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Associations between cow-level parameters and heart rate variability as a marker of the physiological stress response in dairy cows

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Complete List of Authors:	<p>Frei, Andrea; University of Glasgow College of Medical Veterinary and Life Sciences, School of Veterinary Medicine; Oregon State University Carlson College of Veterinary Medicine, Lois Bates Acheson Veterinary Teaching Hospital</p> <p>Evans, Neil; University of Glasgow College of Medical Veterinary and Life Sciences, Institute for Biodiversity, Animal Health and Comparative Medicine</p> <p>King, George; University of Glasgow College of Medical Veterinary and Life Sciences, School of Veterinary Medicine</p> <p>McAloon, Conor; University College Dublin, School of Veterinary Medicine</p> <p>Viora, Lorenzo; University of Glasgow College of Medical Veterinary and Life Sciences, School of Veterinary Medicine</p>
Keywords:	heart rate variability, cow-level factors
Abstract:	<p>To maintain and enhance cow productivity and welfare, it is important that we can accurately assess and understand how cows respond to the physiological demands of gestation and lactation. Several methods have been developed for assessing the physiological responses to stressors and for detecting distress in cattle. Heart rate (HR) variability (HRV) is a non-invasive measure of autonomic nervous system activity and consequently a component of the physiological response to stress. In cattle, HRV has been successfully used to measure autonomic responses to a variety of health conditions and management procedures. The objectives of this study were to determine whether, among commercial Holstein Friesian cows and across farms, relationships exist between cow-level factors, HR and HRV. HRV parameters were compared with production records for 170 randomly selected, Holstein-Friesian-cows on 3 commercial dairy farms. Production data included parity, days in milk (DIM), milk yield, somatic cell count (SCC), % butterfat and protein, body condition score (BCS) and genetic indices. Fixed-effect, multivariable linear regression models were constructed to examine the association between cow-level variables and HRV parameters. Statistically significant relationships were found between HR and farm, temperature and BCS, and between HRV parameters and farm, rectal temperature, BCS, DIM, and percentage butterfat. Given the significant association between farms and several of the indices measured, it is recommended that care must be taken in the interpretation of HRV studies that are conducted on animals from a single farm. The current study indicated that within clinically normal dairy cattle HRV differed with the percentage of butterfat and BCS. Based on the relationships reported previously between HRV and stress in dairy cattle these results suggest that stress may be increased early in lactation, in cows with BCS <2.75 that are producing a high percentage of butterfat milk. Future work could focus on the physiological mechanisms through which these factors and</p>

	their interactions alter HRV and how such physiological stress may be managed within a commercial farm setting.

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Manuscripts

1 **Associations between cow-level parameters and heart rate variability as a marker of the**
2 **physiological stress response in dairy cows**

3

4 Andrea Frei^{1*}, Neil P. Evans², George King¹, Conor G. McAloon³ and Lorenzo Viora¹

5

6 ¹Scottish Centre for Production Animal Health and Food Safety, School of Veterinary
7 Medicine, College of Medical Veterinary and Life Sciences, University of Glasgow, Bearsden
8 Road, Glasgow, G61 1QH, UK

9 ²Institute for Biodiversity Animal Health and Comparative Medicine, College of Medical,
10 Veterinary and Life Sciences, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, G12 8QQ, UK

11 ³School of Veterinary Medicine, University College Dublin, Belfield, Dublin, D04 W6F6,
12 Ireland

13 *Current address: Lois Bates Acheson Veterinary Teaching Hospital, Carlson College of
14 Veterinary Medicine, Oregon State University, Corvallis, USA

