

ANIMAL AGRICULTURE AND CLIMATE CHANGE IN MICHIGAN

Shelby Burlew¹, Marilyn Thelen¹, Wendy Powers², David Schmidt³ and Misty Klotz⁴

¹Michigan State University Extension, ²Michigan State University, ³University of Minnesota,

⁴Michigan State University W.K. Kellogg Biological Station

Agricultural production has always been affected by weather variability, and Michigan farmers have adopted production practices appropriate to their climate. However, the weather that shapes agricultural production is changing along with climatic conditions. Examples of this in the Midwest include increases in average day- and nighttime temperatures, changes in the timing and intensity of rainfall, an increase in the number of flooding events, and warmer and more humid conditions⁽¹⁾. These trends are expected to

Understanding the impacts of climate change allows farmers to adjust management and implement technologies to maintain profitability on the farm.

continue and even accelerate⁽²⁾ (see MSU Extension bulletins E3150 and E3151 for more on climate change). Increased incidents of weather extremes will have wide-ranging impacts on animal agriculture in the Midwest, and farmers will need to adapt to these impacts to remain profitable. In addition, animal agriculture has an important role to play in lessening the severity of, or mitigating, future climate changes.

How will climate change affect animal agriculture?

Changes in climate will have both direct and indirect impacts on animal agriculture in three major ways: feed and water quality and availability, physiological responses of animals, and disease pressures on animals and plants^(1, 3).

Feed and water access and quality

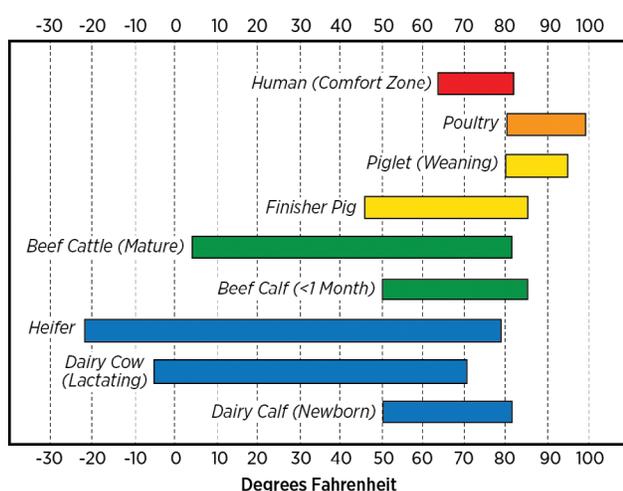
Climate change will have a critical impact on the animal feed supply and water availability⁽⁴⁾. Animal feed supplies include grains (produced or purchased) and forage crops and pasture. Climate change may affect the time of planting, time of harvest, crop yield and the nutritional quality of feed inputs⁽⁴⁾, all leading to impacts on availability, price and animal performance. Increasing temperatures have led to a longer growing season that may benefit forage crops^(5, 6) but may increase the amount of irrigation water needed to meet crop demands. In some areas of the United States, higher temperatures may contribute to increased evaporation from farm ponds, lakes and reservoirs, and thus affect water availability for animals and irrigation^(4, 6). On the other hand, other regions of the country will experience increased flooding as a result of extreme weather events. This could have an impact on feed supplies by limiting the transport of farm inputs and outputs⁽⁷⁾ and reducing productivity in flooded fields and pastures. Furthermore, increased rainfall intensity increases erosion, and wet fields pose manure management challenges^(4, 5).

Physiological and management responses

Long-term projected changes in environmental conditions (temperature, precipitation) and the inability of animals to adequately adapt to sudden or dramatic environmental changes can have significant impacts on animal health and productivity. Animals managed in unsheltered or unbuffered environments such as outdoor facilities with no access to shade or wind shelters are particularly vulnerable to extreme weather^(12, 13).

Extreme heat events and the timing of these events pose an even bigger threat than increases in average temperature for animals^(4, 7). Elevated humidity intensifies the impact of high temperatures on animal health and performance. Ambient temperatures above this thermo-neutral zone (Figure 1) result in heat stress and reduced productivity. Animals can recover during the evenings when temperatures are cooler, but with the trend toward higher nighttime temperatures, this recovery period is less effective.

