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Creating a model to detect dairy cattle farms with poor welfare using a national database

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3 **Creating a model to detect dairy cattle farms with poor welfare using a**
4 **national database**

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1 **Creating a model to detect dairy cattle farms with poor welfare using a national**
2 **database**

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11 **ABSTRACT**

12 The objective of this study was to determine whether dairy farms with poor cow welfare could
13 be identified using a national database for bovine identification and registration that monitors
14 cattle deaths and movements. The welfare of dairy cattle was assessed using the Welfare
15 Quality® protocol (WQ) on 24 Portuguese dairy farms and on 1,930 animals. Five farms were
16 classified as having poor welfare and the other 19 were classified as having good welfare.
17 Fourteen million records from the national cattle database were analysed to identify potential
18 welfare indicators for dairy farms. Fifteen potential national welfare indicators were calculated
19 based on that database, and the link between the results on the WQ evaluation and the national
20 cattle database was made using the identification code of each farm. Within the potential
21 national welfare indicators, only two were significantly different between farms with good
22 welfare and poor welfare, ‘proportion of on-farm deaths’ ($p < 0.01$) and ‘female/male birth
23 ratio’ ($p < 0.05$). To determine whether the database welfare indicators could be used to
24 distinguish farms with good welfare from farms with poor welfare, we created a model using
25 the classifier J48 of Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis. The model was a decision

26 tree based on two variables, ‘proportion of on-farm deaths’ and ‘calving-to-calving interval’,
27 and it was able to correctly identify 70% and 79% of the farms classified as having poor and
28 good welfare, respectively. The national cattle database analysis could be useful in helping
29 official veterinary services in detecting farms that have poor welfare and also in determining
30 which welfare indicators are poor on each particular farm.

31 **Key words:** dairy cattle; animal welfare; Welfare Quality; national cattle database

32 **INTRODUCTION**

33 In the last 50 years, the main goal of dairy farming has been to increase milk production
34 through genetic selection and management, thereby increasing farm profit and reducing cost for
35 consumers. However, this one-sided selection for increased yield has brought, along with other
36 issues, lower ability to reproduce, higher incidence of several production diseases, decreased
37 longevity and modification of normal behaviour, which may contribute to a decline in the
38 welfare of dairy cows (Oltenucu and Broom, 2010).

39 Consumer demands are the most important drivers of change in breeding and management
40 practices, and although there has been a growing body of legislation on animal welfare within
41 the European Union, there are only a few member states that have specific legislation on adult
42 dairy cattle (e.g. Denmark, Austria, Sweden; European Commission, 2015). Therefore,
43 scientific attention has been drawn to finding practical, accurate and measurable indicators of
44 animal welfare for use on dairy cattle farms. To this end, various on-farm welfare assessment
45 protocols have been developed. Most recently, the European Welfare Quality® (WQ) project
46 developed protocols for dairy cattle and for other domestic species that resulted in reliable on-
47 farm monitoring systems. The WQ assessment protocol for dairy cows includes 30 measures,
48 12 criteria and four principles (good feeding, good health, good housing and appropriate

49 behaviour) that contribute to the final classification of a dairy farm. In contrast to previous
50 protocols that focused mainly on resource-based measures (Sørensen et al., 2001; Main et al.,
51 2007; Calamari and Bertoni, 2009), the WQ protocols focus mainly on animal-based measures,
52 or outcome measures, which reflect the interaction between the animal and its environment
53 (Veissier, 2007). However, application of the WQ protocol is time-consuming and expensive
54 and there are concerns about whether it can feasibly be implemented in all farms (Knierim and
55 Winckler, 2009).

56 The welfare of cattle on dairy farms is generally assessed for two main reasons: for quality
57 assurance or for detection of poor welfare conditions. For the former, all farms should be
58 evaluated but for the latter, reducing the number of farms that must be inspected by using a
59 system that identifies a smaller sample of ‘at risk’ farms from pre-existing data from national
60 cattle databases, would be advantageous.

61 National herd identification and registration databases for cattle contain a list of records that
62 have become more comprehensive since the Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy crisis, and
63 that have the potential to be part of the future welfare monitoring systems (Fraser, 2004;
64 European Food Safety Authority, 2012). To our knowledge, only three studies have explored
65 the use of databases to identify dairy herds with poor or good welfare (Sandgren et al., 2009;
66 Nyman et al., 2011; de Vries et al., 2014). Sandgren et al. (2009) and Nyman et al. (2011) used
67 the same data set to detect dairy herds with poor and good welfare, respectively, but they used
68 only nine animal-based measures to assess welfare at farm level. De Vries et al. (2014)
69 employed a larger data set and the WQ protocol to assess welfare at farm level, then used the
70 potential welfare indicators to predict specific WQ measures (e.g. severely lame cows,
71 avoidance distance, very lean cows).

