 2020). Whether or not the "immune incompetence" frequently reported post-calving is causative to future illnesses or is a consequence of prior immune stimulation needs further attention.

The Importance of Glucose

To adequately recognize the connection between inflammation and transition period success, an appreciation for the importance of glucose is a prerequisite. Glucose is the precursor to lactose, the milk constituent primarily driving milk volume through osmoregulation (Neville, 1990). Approximately 72 g of glucose is required to synthesize 1 kg of milk (Kronfeld, 1982). A variety of metabolic adaptations take place in lactating mammals including increased liver glucose output and peripheral insulin resistance which allows for skeletal muscle to have increased reliance upon lipid-derived fuel (i.e., NEFA and BHBA) to spare glucose for milk synthesis and secretion by the mammary gland (Baumgard et al., 2017). The immune system is also heavily reliant on glucose when activated. The metabolism of inflammation (discussed below) has its own unique metabolic footprint to direct glucose toward the immune system. Consequently, when the onset of inflammation and lactation coincide, glucose becomes an extremely valuable and scarce resource.

Ketogenesis occurs when glucose is in short supply. This can come from a combination of factors including lack of substrate (i.e., reduced feed intake and ruminal fermentation) or high glucose utilization by other tissues (i.e., the immune system or mammary gland). When glucose demand is high, the TCA cycle intermediate oxaloacetate leaves the cycle to supply carbon for gluconeogenesis. Oxaloacetate is also the molecule that combines with acetyl CoA (the end-product of adipose-derived NEFA) to allow the TCA cycle to continue progressing. If the TCA cycle is limited in its progression due to lack of oxaloacetate, acetyl CoA enters into ketogenesis. The link between onset of lactation, immune system activation, and lack of glucose leading to ketogenesis may help to explain the metabolic footprint of a poorly transitioning dairy cow.

Metabolism of Inflammation

Inflammation has an energetic cost which redirects nutrients away from anabolic processes (see review by Johnson, 2012) and thus compromises productivity. Upon activation, most immune cells become obligate glucose utilizers via a metabolic shift from oxidative phosphorylation to aerobic glycolysis (not anaerobic glycolysis typically learned about in biochemistry classes), a process known as the Warburg effect (Figure 2).

This metabolic shift allows for rapid ATP production and synthesis of important intermediates which support proliferation and production of reactive oxygen species (Calder et al., 2007; Palsson-McDermott and O'Neill, 2013). In an effort to facilitate glucose uptake, immune cells become more insulin sensitive and increase expression of GLUT3 and GLUT4 transporters (Maratou et al., 2007; O'Boyle et al., 2012), whereas peripheral tissues become insulin resistant (Poggi et al., 2007; Liang et al., 2013). Furthermore, metabolic adjustments including hyperglycemia or hypoglycemia (depending upon the stage and severity of infection), increased circulating insulin and glucagon, skeletal muscle catabolism and subsequent nitrogen loss, and hypertriglyceridemia occur (Filkins, 1978; Wannemacher et al., 1980; Lanza-Jacoby et al., 1998; McGuinness, 2005). Interestingly, despite hypertriglyceridemia, circulating BHB often decreases following LPS administration (Waldron et al., 2003a,b; Graugnard et al., 2013; Kvidera et al., 2017a). The mechanism of LPS-induced decreases in BHB has not been fully elucidated but may be explained by increased ketone oxidation by peripheral tissues (Zarrin et al., 2014). Collectively, these metabolic alterations are presumably employed to ensure adequate glucose delivery to activated leukocytes.

Energetic Cost of Immune Activation

The energetic costs of immunoactivation are substantial, but the ubiquitous nature of the immune system makes quantifying the energetic demand difficult. Our group recently employed a series of LPS-euglycemic

clamps to quantify the energetic cost of an activated immune system. Using this model, we estimated approximately 1 kg of glucose is used by an intensely activated immune system during a 12-hour period in lactating dairy cows. Interestingly, on a metabolic body weight basis the amount of glucose utilized by LPSactivated immune system in mid- and late-lactation cows, growing steers and growing pigs were 0.64, 1.0, 0.94, 1.0, and 1.1 g glucose/kg BW0.75/h, respectively; Kvidera et al., 2016, 2017a,b, Horst et al., 2018, 2019). A limitation to our model is the inability to account for liver's contribution to the circulating glucose pool (i.e., glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis). However, both glycogenolytic and gluconeogenic rates have been shown to be increased during infection (Waldron et al., 2003b; McGuinness, 2005) and Waldron et al. (2006) demonstrated that ~87 g of glucose appeared in circulation from these processes. Furthermore, we have observed both increased circulating glucagon and cortisol (stimulators of hepatic glucose output) following LPS administration (Horst et al., 2019) suggesting we are underestimating the energetic cost of immunoactivation. The reprioritization of glucose trafficking during immunoactivation has consequences as both are considerable glucose-demanding processes. Increased immune system glucose utilization occurs simultaneously with infection-induced decreased feed intake: this coupling of enhanced nutrient requirements with hypophagia obviously decrease the amount of nutrients available for the synthesis of valuable products (milk, meat, fetus, wool, etc.).

Inflammation and Metabolic Disorders

The periparturient period is associated with substantial metabolic changes involving normal homeorhetic adaptions to support glucose sparing for milk production. Early lactation dairy cows enter a normal physiological state during which they are unable to consume enough nutrients to meet maintenance and milk production costs and typically enter negative energy balance (NEB; Drackley, 1999; Baumgard et al., 2017). During NEB, cows mobilize NEFA in order to partition glucose for milk production in a homeorhetic strategy known as the "glucose sparing." However, increasing evidence suggests that chronic inflammation may be an additional energy drain that initiates the sequence of these disorders (Bertoni et al., 2008; Eckel and Ametaj, 2016) and this is supported by human, rodent, and ruminant literature which demonstrate effects of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and inflammatory mediators on metabolism and hepatic lipid accumulation (Li et al., 2003; Bradford et al., 2009; Ilan et al., 2012; Ceccarelli et al., 2015). We and others have demonstrated that cows which develop ketosis and fatty liver postpartum have a unique inflammatory footprint both pre- and post-partum (Ohtsuka et al., 2001; Ametaj et al., 2005; Abuajamieh et al., 2016; Mezzetti et al., 2019; Figure 3). Because the activated immune system has an enormous appetite for glucose, it can exacerbate a glucose shortage by both increasing leukocyte glucose utilization and reducing gluconeogenic substrates by inhibiting appetite. Reduced DMI is a highly conserved response to immune activation across species (Brown and Bradford, 2021) which can further increase NEFA mobilization and hepatic ketogenesis (Figure 4).