15

16

17

18 Author for correspondence: Lorenzo Viora

19 Email: Lorenzo.Viora@glasgow.ac.uk

20 **Short title:** Heart rate variability in dairy cows

For Peer Review

21 Abstract

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23 assess and understand how cows respond to the physiological demands of gestation and
24 lactation. Several methods have been developed for assessing the physiological responses to
25 stressors and for detecting distress in cattle. Heart rate (HR) variability (HRV) is a non-invasive
26 measure of autonomic nervous system activity and consequently a component of the
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28 autonomic responses to a variety of health conditions and management procedures. The
29 objectives of this study were to determine whether, among commercial Holstein Friesian cows
30 and across farms, relationships exist between cow-level factors, HR and HRV. HRV
31 parameters were compared with production records for 170 randomly selected, Holstein-
32 Friesian-cows on 3 commercial dairy farms. Production data included parity, days in milk
33 (DIM), milk yield, somatic cell count (SCC), % butterfat and protein, body condition score
34 (BCS) and genetic indices. Fixed-effect, multivariable linear regression models were
35 constructed to examine the association between cow-level variables and HRV parameters.
36 Statistically significant relationships were found between HR and farm, temperature and BCS,
37 and between HRV parameters and farm, rectal temperature, BCS, DIM, and percentage
38 butterfat. Given the significant association between farms and several of the indices measured,
39 it is recommended that care must be taken in the interpretation of HRV studies that are
40 conducted on animals from a single farm. The current study indicated that within clinically
41 normal dairy cattle HRV differed with the percentage of butterfat and BCS. Based on the
42 relationships reported previously between HRV and stress in dairy cattle these results suggest
43 that stress may be increased early in lactation, in cows with BCS <2.75 that are producing a
44 high percentage of butterfat milk. Future work could focus on the physiological mechanisms

45 through which these factors and their interactions alter HRV and how such physiological stress
46 may be managed within a commercial farm setting.

47

48 **Key-words:** heart rate variability, cow-level factors

49

50 The metabolic and physiological demands placed on modern dairy cattle are considerable.
51 During early lactation energy requirements can exceed intake, causing negative energy balance
52 (**NEB**) (de Fries and Veerkamp, 2000), while, during the later stages of lactation, cows are
53 usually pregnant with associated metabolic demands (Lucy, 2019). To maintain and enhance
54 cow productivity and welfare, accurate assessment and understanding of the cow's response
55 to production challenges have a great importance.

56 When an animal experiences changes (positive or negative) to conditions within its body and/or
57 its external environment that impact its psychological and/or physiological state (stressors), it
58 responds through activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA) and autonomic
59 nervous system (ANS) in an attempt to restore homeostasis (Kim *et al.*, 2018). Activation of
60 the HPA axis results in glucocorticoid release, cortisol in cattle, and induces short/medium-
61 and long-term changes in a wide range of physiological processes with specific important
62 effects on metabolism and immune function (Elsasser *et al.*, 2000; Moberg, 2000). Activation
63 of the ANS is associated with more immediate effects, often ascribed to the 'fear, fight, and
64 flight' response (Elsasser *et al.*, 2000). While the acute homeostatic actions of these two
65 systems are beneficial, in both cases chronic activation is generally regarded as maladaptive
66 and can have negative impacts on health and welfare (Moberg, 2000).

67 Several methods have been developed to assess both the adaptive activation of physiological
68 stress response and chronic/large scale activation of the stress response which can lead to
69 maladaptive changes or ‘distress’ in cattle. For instance, changes in behaviour and plasma
70 acute-phase protein concentrations are thought to be the result of the combined effects of ANS
71 and HPA activity, cortisol concentrations are a direct measure of HPA activity, and heart rate
72 variability (HRV) can be used as a measure of ANS activity (Kovács *et al.*, 2015a; Kovács *et*
73 *al.*, 2016). HRV is a non-invasive measure of the balance between the sympathetic and
74 parasympathetic branches of the ANS which influence the spontaneous action potentials or
75 automaticity within the sinoatrial node of the heart and thereby regulates heart rate (Von Borell
76 *et al.*, 2007). HRV is derived from recordings of the intervals between successive heart beats,
77 known as the inter-beat intervals (IBI) (Kovács *et al.*, 2014). IBI is most comprehensively
78 recorded by electrocardiography (ECG) (Hagen *et al.*, 2005; Kovács *et al.*, 2014), however,
79 the development of personal monitoring systems for human fitness training, has facilitated the
80 use of HRV as a tool to assess components of the physiological response to stress in farm
81 animals (Von Borell *et al.*, 2007). Indeed, HRV has been used as a biomarker of stress in
82 humans (Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society
83 of Pacing and Electrophysiology, 1996), dogs (Bowman *et al.*, 2015), sheep (Stubsjøen *et al.*,
84 2015) and cattle (Kovács *et al.*, 2015a).