72 In the current study the objective was to identify routinely collected records from the national
73 cattle database that would allow to predict the overall welfare at the farm level. These
74 indicators could then be used to facilitate the identification of farms for which a complete WQ
75 audit is necessary (i.e. those with a relatively high probability of insufficient welfare).

76 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

77 *Farms, animals and the Welfare Quality® protocol*

78 Data from 24 dairy herds were included in this cross-sectional study. The convenience-based
79 selection of farms was done by using contacts that had already been established for another
80 study on culling strategies (for which farms were selected because they had reliable and
81 available records; Barros, 2013) or through veterinary practitioners. Thirteen of these farms
82 were located in the centre of Portugal and 11 were located in the north of the country. Holstein–
83 Friesian was the predominant cow breed. All farms used free-stalls with the exception of one,
84 which was based on an open bedded system. Two of the herds had 400 - 680 milking cows,
85 seven had 200 - 399, nine had 100 - 199 and six had 20 - 99 milking cows. A total of 1,930
86 cows were assessed. Each farm was visited once between January 2013 and March 2013 by the
87 first author (CK), spending an average of one day per farm.

88 The WQ assessment protocol for dairy cattle was conducted (Welfare Quality®, 2009). The
89 protocol consists of 30 measures that cover four principles – health, feeding, housing and
90 behaviour. The sample size of cows on each farm was selected according to the WQ protocol,
91 being determined by herd size. As suggested by the WQ protocol, cows in each farm were
92 selected randomly, in the milking parlour. In the case of one farm that had a robotic milking
93 system, animals were selected in the feeding rack, choosing every nth cow in the rows. No dry
94 cows, or animals housed away from the milking herd were included.

95 Data collected on farm (30 welfare measures) were used to calculate scores for the 12 animal
96 welfare criteria, which in turn were used to score the four welfare principles – Good feeding,
97 Good health, Good housing and Appropriate behaviour (Table 1) – and these contribute to the
98 final welfare classification of a dairy farm. Each farm has four possible classifications:
99 excellent, enhanced, acceptable and not classified (poor). To be assigned to one of these levels
100 of welfare, a farm must reach the assigned value for that particular classification (≥ 75 for
101 excellent, ≥ 50 for enhanced, ≥ 15 for acceptable) on 2 or 3 of the 4 principles, and not score
102 below that value for the lowest category on the other principle(s). For example, if a farm has an
103 excellent classification in two principles, and the other two are acceptable, the farm is
104 considered enhanced (Welfare Quality®, 2009).

105 In our project, only one of the 24 farms was scored as having enhanced welfare, while the
106 majority (18 farms) was scored as acceptable and five farms were considered not classified
107 because they did not reach the minimum requirements. Following this classification the farms
108 were divided into two groups: farms scored ‘enhanced’ or ‘acceptable’ (n = 19) were classified
109 as having ‘good welfare’ (**GW**) and farms with score ‘not classified’ (n=5) were categorized as
110 having ‘poor welfare’ (**PW**).

111 *Potential welfare indicators from national cattle database*

112 A subset of data concerning the time between January 2008 and December 2011 was extracted
113 from the Portuguese national cattle database (Sistema Nacional de Identificação e Registo de
114 Bovinos, SNIRB), with the exception of animal movements for which data until October 2012
115 were available. The data subset included the following tables: live cattle; births; herd
116 movement records; and records at slaughter. From these tables, that contained a total of
117 14,558,563 records, variables for analysis were generated (see Table 2 for calculations).