Figure 1. Estimated range in thermo-neutral temperatures for various livestock species^(8, 9, 10, 11).



Several factors are involved in how animals are affected by extreme high temperatures^(14, 15):

- Duration of time that animals are in a heat-stressed environment.
 - Animals are better able to withstand short periods of heat stress.
 - Some acclimation to heat occurs with increasing frequency of heat stress.
- Nighttime cooling period.
 - Animals can recover from high temperatures with nighttime cooling.
- Timing of the heat event.
 - Exposure to high temperatures early in the spring will be more stressful than exposure later in the season after animals have acclimated to warmer temperatures.
- Production level of the animals.
 - Higher producing, faster growing animals produce more heat and are more sensitive to heat stress.

- Heavier animals and very young or very old animals are more susceptible to heat stress.
- Animal genetics and coat color.
 - Some breeds are better adapted than others to dissipate heat.
 - Dark-colored cattle show more heat stress than light-colored ones.

Changes in the timing and intensity of rainfall events can result in flooding that results in damage to facilities and injury or death of animals⁽⁴⁾. More commonly, these events cause operational challenges such as power outages that affect ventilation, feeding or watering systems. Heavy rainfall events compromise the integrity and capacity of manure storage structures and limit the ability to get into the field to apply manure.

Disease and pest distributions

The changing climate alters disease and pest distribution in crops, forages and animals. Warmer temperatures may increase the prevalence of weeds, insect pests and diseases in field crops and forages⁽⁷⁾. This affects the feed supply for animal operations by limiting feed quantity, reducing its quality and increasing production costs. Warmer, more humid conditions indirectly affect animal health and productivity by promoting proliferation of insect growth and spread of disease⁽¹²⁾. Regional warming and changes in precipitation have the potential to change the distributions of animal diseases that are sensitive to temperature and moisture. Some diseases currently more prevalent in the southern United States may become more widespread — for example, anthrax,



ANR Communication

Grazing systems benefit from a stable climate.

blackleg and hemorrhagic septicemia⁽¹⁾. Earlier springs and warmer winters may increase the over-winter survival of parasites and pathogens⁽¹²⁾.

How can animal agriculture adapt to changes in the climate?

Understanding the impacts of climate change allows farmers to adjust management and implement technologies to maintain profitability on the farm. Primarily, this involves planning ahead for both short-term responses to weather events and long-term investments to help buffer these environmental impacts.

Short-term planning and adaptation start with the development of a heat stress management plan, which might include^(15, 16):

- Keeping existing ventilation and cooling systems in good repair⁽¹⁷⁾.
- Being prepared to formulate, mix and feed hot-weather diets⁽¹⁸⁾.
- Monitoring short- and long-term weather forecasts^(19, 20).
- Monitoring manure storage capacity carefully⁽²¹⁾.
- Developing hot-weather animal handling and transportation plans^(22, 23).

Long-term planning and adaptation might include^(15, 16):

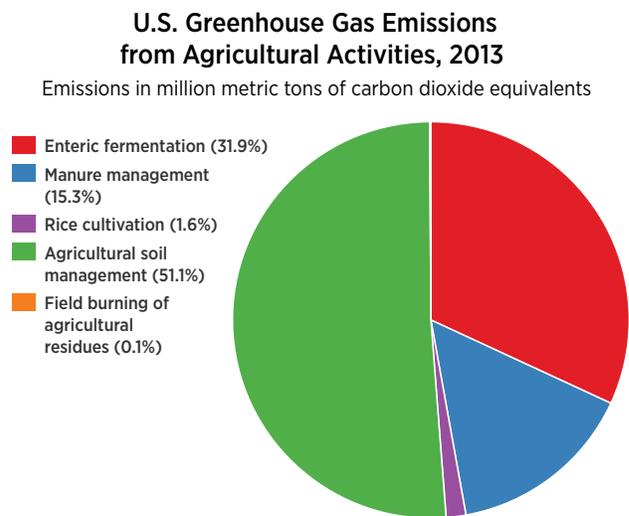
- Installation of additional ventilation or cooling systems.
- Installation of shade structures.
- Expanded manure storage capacity to improve flexibility in timing of manure spreading.
- Installation of irrigation systems for pastures or crop production.
- Changing herd genetics to more heat-tolerant breeds.
- On-farm diversification of crops and livestock systems.