85 In cattle, HRV has been used to measure the ANS responses to a variety of specific health and
86 management interventions, including (but not restricted to) pain (Stewart *et al.*, 2008), chronic
87 lameness (Kovács *et al.*, 2015a), calving (Nagel *et al.*, 2016), cow individual temperament and
88 reactivity to humans (Kovács *et al.*, 2015b), cow resting status and management factors
89 including breed housing and milking system (Hagen *et al.*, 2005; Kovacs *et al.*, 2015c),
90 physical activity (Kezer *et al.*, 2017), milk yield (Erdmann *et al.*, 2018) or in response to post-
91 partum fever (Aoki *et al.*, 2020). Higher body weight (Hagen *et al.*, 2005), use of an automated

92 milking system (Hagen *et al.*, 2005), chronic or acute stress (Hagen *et al.*, 2005; Kovács *et al.*,
93 2015a; Nagel *et al.*, 2016), being of a temperamental demeanour (Kovács *et al.*, 2015b),
94 standing time (Hagen *et al.*, 2005) and lameness (Kovács *et al.*, 2015a) have all been shown to
95 be associated with HRV. Across these studies, it was generally regarded that reduced HRV was
96 indicative of sympathetic dominance and, therefore, physiologically greater levels of stress
97 (Kovács *et al.*, 2014).

98 To our knowledge, no published studies have reported on the association between HRV and
99 levels of production and/or stage of lactation and pregnancy in commercial dairy cattle from
100 different farms (Kovács *et al.*, 2015a; Kovács *et al.*, 2015b; Erdmann *et al.*, 2018). Hence, the
101 objectives of this study were to determine whether relationships exist between cow-level
102 factors and HR and HRV parameters among Holstein Friesian cows, across a sample of three
103 farms. The hypothesis was that HRV varies between animals and that some of this variation is
104 explained by an individual phenotype, metabolic demand, and production level. Specifically,
105 where metabolic demand is high (eg when energy is being expended towards milk production
106 or composition), or in farms where the emphasis is on high yield, or in conditions of poor udder
107 health the balance of activity within the ANS will be towards sympathetic dominance.

108 **Materials and methods**

109 *Regulatory compliance*

110 This research was approved by the Ethics and Welfare Committee of the School of Veterinary
111 Medicine of the University of Glasgow, Glasgow, UK (Ref. 31a/16).

112 *Farm and animal recruitment*

113 The study was conducted across three commercial dairy farms (all using Holstein Friesian
114 cattle) located in Scotland, UK, which have a structured approach to monitoring herd health.

115 One of the farms is run by the University of Glasgow, while the other two farms have a long-
116 standing relationship with the University of Glasgow, wherein the herd health scheme has been
117 developed in consultation with clinical staff from the University. Participating farms included
118 two in which cattle were maintained indoors throughout lactation with dry cows maintained
119 outside on one farm but maintained indoors on the other, and one dairy farm in which lactating
120 cows were strip grazed outside in paddocks from May to September, weather permitting. At
121 the convenience of the farm staff, the study aimed to recruit at least 50 adult cows (each being
122 an experimental unit), from each farm. This focal subset of cattle was chosen to ensure that the
123 randomly selected animals would provide a representative sample of the various ages and
124 stages of production present in the milking herd for each farm (Kovács *et al.*, 2015c). Animals
125 that were initially selected but were subsequently identified in estrus, lame or as receiving
126 ongoing medical treatment were excluded from the study. An overview of the production and
127 management system of the three farms is presented in online Supplementary Table S1, with
128 key performance indicators of the farms presented in online Supplementary Table S2.