118 Variables were selected based on a literature review on animal welfare (Fraser and Broom,
119 1990; European Food Safety Authority, 2006), on potential welfare indicators already
120 identified by Sandgren et al. (2009) and on the data that were available in the national database.
121 The variables calculated were: median age at first calving (**AFC**); proportion of calving
122 intervals lower than the biologically acceptable (**CCI < 345**); proportion of calving intervals
123 higher than 430 days (**CCI > 430**); calf mortality rate (until six months; **MtC**); mortality rate
124 (**Mt**); proportion of on-farm deaths (**OFD**); proportion of emergency slaughter (**EmgSl**);
125 median total life span (**TLS**); proportion of cows slaughtered before 30 days post-partum
126 (**30ppSl**); proportion of cows slaughtered before 60 days post-partum (**60ppSl**); proportion of
127 partial carcass rejection (**PartCRej**); proportion of total carcass rejection (**TotCRej**);
128 proportion of carcasses weighting less than 272 kg (**C < 272**); proportion of carcasses with fat
129 class ‘very thin’ (class 1; **VTC**); and female/male births ratio (**SexRatio**). Both CCI < 345 and
130 SexRatio were considered as potential indicators of record completeness. Calving to calving
131 intervals below 345 days are very unlikely and so may indicate poor record keeping. Similarly,
132 an unbalanced ratio between males and females (with ‘unbalanced’ defined as being when a
133 ratio fell in the upper or lower quartile - see Table 3) may indicate that calves of one of the
134 sexes were not recorded in dairy producers’ records.

135 Variables were computed for all Portuguese dairy farms. This allowed 17,649 individual dairy
136 farms to be identified, but farms with less than five cows were then excluded, resulting in a
137 total of 6,605 dairy farms.

138 *Data analysis*

139 Data extracted from SNIRB were used to calculate potential welfare indicators using Microsoft
140 Office Access 2007, with the exception of CCI, which were calculated using R i386 3.0.0.

141 Histograms for the different variables were generated and normality was evaluated through
142 visual inspection. In most instances data were not normally distributed (Table 3 and Table 4
143 show mean, SD, median and IQR for each potential welfare indicator), therefore, for simplicity,
144 a non-parametric test, the two-sample Wilcoxon test was used to determine if there was a
145 significant difference in potential welfare indicators between GW and PW farms. The same test
146 was also used to compare the 24 dairy farms assessed using the WQ protocol with the 6,605
147 Portuguese dairy farms.

148 Data mining techniques were used to develop the model relating WQ welfare classification to
149 the potential welfare indicators. Data mining techniques enable to automatically evaluate large
150 datasets containing various variables and decide which variables are most relevant (Abernethy,
151 2010a). Specifically, we created the model using the classification method. This involves using
152 a database with dairy cattle farms whose welfare state is known, and then building a model that
153 is able to automatically classify the level of welfare of new farms (whose level of welfare is
154 unknown) through their attributes (i.e. potential welfare indicators; Abernethy, 2010b). We
155 used the classifier J48 from WEKA 3.6.9 (WEKA, 2015), an open source data mining software
156 in Java. J48 is a preferred method for small datasets (Ali et al., 2012) and acted by: 1) building
157 a decision tree based on the entire given dataset; 2) splitting the data into smaller subsets by
158 testing for a given potential welfare indicator; 3) identifies the potential welfare indicators that
159 discriminate the various cases of good or poor level of welfare most clearly (those that ‘have
160 the highest information gain’).

161 In the current study the number of farms with PW and GW was disproportionate (5 to 19),
162 therefore we used the Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique (**SMOTE**) to reduce
163 disproportion, which resulted in a total number of 29 observations, ten with PW and 19 with

164 GW. This method over-samples the minority group and under-samples the majority group. By
165 doing that, when classifying the minority class, it is possible to get an increment on its
166 sensitivity. The over-sampling of the minority class is done by producing ‘synthetic’ examples
167 (Chawla et al., 2002).

168 To evaluate our model, sensitivity, specificity and predictive values were calculated. Sensitivity
169 was defined as the proportion of PW farms (according to the WQ audit) that were correctly
170 identified by the model (using potential welfare indicators from the database). Specificity was
171 defined as the proportion of GW farms (according to the WQ audit) that were correctly
172 identified (using potential welfare indicators). Positive predictive value (**PPV**) and negative
173 predictive value (**NPV**) were defined as true positives divided by total number of predicted
174 positives; and true negatives divided by total number of predicted negatives, respectively.

175 Hence, the PPV represents the probability of truly being a PW farm (based on the WQ audit)
176 among the farms identified by the model as having PW (based on the potential welfare
177 indicators from the national database), while the NPV represents the probability of truly being a
178 GW farm among the farms identified by the model as having GW.

179 **RESULTS**

180 *Potential welfare indicators from national cattle database*

181 Distributions of the different variables created using data from the national database for all
182 6,605 Portuguese farms with more than five cows and, more specifically, for the 24 farms with
183 WQ assessment are presented in Table 3. Most variables differed significantly ($P < 0.05$;
184 Wilcoxon test) between national dairy farms and our study sample, with the exception of AFC,
185 CCI<430, VTC and SexRatio.