Inflammation and Subclinical Hypocalcemia

Subclinical hypocalcemia remains a prevalent metabolic disorder afflicting ~25% of primiparous and ~50% of multiparous cows in the United States (Reinhardt et al., 2011). Although no overt symptoms accompany SCH, it has been loosely associated with poor gut motility, increased risk of DA, reduced production performance (i.e., milk yield and feed intake), increased susceptibility to infectious disease, impaired reproduction, and an overall higher culling risk (Seifi et al., 2011; Oetzel and Miller, 2012; Caixeta et al., 2017). Recent reports indicate that the severity of negative health outcomes observed in SCH cows appears dependent on the magnitude, persistency, and timing of SCH (Caixeta et al., 2017; McArt and Neves, 2020). For example, Caixeta et al. (2017) classified cases as either SCH or chronic SCH and observed more pronounced impairments on reproductive performance with chronic SCH. Similarly, McArt and Neves (2020) classified cows into 1 or 4 groups based on post-calving Ca concentrations: normocalcemia (>2.15 mmol/L at 1 and 2 DIM), transient SCH (≤ 2.15 mmol/L at 1 DIM), persistent SCH (≤ 2.15 mmol/L at 1 and 2 DIM), or delayed SCH (> 2.15 mmol/L at 1 DIM and ≤ 2.15 mmol/L at 2 DIM). Cows experiencing transient SCH produced more milk and were no more likely to experience a negative health event when compared to normocalcemic cows, whereas the opposite (i.e., higher health risk and hindered productivity) was observed in cows experiencing either persistent or delayed SCH. Clearly not all cases of SCH are equivalent; in fact, transient hypocalcemia appears to be correlated with improved "health" and productivity and this may explain why inconsistencies exist in the relationship between SCH and reduced productivity and health (Martinez et al., 2012; Jawor et al., 2012; Gidd et al., 2015). However, it remains unclear why despite successful implementation of mitigation strategies, SCH remains prevalent, why SCH is associated with a myriad of seemingly unrelated disorders, and what underlying factors may be explaining the different "types" of SCH.

Impressively, immune activation was originally hypothesized by early investigators to be involved with milkfever (Thomas, 1889; Hibbs, 1950), but until recently (Eckel and Ametaj, 2016) it has rarely been considered a contributing factor to hypocalcemia. Independent of the transition period, we and others have repeatedly observed a marked and unexplainable decrease in circulating calcium following LPS administration in lactating cows (Griel et al., 1975; Waldron et al., 2003; Kvidera et al., 2017b; Horst et al., 2018, 2019; Al-Qaisi et al., 2020). Infection-induced hypocalcemia is a species conserved response occurring in humans (Cardenas-Rivero et al., 1989), calves (Tennant et al., 1973; Elsasser et al., 1996;), dogs (Holowaychuk et al., 2012), horses (Toribio et al., 2005), pigs (Carlstedt et al., 2000) and sheep (Naylor and Kronfeld, 1986). Additionally, hypocalcemia occurs in response to ruminal acidosis in dairy cows (Minuti et al., 2014). It is unlikely that cows (even those that are presumably "healthy") complete the transition period without experiencing at least one immune stimulating event and we are likely underestimating its contribution to postpartum hypocalcemia. In summary, it is probable that immune activation is at least partially explaining the incidence of SCH in the postpartum period (Figure 4). It is intriguing to suggest that cases of delayed, persistent, and chronic SCH recently described by Caixeta et al. (2017) and McArt and Neves (2020) may be related to the severity of the periparturient inflammatory response. This hypothesis may explain why these cases of SCH are associated with reduced "health", as these represent direct consequences of immune activation rather than being related or caused by decreased Ca.

In addition to SCH, there are on-farm milk-fever situations that are biologically difficult to explain. For example, even while strictly adhering to a pre-calving calcium strategy, there remains a small percentage (~<1%) of cows that develop clinical hypocalcemia. Additionally, reasons for why a mid-lactation cow develops milk-fever are not obvious. Further, there appears to be an undecipherable seasonality component to clinical hypocalcemia in the southwest and western USA that coincides with the rainy season. Inarguably, there remain some aspects of Ca homeostasis that continue to evade discovery.

Conclusion

New evidence and thinking around inflammation is challenging the traditional dogmas surrounding hypocalcemia, elevated NEFA, and hyperketonemia as the causative factors in transition cow disease. We suggest, based upon the literature and on our supporting evidence, that activation of the immune system may be the causative role in transition cow failure rather than the metabolites themselves as inflammation markedly alters nutrient partitioning and these metabolites as a means of supporting the immune response (Figure 4). More research is still needed to understand the causes, mechanisms, and consequences of immune activation and how to prevent immune activation or support its efficacy to provide foundational information for developing strategies aimed at maintaining productivity.

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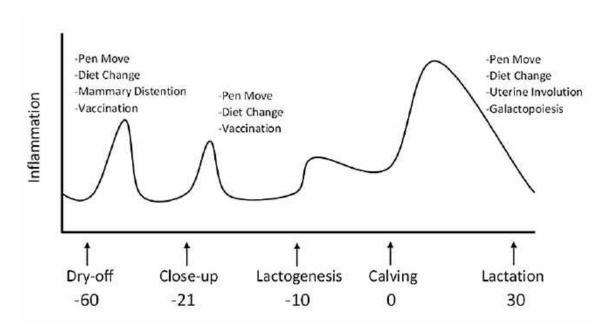


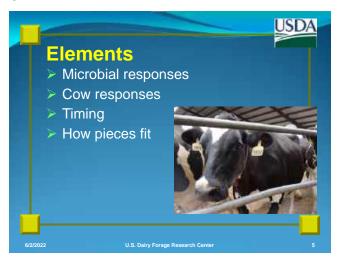
Figure 1: The inflammatory response associated with the multiple insults occurring to dairy cows from dry-off to calving

Modifying Milk Components: Day Is Not Always Our Time Step (?)