How does animal agriculture contribute to climate change?

Agriculture is a source of greenhouse gas emissions (Figure 2), notably methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O). Agricultural emissions of both CH₄ and N₂O are increasing. Between 1990 and 2012 in the United States, CH₄ emissions increased by 14 percent, and

N₂O emissions increased by 10 percent⁽²⁴⁾. Both CH₄ and N₂O stay in the atmosphere longer than carbon dioxide. This atmospheric lifetime, combined with the molecules' ability to absorb heat, influences a gas's global warming potential (GWP). Methane has a GWP of 28, and N₂O has a GWP of 298, making their global warming impact 21 times and 310 times greater than that of carbon dioxide, respectively⁽²⁵⁾. (See MSU Extension bulletins E3148 and E3149 for more about greenhouses gases and agriculture.)

Figure 2. Sources of methane, nitrous oxide and carbon dioxide emissions from U.S. agriculture, expressed in carbon dioxide equivalents⁽²⁶⁾.



Ruminant animals such as cows, goats and sheep have digestive systems that are specifically designed to convert forages into usable nutrients through fermentation. Methane that is a byproduct of the rumen fermentation process is referred to as enteric CH₄. Non-ruminants such as pigs and poultry produce a much smaller amount of CH₄ in the large intestine.

Manure management is another source of CH₄ and N₂O. Manure that is stored in anaerobic conditions — for example, liquid manure in lagoons — emits CH₄ and small amounts of N₂O. Manure managed under dry conditions produces relatively less CH₄ but may increase quantities of N₂O.

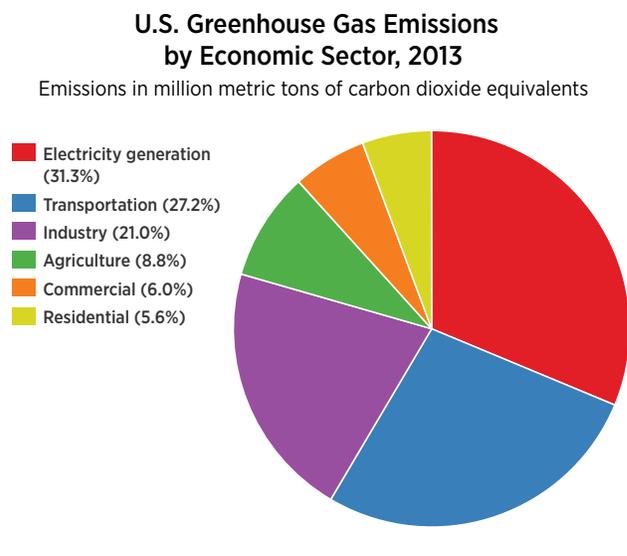
Feed production is the third source of greenhouse gases related to livestock production. Agricultural soil management is the single largest source of greenhouse

gas emissions from agricultural activities on a GWP basis (Figure 2). N₂O is the primary gas released, and wet conditions promote N₂O emissions. Abatement strategies include proper timing and application rate of nitrogen from both manure and commercial fertilizer sources.

Animal agriculture’s contribution to total greenhouse gas emissions in the United States may be small in relation to that of other economic sectors such as transportation and energy (Figure 3), but animal agriculture often needs to uphold its environmental impact and continually demonstrate its commitment to stewardship. One way to do that is by implementing management practices that mitigate (or reduce) greenhouse gas emissions while at the same time increase production efficiency (Table 1).

Because each farm and ranch is different, mitigation practices should be tailored to the species, the type of operation and the local environment. Though some mitigation practices are currently cost-prohibitive, some have additional environmental benefits that should be considered. Benefits include odor reduction, improved air and water quality, pathogen reduction, and the potential to produce alternative revenue

Figure 3. Sources of methane, nitrous oxide and carbon dioxide emissions from U.S. economic sectors, expressed in carbon dioxide equivalents⁽²⁶⁾.



sources from the sale of biogas or electricity to off-farm users and manure byproducts such as compost and organic fertilizers.

Table 1. Mitigation practices and benefits to production^(23, 27).