129 The three farms had similar reproductive management protocols. After calving, cows were kept
130 in a straw yard for an average of seven days. All animals were checked within one week after
131 calving for post-partum disease and specifically monitored for milk fever, retained fetal
132 membranes, metritis, ketosis and abomasal displacement. Where any disease was present, cows
133 were rechecked weekly until the condition was resolved. The voluntary waiting period of all
134 three farms was 50 days, estrus detection was performed visually two or three times a day (30
135 minutes each time) and cows received AI following the AM-PM rule. Pregnancy diagnosis was
136 routinely carried out on all cows at 29 to 35 d and re-confirmed at 60 to 66 d since the last
137 insemination. Cows not bred by 70 DIM or detected not pregnant were enrolled in an Ovsynch
138 protocol. Breeding stopped at 250 DIM for primiparous and 200 DIM for older cows.

139

140 *HRV data collection*

141 HRV was assessed in 189 adult Holstein-Friesian-cows, in cattle sheds/barns familiar to them,
142 between the hours of 8:00 am and 3:30 pm from June 25th to August 23rd, 2018. The max and
143 min external temperatures, recorded by the UK Met Office at weather stations close to the three
144 farms were 27.4°C and 4.4°C for farm 1; 29.6°C and 2.8°C for farm 2; 24.6°C and 4.9°C for farm
145 3 (Met Office, 2006). IBI data were collected, once from each cow, using a Polar V800 heart
146 rate receiver (Polar®, Kempele, Finland) paired with an H7 heart rate sensor using Polar
147 Equine electrodes following a modification of a previously reported method (Hagen *et al.*,
148 2005, Kovacs 2015b). Cows to be recorded were separated from the main herd and held in a
149 familiar handling area. Whilst standing in the head yokes (maximum time 1 hour), data was
150 recorded for at least 30 minutes for each animal, in the presence of other cows, and without
151 any human disturbance. This allowed for acclimatization to the recording equipment. HRV
152 data was downloaded to a computer using Polar® Software and converted into an ASCII file.
153 Thereafter the IBI data was uploaded to Kubios HRV software (Version 2.0 Biosignal Analysis
154 and Medical Imaging Group, BSAMIG, Department of Physics, University of Kuopio, Finland;
155 <http://bsamig.uku.fi>), and artefacts were removed using Kubios inbuilt ‘artefact correction’
156 feature. As the animals were under stable conditions when data were recorded, as per
157 recommendations (Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American
158 Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology, 1996), HRV parameters were calculated for 5-minute
159 time windows (1 per animal), selected at random, from the later part of each IBI recording.
160 Based on previous reports, the HRV parameters analyzed included time- and frequency-domain
161 and non-linear parameters (online Supplementary Table S3).

162

163 *Clinical Examination*

164 Each animal was examined immediately prior to IBI data recording, by a single observer (AF),
165 at which time BCS (measured on a 5-point scale), and rectal temperature were recorded.
166 Auscultated heart rate was taken to corroborate the output from the Polar V800 heart rate
167 receiver but was not used in further analysis.

168

169 *Cow-level data*

170 Cow-level data collected included lactation number (1, 2 or more), DIM, SCC, percentage
171 butterfat and protein, daily milk yield and 305-day milk yield. Production data were extracted
172 from the milk recording database (CIS - Cattle Information Services, Telford, UK) and
173 processed through Dairy Comp 305. The data were obtained from the report generated closest
174 to the day of IBI data collection for each farm. Where farm reports had been delayed or were
175 missing, the next most recent report was used. For lactation yield, if the lactation length was
176 305 days or longer, the 305-day yield was used. For cows that had not yet reached 305 DIM,
177 the 305-day yield was predicted with a multivariate adaptive regression spline model using
178 milk recording data to date for that cow. Days of pregnancy (DOP) was calculated from the
179 expected calving date and subcategorized relative to four functional stages of gestation (DOP
180 0 = empty, DOP 1 = 1-42 by which implantation is complete, DOP 2 = 43-220, DOP 3 = 221-
181 280 which correspond with the beginning and completion of placental takeover of progesterone
182 production) and BCS (<2.75, 2.75-3.25, >3.25). Profitable Lifetime Index (PLI) is a genetic
183 index based on production, health, and fertility, and is an estimate of the monetary return the
184 daughter of a cow is expected to give over her lifetime compared with the daughter of an
185 average cow in the UK which is set to 0 (AHDB, 2021).