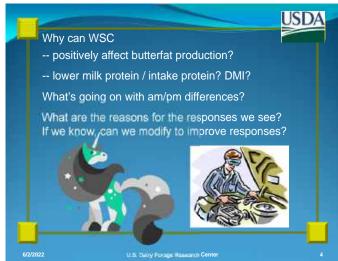
Mary Beth Hall, PhD ISDA



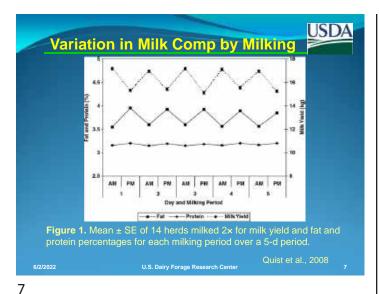






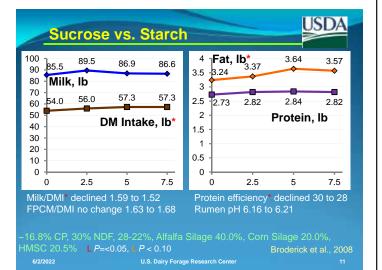








Feeds change Butterfat, Milk Protein, and Intake ?



Performance Study

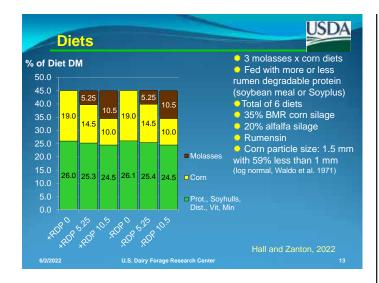
59 cows on performance study (1.8 lactations)
By the end of the study, cows averaged
100 lb milk, 3.60% fat, 3.02% protein
60.7 lb dry matter intake
1,481 lb body weight

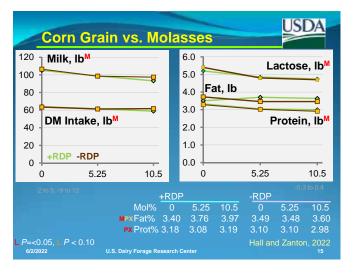
2 weeks
covariate

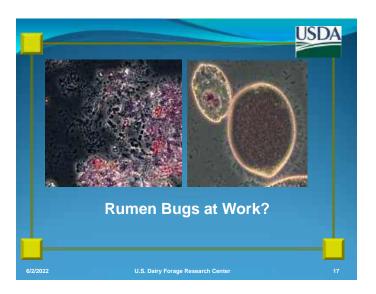
8 weeks on experimental diets

Measurements: wk 2 of covariate, 4 and 8 of experimental period

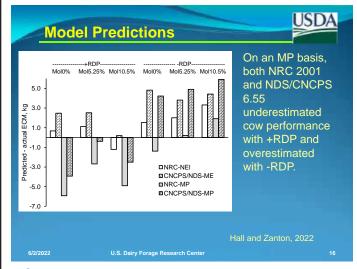
Study supported by Westway Feed Products, LLC.

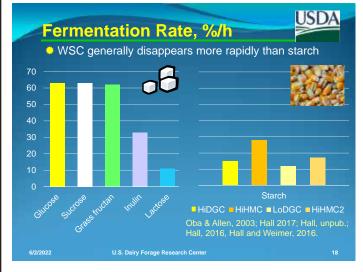


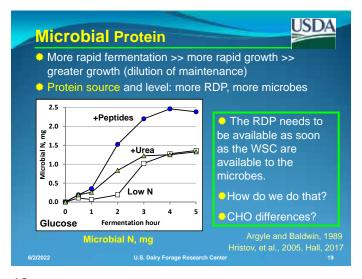


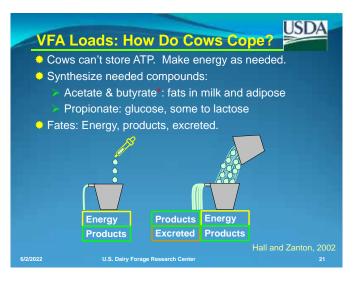


						USDA			
Diets									
% of DM	+RDP0	+RDP5.25	+RDP10.5	-RDP0	-RDP5.25	-RDP10.5			
CP, %	16.6	16.6	16.6	16.5	16.6	16.5			
aNDFom %	26.8	26.1	25.3	26.8	26.2	25.3			
NFC%	46.0	45.5	45.0	46.2	45.7	45.2			
Starch%	28.3	25.1	21.8	28.3	25.1	21.8			
"Sugar"%	5.5	8.5	11.5	5.5	8.6	11.6			
Ash%	7.6	8.1	8.7	7.6	8.1	8.7			
Starch+sugar	33.8	33.6	33.4	33.8	33.6	33.4			
N/S	9.6	9.5	8.7	9.6	9.5	8.7			
forage NDF, %	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0			
forageNDF%ofBW	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79			
 Primary goals were to keep the diets similar in sugar + starch, crude protein, and NDF ~2.5 lb free sugar difference between 0 and 10.5% molasses diets 									
Hall and Zanton, 2022									
6/2/2022 U.S. Dairy Forage Research Center									

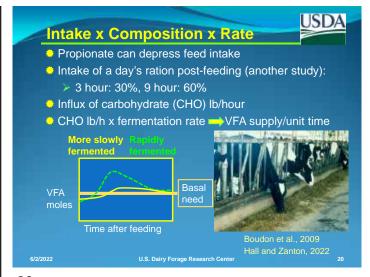


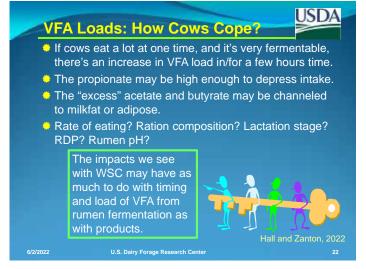














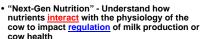
Circadian Feeding Strategies to Improve Performance

Dr. Isaac J. Salfer University of Minnesota



Nutrition .