Areas of management	Practice	Benefit to farmers	Additional benefit to the environment
Production efficiency	Improve feed and production efficiency. Animal health management. Typically results in less methane, nitrous oxide and carbon dioxide emissions per unit of product.	Greater production with fewer inputs may be more profitable.	Less nutrients or natural resources used per unit of output.
Manure storage	Anaerobic digestion and covered manure storages reduce methane emissions.	Both anaerobic digestion and covered storage can produce renewable energy and offset the use of fossil fuels.	Improved nitrogen availability to crops; pathogen reduction in high-temperature digester systems; reduced odor.
Land application of manure	Proper application rates and proper application timing will reduce nitrous oxide and methane emissions.	Proper manure management maximizes crop utilization of the manure nitrogen.	Reduced fossil fuel use leads to reduced water use for energy production.
Farm energy use	Improved energy efficiency through LED lighting, higher efficiency fans and motors, along with other practices can reduce energy inputs. Energy reductions reduce carbon dioxide emissions.	Capital investments are typically recovered quickly through reduced energy costs.	Reduced fossil fuel use leads to reduced water use for energy production.

Sources:

- ¹ Pryor, S. C., D. Scavia, C. Downer, M. Gaden, L. Iverson, R. Nordstrom, J. Patz and G. P. Robertson. 2014. Ch. 18: Midwest. Pages 418-440 in J.M. Melillo, Terese (T.C.) Richmond and G.W. Yohe (eds.), *Climate Change Impacts in the United States: The Third National Climate Assessment*. U.S. Global Change Research Program. doi:10.7930/JOJ1012N. Available at <http://nca2014.globalchange.gov/report/regions/midwest>.
- ² Walsh, J., D. Wuebbles, K. Hayhoe, J. Kossin, K. Kunkel, G. Stephens, P. Thorne, R. Vose, M. Wehner, J. Willis, D. Anderson, S. Doney, R. Feely, P. Hennon, V. Kharin, T. Knutson, F. Landerer, T. Lenton, J. Kennedy and R. Somerville. 2014. Ch. 2: Our Changing Climate. *Climate Change Impacts in the United States*. Pages 19-67 in J. M. Melillo, Terese (T.C.) Richmond and G. W. Yohe (eds.), *The Third National Climate Assessment*. U.S. Global Change Research Program. doi:10.7930/JOJ05XCXT. Available at <http://nca2014.globalchange.gov/report/our-changing-climate/introduction>.
- ³ Walsh, J., D. Wuebbles, K. Hayhoe, J. Kossin, K. Kunkel, G. Stephens, P. Thorne, R. Vose, M. Wehner, J. Willis, D. Anderson, V. Kharin, T. Knutson, F. Landerer, T. Lenton, J. Kennedy and R. Somerville. 2014. Appendix 4: Frequently Asked Questions. Pages 790-820 in J.M. Melillo, Terese (T.C.) Richmond and G.W. Yohe (eds.), *Climate Change Impacts in the United States: The Third National Climate Assessment*. U.S. Global Change Research Program. doi:10.7930/JOJ15XS3. Available at: <http://nca2014.globalchange.gov/report/appendices/faqs>.
- ⁴ Walthall, C.L., J. Hatfield, P. Backlund, L. Lengnick, E. Marshall et al. 2012. Climate Change and Agriculture in the United States, Ch. 6: Effects and Adaptation. Technical Bulletin 1935. Washington, D.C.: USDA. Available at <http://www.usda.gov/wps/portal/usda/usdahome?navid=climate-change>.
- ⁵ Kunkel, K., D. Easterling, K. Hubbard and K. Redmond. 2004. Temporal Variations in Frost-free Season in the United States: 1895-2000. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, Vol. 31:L03201. doi: 10.1029/2003GL018624. Available at <http://academic.engr.arizona.edu/HWR/Brooks/GC572-2004/readings/kunkel.pdf>.
- ⁶ Rötter, R., and S. C. Van de Geijn. 1999. Climate change effects on plant growth, crop yield and livestock. *Climatic Change* 43(4):651-681. doi: 10.1023/A:1005541132734. Available at <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1023%2FA%3A1005541132734#page-1>.