186 ***Identifying farms with poor welfare using indicators from the national cattle database***
187 The Wilcoxon test revealed that only two potential welfare indicators differed significantly
188 between both groups: OFD and SexRatio (Table 4). The classification tree is presented in
189 Figure 1. This decision tree had two potential welfare indicators: OFD and CCI > 430. The
190 model had a good overall accuracy, correctly classifying 22 observations while classifying
191 seven observations erroneously. Moreover, it had a sensitivity of 70.0% (7/10), a specificity of
192 78.9% (15/19), a PPV of 63.6% (7/11) and a NPV of 83.3% (15/18) (Table 5).

193 **DISCUSSION**

194 The current study sample can hardly be considered a representative sample of the Portuguese
195 dairy cattle population, due to the sampling process (i.e. convenient selection) and its small size
196 (i.e. accounts for only 0.14% of all Portuguese dairy farms (n = 17,649) and 0.36% of farms
197 with greater than five dairy cows (n = 6,605)). Only four potential welfare indicators were not
198 significantly different between sample and source population.

199 In the current study, due to travel limitations, only farms from central and northern Portugal
200 were evaluated with the WQ audit, while the national cattle database also includes farms from
201 the south and the islands. It is, therefore, possible that the differences between the national
202 population of farms and the study sample are due to differences between Portuguese regions, or
203 due to the effect of individual farms. As explained by Dohoo et al. (2009), a sample that is
204 based on convenience should not be used in a descriptive study aiming to describe population
205 parameters (i.e. results from the 24 herds should not be used to describe the distribution of the
206 welfare indicators in Portuguese dairy farms). This was not a problem in the current study,
207 since the distribution of the welfare indicators in the population could be estimated from the
208 6,605 herds (Table 3). Although the sample size of the current study is small, we could make

209 the assumption that the model is appropriate to farms from north and centre of Portugal,
210 however, caution should be taken in generalization of these results to farms from southern
211 Portugal and from its islands. On the other hand, since studies from other countries have found
212 that mortality (Sandgren et al., 2009; Nyman et al., 2011; de Vries et al., 2014) and fertility
213 variables (Sandgren et al., 2009; Nyman et al., 2011) are good welfare indicators within
214 national databases, it suggests that maybe our model could be applied to the other Portuguese
215 regions and even to other countries.

216 The model includes two variables, OFD and CCI > 430 (Figure 1), while OFD and SexRatio
217 were found to be statistically different between GW and PW farms (Table 4). This is probably
218 due to the fact that the Wilcoxon test compares only one indicator at a time (i.e. univariable
219 analysis) between GW and PW farms. The J48 methodology, on the other hand, uses the best
220 group of indicators to detect farms with GW and PW. It is likely that the variable SexRatio did
221 not add much value to the model when OFD was already considered for predicting the welfare
222 of dairy farms, whereas CCI>430 did.

223 The small and unbalanced sample size (5 PW vs. 19 GW farms) makes it difficult to detect
224 small differences in potential welfare indicators between GW and PW farms and may explain
225 why only two statistically different potential welfare indicators (OFD and SexRatio; Table 4)
226 could be highlighted by the univariable analyses.

227 Proportion of on farm deaths was both statistically different between GW and PW farms and
228 present in the decision tree (Table 4; Figure 1). A high mortality rate is an important indicator
229 of poor welfare but this rate should be appraised with caution and always correlated with the
230 culling indices. For instance, a high mortality rate with a low culling rate may indicate that
231 some very sick animals were not culled early enough and were kept in miserable conditions for

232 an inappropriate length of time. In the current study, OFD was 55% and 85% for farms with
233 GW and PW, respectively. There were, therefore, more cows dying on-farm vs being culled
234 and sent to the slaughterhouse in PW farms. However, cows that were sold to other farms
235 before being sent for slaughter were not considered when computing this index. Including them
236 could possibly provide a more accurate index to represent the total number of culled cows. In a
237 study performed in Portugal using farm-based records, Barros (2013) concluded that within all
238 culled cows (n = 2,476), 6% (n = 156) were sold to other farms, 26% (n = 641) died on-farm
239 and 68% (n = 1,679) were sent to the abattoir. Therefore numbers of cows that died on-farm or
240 went to slaughter, were quite different from the current study. Once again, the small sample
241 size used in the current study or the fact that it is a convenience sample might be the reason for
242 the differences observed.