 Traditional dairy nutrition has focused only on the role of nutrition as substrates for milk & body weight synthesis



"Nutrigenomics"

2

- Host-Microbiome Interactions
- Nutrition-immune interactions
- Chrono-nutrition

. Biological Rhythms & Nutrition



1

Biological rhythms

- What are biological rhythms?
 Repeating cycles of behavior & physiology that are generated by an internal mechanism within an organism
- Why do organisms have them?
 Predict changes in their environment before they occur
 - Coordinate physiology with environment Social/reproductive timing

 - Offset biochemically incompatible processes
- · How are they generated?

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- Sensing external environment to <u>set</u> the rhythm
 Cycles of <u>gene expression</u> within individual cells create "gears of clock"
- Hormone/neural signals to communicate between cells



Corcadian disruption predisposes people to metabolic disorders

Polymorphisms in clock genes

Shift Work Disorder

- ↑ Obesity
- A Cardiovascular di



Dairy Farmers

Social Jet Lag ↑ BMI



Is there potential to use "Chrono-Nutrition" Strategies for Dairy Cows

- · Cows are creatures of habit
 - · Cow's life is dictated by schedules of feeding & milking
 - · Daily patterns of feed intake & milk production



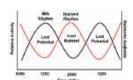
· Many large dairy farms operate nearly 24 h/d

. New technologies allow us to better understand & adapt to cows daily schedules





Are we losing efficiency if the feeding pattern and mammary circadian clock are not aligned



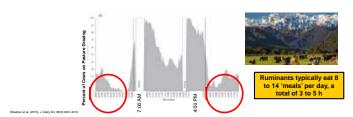


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The feeding pattern of cows nearly is crepuscular active at dawn dusk



2 large bouts of feed intake in the morning (~6 to 9 AM) and af

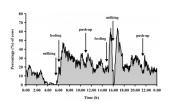




Feeding pattern of cattle in commercial settings

- Delivering fresh feed stimulates feed intake
- Milking stimulates eating after return from parlor
- Pushing up feed doesn't really stimulate eating unless cows previously couldn't eat
- Social behavior cows will be stimulated to eat if other cows are eating, unless barn is overstocked or bully cow is eating



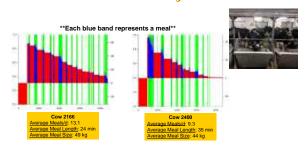


DeVries et al. (2003), J. Dairy Sci. 86(12):407

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Individual Variations in Feeding Behavior

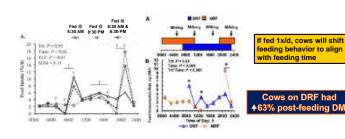


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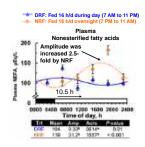
Effect of feeding time on feeding pattern





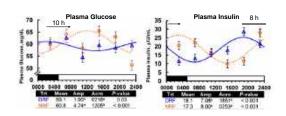
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"Starvation Response" greater when cows were fasted during the afternoon



Uneasty of Mer

Plasma glucose and insulin concentrations were shifted by the time of feed restriction



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TRF: Fed 16 h/d during day (7 AM to 11 PM)

NRF: Fed 16 h/d overnight (7 PM to 11 AM)

12

Should we feed cows at night to fight heat stress



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Should we feed cows at night to fight heat stress

- During summer heat stress several dairy farms feed cows in the evening to try to get cows to eat when it is cooler out
- However, this results in cows having least fresh feed during the mid-afternoon when intake is high, and the cows will get hungry during this period
- Cows will 'slug feed' after evening feed delivery, causing rumen pH drop and exacerbation of heat stress
- Better plan: feed 2x or feed in heat of the afternoon to stimulate

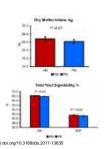
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Effect of Night Feeding in the Summer

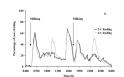






Effect of feeding frequency on feeding pattern





Increasing feeding frequency spreads out feed intake across the day (more, smaller meals)

Dairy herds that feed 2x/d:

- Average 3.1 lbs/day greater dry matter intake (Sova et al. 2013)
- Average 4.4 lbs/day greater milk yield (Sova et al. 2013)
- Have greater milk fat synthesis (Woolpert et al. 2017)



16

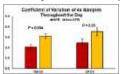
Implementation of Automated Feeding Robots to Improve Feed Consistency

- Milk & TMR collected from 16 herds in MN, WI, IA

 8 with automated feeding robots & AMS

 8 pairs with similar geography, herd size & breed w/AMS

 17MR collected 4v/d analyzed for nutrients & particle distribution
- Feeding with automated feeding robots decreased daily variation in DM and CP of TMR





- · No major differences in production/components -will measure FA profile soon!
- Kamau et al. 2022 abstract submitted to ADSA annual meeting

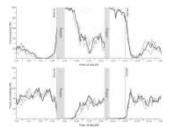


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Rumination pattern is inverse of feed intake

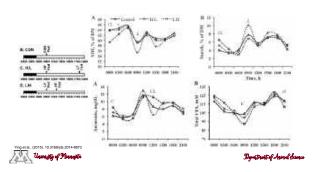


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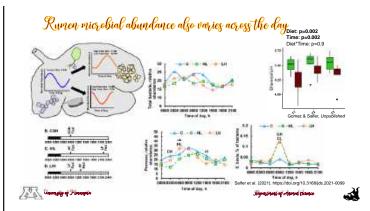


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Nutrients in the Rumen Very Across the Day



19



20

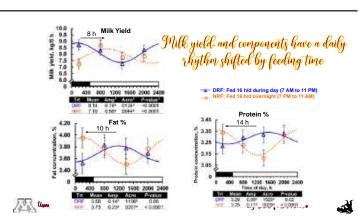
The "Konefal Method"

- Canadian rancher Gus Konefal observed that feeding pregnant beef cows at night (9:30 to 10 PM) caused them to calve during the day
 - This became a popular anecdotal strategy for increasing daytime calvings
- Subsequent research has confirmed that feeding in late evening/night results in 85% of calvings to occur during the day (6 AM to 6 PM)
- Daytime calving carries into future parturitions
- · Mechanism unknown



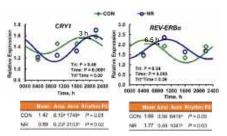
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Feeding shifts the genes associated with the mammary cellular circadian clock



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CRY1 and REV-ERBa: Circadian proteins involved in the cellular circadian clock

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Melatonin follows a daily pattern in milk



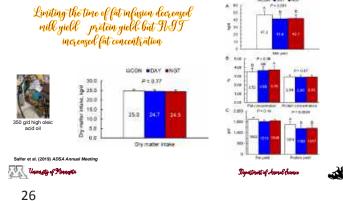
Can we produce more melatonin in milk for baby formulas?