186

187 *Statistical analysis*

188 Data from 19 cows were excluded due to the presence of significant IBI/HRV data artefacts,
189 most commonly intermittent loss of effective electrical contact, or the absence of production
190 records. Therefore, the analysed dataset was derived from 170 animals: 57 from farm 1, 52
191 from farm 2 and 61 from farm 3, each animal being an experimental unit.

192 Fixed-effects, multivariable linear regression models were constructed to examine the
193 association between cow-level variables and each of the HRV parameters. Separate models
194 were created for each of the HRV variables. Variables that were not normally distributed were
195 transformed by taking the natural logarithm (RMSSD, LF/HF). Independent variables with a
196 non-linear relationship with the dependent variables were offered to the model as both linear
197 and quadratic terms, variables that appeared to have neither linear nor quadratic relationships
198 with the dependent variable were categorized in quintiles. The variable resulting from the best
199 model fit, as determined by the lowest AIC value, was used in the subsequent model. Each
200 variable was screened in a univariate analysis. The multivariable model was constructed using
201 a forward stepwise selection approach, adding each independent variable to the model in turn,
202 in the order of their univariate P-value, with the variable with the lowest P-value added first.
203 After the addition of each variable, the P-values for all variables in the model were recalculated.
204 Variables with a P-value <0.05 were removed from the model. Prior to the addition of each
205 variable, the correlation between each variable to be added and the existing variables in the
206 model was calculated. If variables were strongly correlated ($\rho > 0.8$), only one was selected for
207 inclusion in the model. In this case, the variable resulting in the best model fit as determined
208 by the lowest AIC was used in the model. The farm was forced into the model as a fixed effect
209 at the beginning of the multivariable model building process. The model-building process was

210 then repeated using backward elimination. If the final models differed after these two
211 processes, the model resulting in the best model fit as determined by the lowest AIC was used.
212 Finally, each variable that was not included in the final model was reintroduced into the model
213 individually. Variables that resulted in a change in the effect estimate of significant variables
214 in the model of greater than 20% were retained in the model as confounders, irrespective of
215 their direct effect on the dependent variables. Model fit was assessed by visual appraisal of real
216 versus predicted values and residuals, as well as calculation of the overall model R-squared.

217 The models were implemented in R-studio [version 1.2.5033], using the “lme4” (Bates *et al.*,
218 2007), “dplyr” (Wickham *et al.*, 2015), and “caret” (Kuhn, 2008) packages.

219

220 **RESULTS**

221 *Descriptive statistics*

222 Of the 170 animals included in this study, 68 were in the first lactation, 40 were in the second
223 lactation and 59 cows were in lactation 3 or over, with the oldest cow in her 8th lactation. A
224 total of 81 animals were pregnant at the time of data collection, with an average DOP of 136
225 days (range from 1 to 298 days). Of the 148 lactating cows, the average DIM was 121 (range
226 from 1 to 487). The average milk yield was 37.4 litres/day (range from 8.7 to 59.6). The average
227 SCC was 136000 cell/ml (range from 6 to 2125) and the average percentage of butterfat and
228 protein were 3.6% (range from 2.13 to 7.39) and 3.05% (range from 2.41 to 4.17), respectively.

229 The average PLI of the cows included in the analysis was 159 (range from -131 to 427).

230 The average rectal temperature of the cows studied was 38.3°C (range from 37 to 39.8°C) and
231 they had an average BCS of 3 (range from 2 to 4.5).

232 The mean (\pm standard deviation) heart rate was 81.2 ± 9.9 beats per minute. The mean (\pm
233 standard deviation) HRV parameters analysed were RMSSD 7.5 ± 4.2 ; SD2/SD1 7.6 ± 2.6 ; HF
234 8.1 ± 7.4 and LF/HF 19.2 ± 15.3 . Density plots for each of the HRV parameters by farm are
235 shown in Online Supplementary Figure S1.