- ⁷ Edenhofer, O., R. Pichs-Madruga, Y. Sokona, E. Farahani, S. Kadner et al. 2014. *Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change*. In S. Kadner, K. Seyboth, A. Adler, I. Baum, S. Brunner, P. Eickemeier, B. Kriemann, J. Savolainen, S. Schlömer, C. von Stechow, T. Zwickel and J.C. Minx (eds.). Contribution of Working Group III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge, United Kingdom, and New York, N.Y., USA: Cambridge University Press, Available at https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar5/wg3/ipcc_wg3_ar5_full.pdf.
- ⁸ Van Kampen, M., B.W. Mitchell and H.S. Siegel. 1979. Thermoneutral zone of chickens as determined by measuring heat production, respiration rate, and electromyographic and electroencephalographic activity in light and dark environments and changing ambient temperatures. *The Journal of Agricultural Science*, 92:219-226. doi:10.1017/S0021859600060664.
- ⁹ Holden, P., R. Ewan, M. Jurgens, T. Stahly and D. Zimmerman. 2002. Life Cycle Swine Nutrition. Iowa State University Extension and Outreach's Iowa Pork Industry Center. Available at <http://www.ipic.iastate.edu/topics.html>.
- ¹⁰ Wattiaux, M., and B. Holmes. 1999. Heifer, Dairy Cow & Dairy Calf & Human Comfort Zone: Taken from Figure 3: Ambient temperatures for optimal performance of European-type dairy cattle, in *Controlling the building environment*. Housing No. 701. University of Wisconsin, The Babcock Institute.
- ¹¹ McGlone, L., S. Ford, F. Mitloehner, T. Grandin, P. Ruegg, C. Stull, G. Lewis, J. Swancon, W. Underwood, J. Mench, T. Mader, S. Eicher, P. Hester, J. Slak-Johnson and M. Galyean, 2010. Chapter 6: Beef Cattle. Pages 61-73 in *Guide for the Care and Use of Agricultural Animals in Research and Teaching* (third edition). Available at <http://www.fass.org>.
- ¹² Nardone, A., B. Ronchi, N. Lacetera, M.S. Ranieri and U. Bernabucci. 2010. Effects of Climate Changes on Animal Production and Sustainability of Livestock Systems. *Elsevier Livestock Science*, Vol. 130 Issue 1-3, pp. 57-69. doi:10.1016/j.livsci.2010.02.011. Available at <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1871141310000740>.
- ¹³ Doll, J. E., and M. Baranski. 2011. *Greenhouse Basics, Climate Change and Agriculture*. Extension Bulletin E3148. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University Extension. Available at <https://lter.kbs.msu.edu/citations/2104>.
- ¹⁴ DeShazer, J.A., H. Xin and G.L. Hahn. 2009. Chapter 1: Basic Principles of the Thermal Environment and Livestock Energetics. Pages 1-22 in DeShazer, J.A., (ed.), *Livestock Energetics and Thermal Environment Management*. St. Joseph, Mich.: American Society of Agricultural and Biological Engineers.
- ¹⁵ Renaudeau, D., A. Collin, S. Yahav, V. de Bascilio, J. L. Gourdiere and R. J. Collier 2011. Adaptation to hot climate and strategies to alleviate heat stress in livestock production. *The Animal Consortium*, 6(5):707-728. doi:10.1017/S1751731111002448. Available at http://journals.cambridge.org/download.php?file=%2FANM%2FANM6_05%2F51731111002448a.pdf&code=984ae79c103c81e791f4e05f6aebbcf2.
- ¹⁶ Neinaber, J. A., and G. L. Hahn. 2007. Livestock production system management responses to thermal challenges. USDA-ARS / UNL Faculty paper 217. *Inter. J. Biometeorology*, 52(2):149-157. Available at <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1227&context=usdaarsfacpub>.
- ¹⁷ Pederson, C., and K. Hellevang. 2012. *Livestock Buildings Energy Efficiency Checklist and Tips*. This publication was adapted from the *Farmstead Energy Audit*, North Dakota State University Extension. Available at <http://www.extension.org/pages/30544/livestock-buildings-energy-efficiency-checklist-and-tips#VkCIM6TrsuU>.