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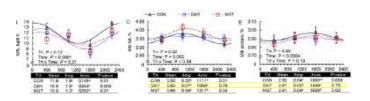
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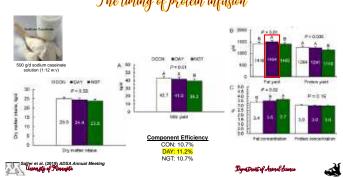
Day infusion of fat lowered daily variation in milk fat and protein percent



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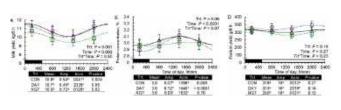
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The timing of protein infusion



28

The rhythm of milk protein concentration was ablated in night infusion



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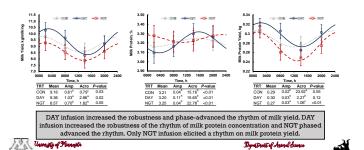
Timing of sodium acetate infusion does not impact milk production

Variable		SE	P-value ²			
variable	CON	DAY	NIGHT	SE	r-value-	
Yield, kg/d	•					
Milk	36.0	36.6	34.1	2.13	0.35	
Fat	1.55	1.46	1.42	0.11	0.60	
Protein	1.19	1.17	1.06	0.08	0.34	
Milk Composition, %						
Fat	4.22	4.10	4.21	0.24	0.74	
Protein	3.20	3.23	3.20	0.11	0.77	

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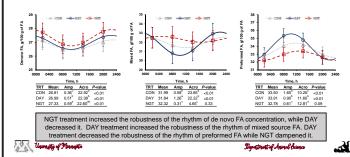
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Time of infusion of acetate affected the rhythm of milk and protein production



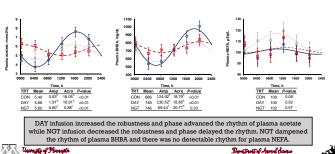
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Night infusion dampened a rhythm in mixed and preformed fatty acids



32

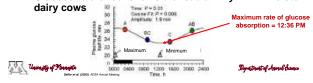
Day infusion increased the robustness of the rhythm of plasma acetate



Circadian rhythms and glucose metabolism in ruminants

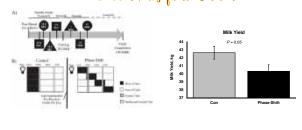
• Plasma glucose & insulin concentration follow circadian rhythms in sheep & cattle Glucose peaks at ~ 2 AM Insulin peaks at ~ 6 PM

· Glucose tolerance follows a circadian rhythm in Holstein



34

Chronic Phase Shift during Dry Period Decreased Milk Yield in Subsequent Lactation



McCabe et al. (2021) doi.org/10
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Surrory

- Time of feeding has major impacts on systemic metabolism & rhythms of milk yield in dairy cows
- Changes in mammary rhythms are at least partially modulated by changes in the molecular clock
- Total daily production is altered by timing of post-ruminal fat & protein availability
 AM or PM limited infusion of fat reduced milk yield
 AM limited infusion of protein increased milk fat
- · Daily pattern of rumen microbes is susceptible to dietary changes
- · Insulin-stimulated glucose uptake follows a daily pattern in dairy cows





37

Acknowledgements







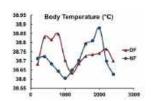


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Body Tenperature is a Marker of Central Circadian Rhythm



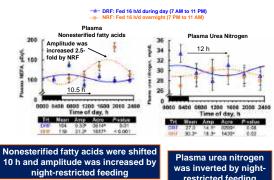
Daily Rhythm of Body Temperature is Modified by Feeding Time







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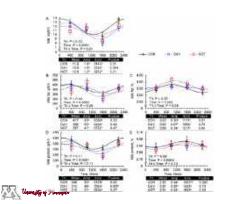
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Plasma urea nitrogen was inverted by night-restricted feeding



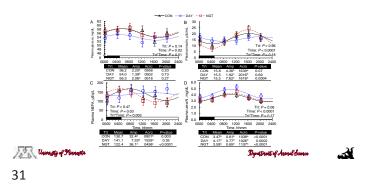


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Alternative Forages for the Dry Cow Diet

Phil Cardoso University of Illinois

INTRODUCTION

Dairy operations large and small continue to be plagued by a high incidence of metabolic disorders and infectious diseases around calving. Turbulent transitions increase health care expenses, decrease milk production, impair reproductive performance, and result in premature culling or death. Farm profitability and animal well-being both suffer. Despite many years of research and field emphasis, practical management strategies to minimize health problems while still promoting high milk production have remained vague. Overall, research data fail to demonstrate that steam-up diets (high-energy solely based on corn silage) consistently improve production, body condition, reproduction, or health after calving. Is there a better way? Controlled energy during the dry period. Over the last decades, our research group has investigated whether controlling energy intake during the dry period might lead to better transition success. Our solution to the potential for cows to over-consume energy is to formulate rations of relatively low energy density (0.59 – 0.63 Mcal NEL/lb DM) that cows can consume free choice without greatly exceeding their daily energy requirements. It is important to note that we are not proposing to limit energy intake to less than cows' requirements but rather to feed them a bulky diet that will only meet their requirements when cows consume all they can eat.

The strategy

Controlling energy with high-fiber rations seems to improve DMI after parturition, thereby avoiding excessive adipose tissue lipid mobilization (Douglas et al., 2006). Milk production is similar when compared with higher energy close-up programs (Douglas et al., 2006; Janovick and Drackley, 2010; Mann et al., 2015). Additionally, the benefits of the controlled-energy diet prepartum seems to have a positive effect on cows' fertility (Cardoso et al., 2013, 2019). This dietary strategy aims to formulate and feed rations with relatively low energy density (0.59 – 0.63 Mcal NEL/lb DM) during the entire dry period. The incorporation of low-energy ingredients (straw or low-quality grass hays) allows cows to consume the diet ad libitum without exceeding their daily energy requirements (Janovick and Drackley, 2010).