243 Female/male birth ratio was statistically different between GW and PW farms (Table 4). It was
244 calculated to understand if farms with GW would have better record completeness than farms
245 with PW. In this case, it is hypothesized that male calves' births are not fully reported on some
246 farms, resulting in an unbalanced SexRatio. Results from the current study seem to support this
247 hypothesis, since the median value for SexRatio obtained for farms with PW (1.8) was
248 substantially and statistically significantly higher than the GW farm ratio (1.0). This could
249 mean that PW farms are less likely to keep good and comprehensive records, the care of males
250 may also be poorer or males may be more likely to be killed at birth and not registered. Another
251 possibility is that stress experienced during pregnancy may skew the sex ratio as has been
252 shown in other farm animal species (Baxter et al., 2012), and that might be a risk factor in dairy
253 cattle too. Finally, the use of sexed semen to obtain more heifer calves, could also be a possible
254 explanation. There are no scientific data on the use of sexed semen in Portugal, however,

255 according to Portuguese bovine practitioners its use is scarce (5%), which makes that
256 hypothesis quite unlikely (George Stilwell, personal communication, October 1, 2015).
257 The decision tree revealed OFD and CCI > 430 as welfare indicators (Figure 1). Hartigan
258 (1995) stated that the percentage of cows in a herd outside the range of 365 to 415 days of
259 calving interval should be less than 5%. According to that author, values outside this range will
260 possibly mean lower production benefits for the farmer and might suggest poor reproductive
261 management but also the presence of nutrition, health and welfare problems that result in
262 reproductive failure. High percentages of CCI > 430 might be related to factors not directly
263 related to welfare, such as low oestrus detection or ineffective artificial insemination. In
264 contrast, some studies have shown that farmers may voluntarily seek higher calving intervals,
265 which might be sometimes advantageous, particularly in high yielding cows (Ratnayake et al.,
266 1997; Arbel et al., 2001; Österman, 2003). However, the targeted calving interval should be
267 shorter to that found in our dataset (both WQ and national database herds).
268 To the authors' knowledge, only three studies explored the use of routinely collected data to
269 identify dairy herds with poor or good welfare (Sandgren et al., 2009; Nyman et al., 2011; de
270 Vries et al., 2014). The current study's results are in agreement with those of Sandgren et al.
271 (2009) and Nyman et al. (2011) in which indicators referring to mortality and to reproduction
272 were statistically significant potential welfare indicators. In the study of de Vries et al. (2014),
273 on-farm mortality of cows less than 60 DIM was the variable most frequently included in the
274 final models. These results and those from the current study lead to the conclusion that, despite
275 the different husbandry practices in dairy farms of each country (Netherlands, Sweden,
276 Portugal), and the different contents of the national databases, mortality seems to be an
277 important welfare indicator.

278 Although the WQ is considered as the most comprehensive welfare assessment protocol in
279 farm animals, there are still some points to improve. One point is the need to reduce the
280 workload to ensure feasibility (de Vries et al., 2013b). Heath et al. (2014a) tried to solve this
281 problem by using the animal-based ‘iceberg indicators’ method, in which the criterion
282 ‘Absence of prolonged thirst’ was showed to have a deterministic role in the overall farm
283 classification. Their results revealed another problem with the WQ protocol that had already
284 been identified by de Vries et al. (2013a): the aggregated scores lead to a higher relative
285 importance of the welfare principles good feeding and good housing compared to the other
286 principles, which goes against the goals of the WQ protocol. Heath et al. (2014a) also
287 questioned the usefulness and validity of the overall aggregation of the single welfare
288 measures. Other problems are inter-evaluator repeatability and the lack of information on how
289 to deal with missing data (Heath et al., 2014b). The application of the WQ protocol has
290 uncovered some issues, and the results of the current study should be considered in this light.
291 We should also consider the lag between the time the national data was collected (2008-2013)
292 and the time the WQ audit was conducted (2013). When developing the model we made the
293 assumption that the factors affecting welfare (such as feeding, bedding and stocking density) on
294 the farm remained constant throughout the period (2008-2013). In general, farms are slow to
295 change their overall management systems, but farmers do make small minor changes to their
296 practices (Dufour et al., 2010). This assumption is, therefore, likely to be valid. A more prudent
297 interpretation of the current results, however, would be that the identified welfare indicators
298 (OFD and CCI > 430) are good predictors of the subsequent herd WQ score. Given that a delay
299 in the availability of the national data is always expected, the developed model would still be
300 very applicable and practical for screen out GW farms.