236

237 *Associations between farm and cow-level factors, HR and HRV*

238 Statistically significant relationships were found between aspects of HRV and farm, rectal
239 temperature, BCS, and some cow-level factors. As farm and BCS were analysed as categorical
240 variables, relationships are reported relative to referents: farm 1 and cows with a BCS < 2.75 ,
241 respectively. All other characteristics were analysed as continuous variables.

242 A summary of the outputs of the fixed-effects, multivariable linear regression models is
243 presented in Table 1.

244

245 *Heart rate (HR)*

246 There were statistically significant relationships between HR and farm, rectal temperature, and
247 BCS (Table 1). Relative to Farm 1 (referent), mean HR was lower at both Farm 2 ($P < 0.001$)
248 and Farm 3 ($P < 0.01$). Overall, a ($P < 0.01$) positive relationship was observed between the
249 rectal temperature and HR. The relationship between BCS and HR was also conducted relative
250 to a referent (BSC <2.75). The data demonstrated that as the BCS of cows increased to 2.75-
251 3.25, this was associated with a decrease ($P < 0.05$) in HR.

252

253 *HRV Parameters*

254 The results of the fixed-effects, multivariable linear regression models (Table 1) demonstrated
255 that two of the HRV parameters, RMSSD and SD2/SD1 differed between farms 1 and 2 with
256 a similar trend noted between farms 1 and 3 for SD1/SD2. The results also indicated
257 relationships between 3 of the HRV parameters (RMSSD, LF/HF, HF) and BCS and 2 of the
258 defined cow-level factors (%butterfat and DIM).

259 Specifically, SD2/SD1 was lower ($P<0.01$) in Farm 2 compared to Farm 1 and numerically
260 lower (non-significantly, $P=0.06$) in Farm 3 (Table 1). The analysis also demonstrated that
261 RMSSD was higher ($P=0.05$) in Farm 2 compared to Farm 1. Rectal temperature was found to
262 show a positive ($P<0.05$) relationship with SD2/SD1.

263 With specific reference to cow-level factors, HF was increased ($P<0.05$) in cows with a BCS
264 of 2.75-3.25 (Table 1). HF was also increased in cows with a $BCS>3.25$, relative to cows with
265 a BCS of <2.75 , however, this difference was not statistically significant. A positive ($P<0.01$)
266 relationship was observed between DIM and RMSSD and finally a negative ($P<0.05$)
267 relationship was observed between butterfat % and RMSSD.

268

269 **DISCUSSION**

270 This study investigated associations between cow-level factors in commercial dairy cattle
271 across three farms and HRV, as a measure of activity within the autonomic nervous system.
272 This methodology has been validated and reported previously as a means to non-invasively
273 assess acute and chronic stress in a variety of domestic animals (von Borell *et al.*, 2007)
274 including dairy cattle (Hagen *et al.*, 2005; Kovacs *et al.*, 2014, 2015a, b; Nagel *et al.*, 2016;
275 Kézér *et al.*, 2017; Erdmann *et al.*, 2018; Aoki *et al.*, 2020). Although some HRV parameters

276 are correlated, this methodology can be used to provide information about stress responses
277 across production cycles and systems. Across the three farms in which recordings were made,
278 associations were seen between HRV parameters and cow-level factors. These farm-
279 independent associations could indicate which factors impose the greatest physiological stress
280 response on clinically healthy commercial dairy cattle.

281 The results of this study indicated that both HR and some of the studied HRV parameters could
282 differ between farms. Two of the farms in this study ran herd sizes of 550 and 850 cows, milked
283 three times daily, TMR being provided to lactating cows maintained indoors. The third farm
284 was considerably smaller, with only 54 cows, milked twice a day, with cows fed a PMR
285 supplemented with strip grazing during the summer. Yield for the smaller farm fell between
286 the two larger farms and on average it had higher % butterfat and protein. HR was lowest in
287 the cows from the farm with the smallest herd and highest in the 550-cow farm. The
288 observation that HR is lower in smaller herds agrees with an earlier report across five
289 Hungarian dairy farms where herd sizes ranged between 75 and 1900 cows (Kézér *et al.*, 2017)
290 and a study that investigated relationships between HR and HRV as a function of temperament
291 and behavioural reactivity in small- and large-scale farms (Kovács *et al.*, 2015b). Of the 4 HRV
292 parameters included in the analysis in the current study, 2 differed between farms, RMSSD and
293 SD2/SD1 ratio. The changes in these two parameters appear to contradict each other which
294 makes the identification of farm-level effect open to interpretation based on the current
295 understanding of HRV. This may reflect the limited number of farms included in the current
296 study. To address farm -effects, a larger multi-farm study would be required.