Nutritionally balanced diets must be fed and the TMR must be physically processed appropriately so that cows do not sort the bulkier ingredients. Feeding bulky forage separately from a partial TMR, or improper forage processing (i.e., nonhomogeneous chop length of the forage) will lead to variable intake among cows, with some consuming too much energy and some too little (DeVries et al., 2005). Underfeeding relative to requirements, where nutrient balance also is likely limiting, leads to increased incidence of retained placenta and metritis (Mulligan et al., 2006). Merely adding straw to a diet is not the key principle; rather, the diet must be formulated to limit energy intake (approximately 0.64 Mcal of NEL/lb of DM, to limit intake to about 15 to 16 Mcal/d for typical Holstein cows), and at the same time meet the requirements for protein, minerals, and vitamins. Less is known about diet formulation for the immediate postpartum period to optimize transition success and subsequent reproduction. Proper dietary formulation during the dry period or close-up period will maintain or enable rumen adaptation to higher grain diets after calving. Failure to do so may compromise early lactation productivity. For example, Silva-del-Rio et al. (2010) attempted to duplicate the dietary strategy of Dann et al. (2006) by feeding either a low-energy far-off diet for 5 wk followed by a higher-energy diet for the last 3 wk before parturition, or by feeding the higher-energy diet for the entire 8-wk dry period. Authors reported that cows fed the higher-energy diet for only 3 wk before parturition produced less milk than cows fed the diet for 8 wk (43.8 vs. 48.5 kg/d).

Recently, researchers have reported that Holstein cows consuming a prepartum diet (29% wheat straw on a DM basis; 13.2% CP, 1.5 Mcal of NEL/kg) with wheat straw chopped shorter (short straw chopped) had greater TMR DMI (15.6 kg/d; SE = 0.16) in the dry period than cows consuming wheat straw chopped longer (long straw chopped; 15.0 kg/d; SE = 0.16) (Havekes et al., 2019). Wheat straw was chopped using a bale processor using a 2.54-cm screen for the short straw chopped and a 10.16-cm screen for the long straw chopped

(Havekes et al., 2019). Additionally, cows consuming the longer chopped wheat straw had higher blood BHB in the wk 3 postcalving than cows consuming the shorter chopped wheat straw (1.3 \pm 0.11 vs. 0.8 \pm 0.10 mmol/L; respectively) (Havekes et al., 2019). It is still to be determined if particle size and sorting is even more relevant in moderate- to high-energy diets (0.68 Mcal of NEL/lb) when compared with CE diets (0.59 Mcal of NEL/lb) prepartum.

What forage to use?

To accomplish the goal of controlled energy intake requires that some ingredient or ingredients of lower energy density be incorporated into diets containing higher-energy ingredients such as corn silage, good quality grass or legume silage, or high-quality hay. Cereal straws, particularly wheat straw, are well-suited to dilute the energy density of these higher-energy feeds, especially when corn silage is the predominant forage source available. Therefore, wheat silage has the potential to be an alternative to wheat straw (Figure 1). Harvest probably should begin when the wheat just reaches the boot stage; if harvest proceeds quickly without interruptions from weather, etc., the last silage cut should be in the early head stage. Its higher crude protein (16% of DM) and moderate starch (21% of DM) contents may allow for savings in feeding corn and soybean meal in the dry cow diet. Usually, wheat silage is high in chloride (1.30% of DM), making it easier to balance for a negative dietary cation anion difference (DCAD).

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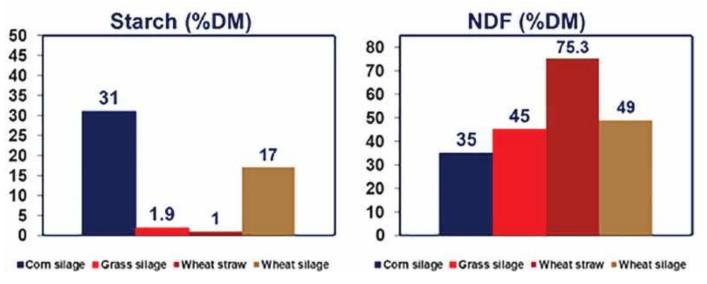


Figure 1. Chemical analysis of common forages used in dry cow diets.

Field-applied Microbial Inoculants Can Improve Silage Yield and Quality, Increase Milk Production and Reduce Greenhouse Gas Emissions

D. K. Combs¹, J.P. Goeser¹,²

¹University of Wisconsin - Madison

¹Cows Agree Consulting, LLC

²Rock River Laboratory, Inc.

There are novel technologies coming to market that will affect plant growth, yield, nutrient content and digestibility and carbon footprint of forage crops. Microbial inoculants applied to seeds or as a foliar treatment is one of these emerging technologies that are available for many agricultural crops including alfalfa, grasses and whole plant corn.

Microbial inoculants are widely used on fresh-cut forages to improve silage fermentation, decrease dry matter losses, improve feed cleanliness and increase aerobic stability. Decades of research across many different microbial inoculants have shown how a small amount of a bacterial additive can dramatically affect the ensiling outcome. This concept applies to the rumen as well, with yeast and bacteria-based additives that can affect oxygen levels in the rumen, pH and digestion efficiency.

Soil and field applied microbial inoculants added to seeds and plants can also affect growing plants. While we're early in these technologies' development and evaluation, microbial inoculants applied to seeds, in the furrow at planting or by foliar methods have the potential to improve forage yields, improve seedling vigor, increase plant growth and development, and improve nutritional value of forages. Preliminary results from on-farm trials and controlled experiments suggest that certain strains of bacteria, when applied as a seed treatment or as a foliar treatment, may also affect silage fermentation. There is also limited pilot data that suggests that these products may reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, primarily by decreasing ruminal methane production. Future work will likely continue to evaluate rumen methane reduction potential, and also carryover effects into the manure lagoon. Manure lagoon methane emissions is known to be a substantial contributing factor to GHG emissions. There is currently active research to determine if manure from cattle fed crops that have been treated with certain strains of bacteria alter GHG.