301 In different countries, the implementation and enforcement of national cattle registries might
302 differ and therefore the application of some of the proxy indicators that were used in this study
303 should be evaluated. The process should also be adaptive and sensitive to changes in farmers'
304 attitudes to welfare and record keeping, therefore the application of these approaches for the
305 identification of farms at risk should consider systematic model updates based on on-farm
306 controls results. Although this study was conducted with dairy cows, similar methods could
307 possibly be applied to other kind of animal production systems which have a rich and
308 comprehensive national database.

309 Finally, in the future, further work using a larger sample size, a more powerful study design
310 (with a balanced number of farms within each group) and a sample of farms that includes farms
311 graded as 'excellent' or 'enhanced', will be needed. Moreover, more attention should be drawn
312 to the validity of the welfare assessment classification. The novelty of our decision tree,
313 classifying farms whose welfare level is unknown, is that it is easy to apply and to interpret.
314 However, the model could be improved by the inclusion of other data such as veterinarian
315 treatments, milk quality and organs rejected at the slaughter house. These could be useful in
316 identifying farms with high levels of lameness or mastitis, for example, which are known to be
317 major welfare problems in dairy farms.

318 **CONCLUSIONS**

319 This study allowed for the development of a model to identify herds with poor welfare through
320 two variables: 'proportion of on-farm deaths' and 'calving-to-calving interval'.
321 The national cattle database analysis proved to be an important tool in a stepwise dairy cow
322 welfare evaluation and it could be useful in helping official veterinary services in detecting

323 farms that are more likely to have good welfare in order to focus the more time-consuming WQ
324 audit on farms that are more likely to be problematic.

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418 Table 1. Welfare principles, criteria and indicators of Welfare Quality® protocol for dairy cattle (WQ, 2009)

Principles	Welfare criteria	Welfare measures
Good feeding	Absence of prolonged hunger	Very lean cows
	Absence of prolonged thirst	Water points conditions
Good housing	Comfort around resting	Lying behavior; dirtiness
	Thermal comfort	As yet, no indicator is developed
	Ease of movement	Presence of tethering
Good health	Absence of injuries	Lameness; integument alterations
	Absence of disease	Cough; nasal discharge; ocular discharge; vulvar discharge; diarrhea; hampered respiration; subclinical mastitis; on-farm mortality; dystocia; and downer cows
	Absence of pain induced by management procedures	Disbudding/dehorning and tail docking
Appropriate behaviour	Expression of social behaviours	Agonistic encounters
	Expression of other behaviours	Access to pasture
	Good human-animal relationship	Avoidance distance
	Positive emotional state	Scores of 20 terms of the Qualitative Behaviour Assessment

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Table 2. Source tables, selection parameters and formula of the potential welfare indicators derived from the Portuguesedatabase SNIRB

Potential welfare indicators ^a	Source tables	Selection parameters	Formula
AFC	Live cattle, births	Calved cows	Date at first calving minus date of birth, herd median
CCI < 345	Births	Calved cows	No. of calving intervals lower than 345 d divided by total no. of calving intervals
CCI > 430	Births	Calved cows	No. of calving intervals higher than 430 d divided by total no. of calving intervals
MtC	Births, movements, slaughter	Female calves	Incidence of on-farm deaths and emergency slaughter reported in death / 100 animal-year at risk ^b
Mt	Live cattle, movements, slaughter	Female cattle	Incidence of on-farm deaths and emergency slaughter reported in death / 100 animal-year at risk
OFD	Movements		No. of on-farm deaths divided by the total no. of slaughtered animals, on-farm deaths and animal disappearances ^c
EmgSl	Slaughter	Calved cows	No. of emergency slaughters divided by no. of regular and emergency slaughters
TLS	Live cattle, slaughter	Calved cows	Date of slaughter minus date of birth, herd median
30ppSl	Births, slaughter	Calved cows	No. of cows slaughtered between 0 - 30 d post-partum divided by no. of slaughtered animals
60ppSl	Births, slaughter	Calved cows	No. of cows slaughtered between 0 - 60 d post-partum divided by no. of slaughtered animals
PartCREj	Live cattle, slaughter	Calved cows	No. of partially rejected carcasses divided by the total of no. of approved carcasses, totally rejected carcasses and partially rejected organs or carcasses
TotCREj	Live cattle, slaughter	Calves cows	No. of totally rejected carcasses divided by the sum of no. of approved carcasses, totally rejected carcasses and partially rejected organs or carcasses
C < 272	Slaughter	Calved cows	No. of carcass weighting less than 272kg divided by no. of slaughtered animals
VTC	Slaughter	Calved cows	No. of carcasses with fat class 1 divided by no. of carcasses with fat class 1 (very thin) or 3 (normal)
SexRatio	Births		No. of female calves divided by no. of male calves