297 Across the entire data series, there was a statistically significant positive relationship between
298 body temperature and HR. This differs from the inverse relationship reported by Regan and
299 Richardson (1938) for clinically normal cattle exposed to gradually increasing environmental

300 temperatures (between 40° and 85°F). While increasing body temperature has been shown to
301 increase spontaneous reactivity of the SA and AV nodes and the speed of action potential
302 conduction within the heart (Davies and Maconochie, 2009) which would have a positive effect
303 on HR, other explanations are possible. A positive relationship between body temperature and
304 HR has been reported previously in dairy cattle under conditions of heat stress (Bun *et al.*,
305 2018) and post-partum fever (Aoki *et al.*, 2020). Inflammatory disease has also been shown to
306 result in increased concentrations of circulating cytokines and increased HR and body
307 temperature (Whelton *et al.*, 2014), however, this is not thought likely as an explanatory factor
308 in the current study, as only cows without signs of clinical disease were studied. The current
309 study was conducted during the summer and, while there is data to indicate that cattle in
310 Scotland can experience heat stress (Tomlinson *et al.*, 2018), it was not assessed in this study.
311 If experiencing a stressor, the resultant activation of the SNS would be expected to be
312 associated with chronotropic, as well as dromotropic and ionotropic effects on the
313 cardiovascular system.

314 Dairy cows are subject to a series of immediate and cumulative (lifetime) stressors. Holstein
315 Friesian cows can be in a negative net energy balance in early lactation (de Fries and Veerkamp,
316 2000), they are frequently challenged by disease with 5.3 to 12.7% of dairy cows suffering
317 from clinical metritis and 10 to 24% of dairy cows suffering from mastitis (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2013;
318 Levison *et al.*, 2016), animals can be exposed to social stressors when moved between
319 production cycle groups (Proudfoot and Having, 2015) and are subject to metabolic demands
320 of both milk production (yield and milk quality) and gestation (Lucy, 2019). While these
321 factors could be regarded as cumulative stressors, decreased vagal tone (decreasing RMSSD)
322 was previously reported in cows with higher parity indicating increased levels of physiological
323 stress (Kovács *et al.*, 2015a, c). The results of the current study do not support such a

324 relationship, in agreement with two previous studies where HRV parameters were not affected
325 by parity (Kézér *et al.*, 2017).

326 An additional feature of the dairy cow that was found to exhibit a significant relationship with
327 HR and HRV, specifically HF power, was BCS. HR was significantly lower and HF power
328 was significantly higher in cows with average BCS between 2.75 and 3.25, suggestive of lower
329 stress in these cows relative to thin cows (BCS<2.75). This category reflected the
330 recommended range of BCSs across lactation to minimise adverse health effects and maximise
331 productivity (Roche *et al.*, 2009), and thus it is reassuring that animals with a BCS within this
332 range appear to have the lowest levels of stress. The HF power in the fat cows (BSC>3.25) did
333 not differ from that of the thin cows. This result is in accordance with the observation that high
334 values of LF/HF and low values of HF were associated with high BCS in the study by Kovacs
335 *et al.*, (2015c) although their canonical correspondence analysis concluded that there were no
336 statistically significant relationships between BCS and any HRV parameter. Higher stress in
337 cows with a high BCS would, however, agree with the accepted view that deviations from the
338 optimum range for BCS may have detrimental effects on health and production (Roche *et al.*,
339 2009). However, it should be noted that our study may have been underpowered with respect
340 to this variable since we had relatively few cows (n=16) with a BCS of greater than 3.25 in our
341 dataset.