Seed- or foliar- applied microbial inoculants are generally classified under three general modes of action.

Plant growth regulators. Microbial inoculants that impact plant growth and development by modulating growth within the plant tissues. Microbes can release compounds that affect plant growth and development. Several species of Bacillus (Bacillus subtilis, Bacillus megaterium, Bacillus licheniformis) increase root development and improve drought tolerance in corn and wheat and canola.

Beneficial Microbes. These are specific microbial strains of bacteria when applied as seed treatments or in the furrow that provide nitrogen fixing bacteria, phosphorus-solubilizing microbes or mycorrhizal fungi that may out-compete less desirable epiphytic soil microbes that exist in the soil. The results are improved seedling vigor and greater root mass. Beneficial microbes can also improve plant resistance to stressors or due to drought, nematodes and / or plant disease. Certain strains of microbes also can work to counteract certain soil-born or foliar pests (Pseudomonas fluorescens, Bacillus amyloliquefaciens Metarhizium anisopliae).

Bio-stimulants. Microbial inoculants that stimulate plant growth. Certain strains of microbes increase nutrient uptake by more efficiently decomposing soil organic matter and recycling dead plant material and fodder. M-trophs are an example of these biological products. These biological products may also improve nitrogen and phosphorus uptake within plants, and have been referred to as "Bio-fertilizers".

Biological seed treatments or foliar inoculant impact upon forage yield, feed quality, animal performance and the carbon life cycle on farms is an emerging research area. Preliminary studies suggest that biological seed treatments can alter plant growth and nutrient recycling within the soil, which in turn can improve crop forage yields by as much as 20%, and also increase grain yields in corn. Preliminary and pilot in vitro rumen observations indicate that forages grown after seed, soil or foliar treatment with biological inoculants may mitigate rumen methane emissions, however more work is needed in this area.

Application of beneficial microbes via seed, furrow or as foliar treatment is not a new idea. Legume inoculation with N₂-fixing bacteria has been practiced for over 100 years. Genetic selection for microbial inoculant strains which regulate growth, improve plant health and disease resistance or stimulate nutrient uptake have also been documented in the literature over decades. While research has shown the potential, the commercial challenge has been in developing natural microbial inoculant products that can perform within a wide range of environmental conditions, and out-compete epiphytic microbes in varying environmental conditions. New techniques for screening and cataloging candidate microbes, and application of genomic mapping on a large industrial scale have opened up opportunities to develop new microbial products for commercial use. Continued commercial field trial evaluation, and research, will likely eventually lead to this technology being an accepted norm such as forage inoculants or probiotics in animal nutrition.

SPEAKERS



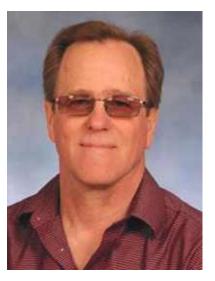
Lance Baumgard

Lance grew up on a mixed livestock and row-crop farm in southwestern Minnesota. He received his B.S. and M.S. degrees from the University of Minnesota and a PhD from Cornell University. Lance joined the University of Arizona's Animal Science department in 2001 and then joined Iowa State University in 2009 as the Norman Jacobson Professor of Nutritional Physiology.



James K. Drackley, Ph.D.

Dr. Drackley is Professor of Animal Sciences at the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign. His research program has focused on nutrition and metabolism of dairy cows during the transition from pregnancy to lactation, fat utilization and metabolism, and aspects of calf nutrition and management. Dr. Drackley has published extensively, has supervised more than 45 graduate students to MS or PhD degrees, and has received numerous professional awards. Drackley is widely sought by the global dairy industry for speaking and consulting services. He served on the National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine committee to prepare the 8th edition of Nutrient Requirements of Dairy Cattle.



Jeff Firkins, Ph.D.

Jeff Firkins earned his Ph.D. in ruminant nutrition and pursued postdoctoral research in dairy nutrition at the University of Illinois. He was promoted to Professor at OSU in 2000. He has advised and served on committees of dozens of graduate students, including 7 Ph.D.'s from other countries. He served multiple terms on USDA competitive grant panels and has been a member of planning committees for international conferences in gut microbiology and ruminant physiology. He has served as a section editor for three different journals. He was a member of the update committee for NASEM's Nutrient Requirements of Dairy Cattle. He has published more than 250 articles, including about 150 refereed journal articles, invited reviews, and book chapters. He has over 175 invited presentations in more than 20 countries. He was awarded the ADSA Applied Dairy Nutrition award (2003), AFIA Dairy Nutrition Research Award (2012), and Fellow of ADSA (2020). He enjoys family time, gardening, reading, classic movies, and sports.



Dr. Jesse Goff

Jesse Goff grew up in New York State, received his BS in microbiology from Cornell University and worked on Salmonella in poultry for nearly 2 years before deciding to go to graduate school at Iowa State University. He went on to earn a MS, DVM and PhD degree majoring in Veterinary Physiology and Pharmacology and Nutritional Physiology. He joined the Metabolic Diseases and Immunology department at the USDA National Animal Disease Center in Ames, IA and together with Ron Horst, Travis Littledike, Tim Reinhardt and Marcus Kehrli began a 23 year stint doing research on dairy, beef, hogs and poultry. The group made many discoveries on vitamin D metabolism, parathyroid hormone function, and the role of DCAD on calcium metabolism. During that time Goff served on the 2001 NRC committee to revise the "Nutrient Requirements of Dairy Cattle" and the 2005 "Mineral Tolerances of Domestic Animals". In 2007, Goff became R&D director for the West Central Farmers co-operative where Soychlor was refined as a means of lowering DCAD to reduce hypocalcemia. In 2008 Goff joined the faculty at the Iowa State University College of Veterinary Medicine, teaching Veterinary Nutrition courses and Veterinary Physiology courses. Goff recently became professor emeritus and started his own company to produce supplements for pigs and cattle, and work as a nutritional consultant.