^a AFC = age at first calving; CCI < 345 = proportion of calving intervals lower than the biological acceptable; CCI > 430 = proportion of calving intervals higher than 430 d; MtC = calf mortality (until six months); Mt = mortality rate; OFD = proportion of on-farm deaths; EmgSl = proportion of emergency slaughter; TLS = total life span; 30ppSl = proportion of cows slaughtered before 30 post-partum; 60ppSl = proportion of cows slaughtered before 60 d post-partum; PartCREj = proportion of partial carcass rejection; TotCREj = proportion of total carcass rejection; C < 272 = proportion of carcasses with less than 272 kg; VTC = proportion of carcasses with fat class 'very thin' (class 1); SexRatio = female/male births ratio.

^b animal-days at risk was computed as the number of animals that remained on farm during the complete study period multiplied by length of the study period (i.e. 180 d or 365 d) plus sum of the exact number of days spent on farm for the animals that left the farm (transfer in life, slaughter, depart to EU, exportation, death on farm, disappearance, deactivation); result was multiplied by 36500, so that instead of animal-days, result could be presented as 100 animal-year.

^c animal disappearances is referred to animals that were stolen or not found in the farm.

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Table 3. Results of potential welfare indicators from national cattle database on national dairy farms and on farms assessed Quality protocol using the Welfare

Potential welfare indicators ^a	National dairy farms (n = 6,605)				Farms assessed using WQ ^d (n = 24)				p ^e
	Mean	SD ^b	Median	IQR ^c	Mean	SD	Median	IQR	
AFC (mo.)	27	3.82	27	25 - 29	26	1.09	26	25 - 27	0.06
CCI < 345 (%)	17.0	12.92	14.3	8.7 - 21.3	10.4	5.36	9.9	7.9 - 15.8	0.01
CCI > 430 (%)	48.1	20.79	44.8	33.3 - 58.1	45.6	9.66	45.2	38.3 - 49.3	0.99
MtC (deaths / 100 animal-year)	20.8	113.80	0	0 - 20.3	28.2	23.41	23.1	8.1 - 45.7	<0.01
Mt (deaths / 100 animal-year)	5.3	71.91	0	0 - 3.8	4.5	3.19	3.6	2.6 - 6.0	<0.01
OFD (%)	40.8	29.89	37.5	14.3 - 62.5	61.5	24.47	62.1	40.0 - 81.1	<0.01
EmgSI (%)	1.9	6.61	0	0 - 0	1.4	1.84	0.1	0 - 2.6	<0.01
TLS (mo.)	81	29.24	75	63 - 95	69	11.29	68	63 - 74	0.03
30ppSI (%)	6.1	13.64	0	0 - 7.7	10.5	20.68	3.6	0.8 - 11.7	<0.01
60ppSI (%)	10.9	18.03	0	0 - 16.7	16.3	20.21	10.7	6.5 - 16.4	<0.01
PartCRej (%)	1.2	4.83	0	0 - 0	1.4	1.70	0.9	0 - 2.8	<0.01
TotCRej (%)	4.0	9.40	0	0 - 5.2	6.8	9.67	4.6	2.7 - 6.3	<0.01
C < 272 (%)	61.1	28.24	60.9	40.0 - 84.3	38.1	13.36	42.8	28.1 - 47.3	<0.01
VTC (%)	47.3	33.90	48.2	20.0 - 75.0	36.1	15.14	39.0	27.8 - 47.9	0.13
SexRatio	1.4	1.50	1.0	0.8 - 1.5	1.4	0.69	1.1	0.9 - 1.7	0.25

^a AFC = age at first calving; CCI < 345 = proportion of calving intervals lower than the biological acceptable; CCI > 430 = proportion of calving intervals higher than 430 d; MtC = calf mortality rate (until six months); Mt = mortality rate; OFD = proportion of on-farm deaths; EmgSI = proportion of emergency slaughter; TLS = total life span; 30ppSI = proportion of cows slaughtered before 30 post-partum; 60ppSI = proportion of cows slaughtered before 60 d post-partum; PartCRej = proportion of partial carcass rejection; TotCRej = proportion of total carcass rejection; C < 272 = proportion of carcasses with less than 272 kg; VTC = proportion of carcasses with fat class 'very thin' (class 1); SexRatio = female/male births ratio.