342 No significant relationships were found, in the current study, between HRV parameters and
343 days of pregnancy. This would suggest activity within the ANS does not vary with stage of
344 gestation and that the metabolic demands of pregnancy and fetal growth are minor compared
345 to those of lactation. This conclusion is supported by the observed positive relationship
346 between DIM and RMSSD which, again, would suggest that the physiological stress response
347 decreases as lactation progresses. This may be expected given that milk yield typically peaks

348 approximately 8 weeks after calving and decreases thereafter, with the initial period of lactation
349 coinciding with the greatest negative energy balance and, therefore, the highest period of
350 production stress.

351 Of all the remaining milk production characteristics studied (milk yield, profitable lifetime
352 index, 305-day milk yield, SCC, % butterfat, and % protein), only percentage of butterfat was
353 found to be significantly associated with HRV. Across all herds, as milk butterfat% increased,
354 RMSSD decreased, which implies that an increase in % butterfat in milk is associated with
355 greater physiological demands on the animal. The main known factors that affect % butterfat
356 are genotype, nutrition and season (Carty *et al.*, 2017), but as an energy-dense component,
357 increased deposition of fat into milk must have a metabolic cost on the cow which could impose
358 physiological stress.

359 In conclusion, the results support our hypothesis indicating that HRV, which may provide an
360 indicative measure of stress in commercial clinically healthy dairy cattle, may be affected by a
361 range of cow-level factors. Given the significant relationships between farms and several of
362 the indices measured, our results indicate that HRV studies conducted on animals from a single
363 farm must be interpreted with care. To ensure findings are externally valid, we would
364 recommend that future studies should also be conducted on animals from multiple farms and
365 should account for potential circadian effects. Across farms, the current study indicated that
366 HRV changed with the stage of lactation, potentially indicating that stress was highest early in
367 the lactation cycle, especially in those animals producing high percentage butterfat milk. As
368 such, future work could focus on the mechanisms behind such effects and how such
369 physiological stress may be managed, and studies should appropriately control for the cow-
370 level effects identified in our analysis if they are not of primary interest to the study.

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474 Table 1: Fixed-effects, multivariable linear regression models constructed to examine the association between cow-level variables and each of
 475 the heart rate variability parameters.

Variable	HR ¹		lnRMSSD ²		HF ³		LnLF/HF ⁴		SD2/SD1 ⁵	
	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value
Intercept	-187.91 (-324.46, -51.37)	<0.01	2.03 (1.65, 2.40)	<0.001	1.60 (1.34, 1.86)	<0.001	18.82 (14.85, 22.78)	<0.001	-32.46 (-70.54, 5.61)	0.09
Farm 1	Referent		Referent		Referent		Referent		Referent	
Farm 2	-10.32 (-13.58, -7.06)	<0.001	0.17 (0.001, 0.34)	0.05	-0.008 (-0.27, 0.26)	0.95	3.66 (-2.05, 9.38)	0.21	-2.34 (-3.22, -1.46)	<0.001
Farm 3	-3.46 (-7.43, 0.50)	0.09	0.03 (-0.15, 0.21)	0.75	0.17 (-0.11, 0.45)	0.24	-3.20 (-9.34, 2.94)	0.31	-0.98 (-1.91, -0.04)	<0.05
Temperature	7.43 (3.90, 10.95)	<0.001							1.07 (0.08, 2.06)	<0.05
BCS <2.75	Referent				Referent					
BCS 2.75-3.25	-3.34 (-6.63, -0.06)	<0.05			0.27 (0.01, 0.53)	<0.05				
BCS >3.25	1.44 (-3.41, 6.28)	0.56			0.11 (-0.30, 0.51)	0.60				
Butterfat %			-0.10 (-0.20, -0.01)	<0.05						

DIM

0.001 (0.001, <0.001
0.002)

-
- 476 ¹HR: Heart rate
 - 477 ²RMSSD: Root mean square of the successive differences
 - 478 ³HF: High-frequency band
 - 479 ⁴LF/HF: The ratio of Low Frequency to High Frequency power
 - 480 ⁵SD2/SD1: The ratio of Poincaré plot standard deviation along the line of identity (SD2) to Poincaré plot standard deviation perpendicular to the line of
 - 481 identity (SD1)
 - 482

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