Dr. Mary Beth Hall

Dr. Hall is a research scientist working in dairy cattle nutrition for the US-DA-Agricultural Research Service at the U.S. Dairy Forage Research Center in Madison, WI, USA. Her degrees in Animal Science are from Cornell University and Virginia Tech. Dr. Hall's research focuses on the nonfiber carbohydrates in dairy cattle diets: their chemical analysis for diet formulation, as well as their digestion, passage, and use by dairy cattle and rumen microbes. She promotes taking an integrative approach to describing complex systems, and doing so with an eye to practical application of research findings. She currently serves on the U.S. National Research Council committee that is revising the Nutrient Requirements of Dairy Cattle. She lives in Wisconsin with her husband and a varied pack of rescued dogs.



Andrew LaPierre Ph.D, Cornell University

Andrew LaPierre is a post-doctoral associate in Dr Mike Van Amburgh's lab in the Department of Animal Sciences. He holds a bachelor's degree from Cornell University, Master's degree from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, and PhD from Cornell University. In his postdoctoral position, Andrew takes an active role in the biological and structural development of the Cornell Net Carbohydrate and Protein System (CNCPS) model, with particular emphasis on CNCPS v.7 and its rollout from a research setting. Current efforts towards CNCPS development include improvements in the estimation of nitrogen and amino acid requirements to provide a reduced, yet more balanced supply of amino acids to cattle.



Dr. Jimena Laporta

Jimena Laporta received her Ph.D. in Dairy Science from UW-Madison and was a faculty member in the Department of Animal Sciences at the University of Florida for five years before joining the Department of Animal and Dairy Sciences UW-Madison in 2020 as an Assistant Professor in lactation physiology. She investigates how endocrine, autocrine, and environmental factors affect mammary gland development and function and how maternal influences during gestation might program the developing fetus long-term. Her current research efforts center around understanding how late-gestation hyperthermia alters daughter's and granddaughter's epigenome.



Anita Menconi, D.V.M., M.Sc., Ph.D.

Dr. Anita Menconi is the Technical & Marketing Director for Evonik North America. She is a Veterinarian with experience in poultry production, health, and microbiology. She graduated from the University of Arkansas with a Master's and PhD degrees in Poultry Science.



Gavin Staley, BVSc MMedVet (Therio) DiplACT

Graduated from the Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Pretoria, South Africa as a veterinarian in 1984. After military service, joined the same Faculty of Veterinary Science as a senior lecturer in reproduction. Completed a MMedVet in Reproduction and qualified as a Veterinary Specialist (Theriogenology). Joined the largest dairy practice in South Africa in 1993 as a partner, with dairy and equine focus. Emigrated to the USA in 1998 and joined a dairy practice in Door County, Wisconsin. While in practice in Wisconsin, qualified as a Diplomate of the American College of Theriogenologists (2001). Relocated to the Central Valley of California in 2003 and has worked in industry for past 18 years in Technical Services positions.

International and national dairy consultant. Has presented at World Dairy Expo, AABP and various other national and international meetings. Particular interest in record evaluation, heifer maturity and dairy productive life.



Thomas R. Overton, Ph.D.

Thomas R. Overton, Ph.D., is Professor of Dairy Management and Chair of the Department of Animal Science at Cornell University. Tom is recognized widely for his research and extension efforts relating to nutritional physiology of the transition dairy cow. He serves as Director of the statewide PRO-DAIRY extension program at Cornell. He teaches the dairy cattle nutrition course for undergraduates and co-teaches a similar course for veterinary students. He served as Associate Director, Agriculture and Food Systems, for Cornell Cooperative Extension from 2014 to 2019. In this college-level position, he worked to build additional regional agriculture specialist extension teams and strengthened several college-level extension programs through his leadership. Tom assumed the role of interim chair of the Department of Animal Science in July 2019 and was appointed chair in November 2020.

Tom has a B.S. degree from Cornell University and M.S. and Ph.D. degrees from the University of Illinois. He has authored or co-authored more than 90 peer-reviewed scientific publications and numerous conference proceedings, extension publications, and popular press articles. He was awarded the Cargill Animal Nutrition Young Scientist Award by the American Dairy Science Association in 2006 and the ADSA Foundation Scholar Award in 2007. In 2013, he was named a Faculty Fellow of the David R. Atkinson Center for a Sustainable Future at Cornell University.



Dana J. Tomlinson, Ph.D, PAS, Dipl ACAN

I currently serve as Research Nutritionist - Global Technical Services - IsoFerm at Zinpro Performance Minerals. This position includes directing product research and technical services support of global sales teams, customers and prospects related to isoacid nutrition. Research responsibilities include Zinpro IsoFerm sponsored research and product development in both ruminants and monogastic animals. Recent emphasis has been on the role of isoacids on rumen NDF digestibility and microbial protein production through utilization of branched chain volatile fatty acids. Growing our global knowledge of dairy production efficiency and sustainability is a key focus. Prior responsibilities were in research and technical services related to trace mineral effects on dairy performance, health and wellbeing in addition to skin integrity, hair and fur quality, footpad health, growth and immune function (allergy response) in companion animals. Additional investigations have involved the effects of Zinpro minerals on inflammatory response and recovery in stressed yearling Quarter horses. My current tenure with Zinpro Corporation is over 22 years (2000 - present).

Advanced degrees (MS - 1988, PhD - 1990) in Animal Nutrition and Dairy Management were received from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg. I received my undergraduate degree in Dairy Science from The Ohio State University, Columbus.

I was raised on a dairy in Northeast Ohio with registered Guernsey cattle, Suffolk sheep, Border Collies and lots of cats.



Dr. Heather White

Dr. Heather White received her BS in 2005 from St. Mary's College and MS and PhD from Purdue University. After serving as a post-doctoral fellow at Indiana University School of Medicine, she joined the University of Connecticut as an Assistant Professor in 2011. She joined the University of Wisconsin, Madison as an Assistant Professor in nutritional physiology in 2013 and earned tenure and promotion to Associate Professor in 2018. Dr. White's research program focuses on the health and nutrition of dairy cows during the transition period and is centered on hepatic and whole-animal nutrient partitioning and metabolism. Notably, Dr. White's research strives to determine the mechanism of nutrient partitioning, feed efficiency, and metabolic health in order to provide science-based solutions and interventions to improve dairy cow health and productivity. Heather is also a "hands on" researcher, mentor, and instructor at both the graduate and undergraduate level. Additionally, Dr. White is serving as the Faculty Director of the Dairy Innovation Hub. Heather lives in Albany, WI with her husband and two young sons, Gabe and Alex.