^b SD = standard deviation.

^c IQR = interquartile range.

^d WQ = Welfare Quality protocol.

^e Wilcoxon tests between national dairy farms and farms assessed using the Welfare Quality protocol.

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Table 4. Results of potential welfare indicators from national cattle database on national dairy farms and on farms with good and poor welfare

Potential welfare indicators ^a	Farms with good welfare (n = 19)				Farms with poor welfare (n = 5)				<i>p</i> ^d
	Mean	SD ^b	Median	IQR ^c	Mean	SD	Median	IQR	
AFC (mo.)	26	0.92	26	25 - 27	25	1.67	25	24 - 26	0.32
CCI < 345 (%)	10.0	5.46	9.9	7.4 - 15.0	12.3	5.07	9.3	8.5 - 16.5	0.59
CCI > 430 (%)	45.8	10.67	45.2	37.6 - 50.6	44.9	4.83	47.8	40.4 - 48.6	0.83
MtC (deaths / 100 animal-year)	26.3	22.98	20.7	9.9 - 39.3	35.5	26.30	45.5	9.0 - 54.0	0.43
Mt (deaths / 100 animal-year)	4.7	3.38	3.6	3.2 - 6.0	3.8	2.52	2.9	2.2 - 4.1	0.53
OFD (%)	55.2	23.16	52.2	35.9 - 73.0	85.4	11.16	87.2	78.0 - 95.1	0.01
EmgSI (%)	1.4	1.75	0.7	0 - 2.6	1.1	2.35	0	0 - 0	0.32
TLS (mo.)	70	12.17	68	63 - 72	67	7.80	67	64 - 74	0.97
30ppSI (%)	7.9	8.46	5.0	2.1 - 11.7	20.3	44.54	0	0 - 1.7	0.16
60ppSI (%)	13.7	10.13	9.4	7.0 - 16.4	26.3	41.60	12.0	5.1 - 14.3	0.86
PartCREj (%)	1.7	1.78	1.2	0 - 2.9	0.6	1.17	0	0 - 0.5	0.19
TotCREj (%)	5.1	3.31	4.4	2.7 - 6.3	13.3	20.55	4.9	3.6 - 5.3	0.68
C < 272 (%)	38.9	10.88	42.9	28.1 - 46.6	35.1	21.90	36.8	32.1 - 51.4	1.00
VTC (%)	37.4	13.34	39.0	29.8 - 45.9	31.2	21.88	27.0	25.0 - 48.3	0.94
SexRatio	1.2	0.56	1.0	0.9 - 1.6	2.1	0.81	1.8	1.4 - 2.9	0.02

^a AFC = age at first calving; CCI < 345 = proportion of calving intervals lower than the biological acceptable; CCI > 430 = proportion of calving intervals higher than 430 d; MtC = calf mortality rate (until six months); Mt = mortality rate; OFD = proportion of on-farm deaths; EmgSI = proportion of emergency slaughter; TLS = total life span; 30ppSI = proportion of cows slaughtered before 30 post-partum; 60ppSI = proportion of cows slaughtered before 60 d post-partum; PartCREj = proportion of partial carcass rejection; TotCREj = proportion of total carcass rejection; C < 272 = proportion of carcasses with less than 272 kg; VTC = proportion of carcasses with fat class 'very thin' (class 1); SexRatio = female/male births ratio.

^b SD = standard deviation.

^c IQR = interquartile range.

^d Wilcoxon tests between farms with poor and good welfare.

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461 **Table 5.** Contingency table in the classifier J48 from Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis (WEKA) to farms with poor
 462 detect welfare

Accuracy ^a : 75.86%			
	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	Total
Actual positive	7	3	10
Actual negative	4	15	19
Total	11	18	29

463 ^a Accuracy is a ratio of no. of correctly classified instances divided by the total no. of instances; therefore, this model has an accuracy of $(22 /$
 464 $29) = 0.76$

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Figure 1. Classification tree created with J48 classifier from Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis (WEKA) to detect farms with poor welfare

Figure 1