- ¹⁸ Holmes, B. 2015. Improved Feed Efficiency. Innovation Center for U.S. Dairy. Available at <https://farmsmartbeta.usdairy.com/about#feed>.
- ¹⁹ Wright, C. 1999. When It's Hot, It's Hot and When It's Not, It's Still Hot! The Samuel Roberts Noble Foundation, U.S. Dept of Agric. Agricultural Research Service, Washington, D.C. Available at <http://www.ars.usda.gov/Main/docs.htm?docid=21306>.
- ²⁰ USDA. 2014. Cattle Heat Stress Forecast. Available at <http://www.ars.usda.gov/Main/docs.htm?docid=21306>.
- ²¹ Jones, D., A. Sutton and L. Kelley. 2003. Best Environmental Management Practices for Farm Animal Production. Purdue Extension, Livestock, Manure Management. Available at <https://www.extension.purdue.edu/extmedia/ID/ID-303.pdf>.
- ²² Farms.com, Ltd. 2014. Handling Cattle through High Heat Humidity Indexes. Source: University of Nebraska. Available at <http://www.farms.com/news/handling-cattle-through-high-heat-humidity-indexes-78442.aspx>.
- ²³ National Pork Board. 2014. Transport Quality Assurance Handbook, Version 5. Des Moines, Iowa: National Pork Board. Available at <http://old.pork.org/filelibrary/tqa/2014-version5/tqahandbookv5.pdf>.
- ²⁴ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2014. Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990–2012. Chapter 6, Agriculture. EPA 430-R-13-003. Available at www.epa.gov/climatechange/Downloads/ghgemissions/US-GHG-Inventory-2014-Chapter-6-Agriculture.pdf.
- ²⁵ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2015 Understanding Global Warming Potentials. EPA Home>Climate Change .Emissions>Understanding Global Warming Potentials. Available at <http://www3.epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/gwps.html>.
- ²⁶ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2015. U.S. EPA's Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and sinks 1990-2013. Greenhouse Inventory Data Explorer. Available at: <http://www3.epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/inventoryexplorer/chartindex.html>.
- ²⁷ Greenhouse Gas Mitigation Opportunities for Livestock Management in the United States. 2012. Policy brief by Duke University Nicholas Institute for Environmental Policy Solutions. Based on a report by S. Archibeque, K. Haugen-

Kozyra, K. Johnson, E. Kebreab, W. Powers-Shilling, L. Olander and A. Van de Bogert. Animal Agriculture in a Changing Climate. Available at <http://animalagclimatechange.org/resources/resource/greenhouse-gas-mitigation-opportunities-for-livestock-management-in-the-united-states/>.

Farm greenhouse gas assessment tools

- Innovation Center for U.S. Dairy. 2016. Farm Smart Version 2.0 — Farm Smart a, online tool that helps dairy farmers assess their farm's footprint and explore the potential financial and environmental value of practice alternatives. Available at <https://farmsmartbeta.usdairy.com/Account/Login?ReturnUrl=%2Fdefault.aspx>.
- National Pork Board 2009-2016. Carbon Footprint of Pork Production Calculator. 2015. Calculates the greenhouse gas emissions involved in sow and grow-finish production, which can help producers, identify areas for potential improved efficiency. By America's Pork Production and the Pork Checkoff. Available at www.pork.org/production-topics/environmental-sustainability-efforts-pork-production/carbon-footprint-pork-production-calculator/.
- United States Department of Agriculture. 2016. COMET-Farm tool — is a whole farm and ranch carbon and greenhouse gas accounting system tool for farmers, ranchers, forest landowners and other USDA stakeholders to help them evaluate the GHG benefits of a wide variety of management practices. Available at <http://cometfarm.nrel.colostate.edu/>.

Authors

Shelby Burlew, Livestock Environmental Educator, Michigan State University Extension

Marilyn Thelen, Crop and Livestock Systems Sr. Educator, Michigan State University Extension

Dr. Wendy Powers, Professor, Director of Environmental Stewardship for Animal Agriculture Livestock Environmental Management, Michigan State University

David Schmidt, MS. PE, Regional Coordinator for the Animal Agriculture in a Changing Climate, University of Minnesota

Misty Klotz, Climate Change and Agriculture Outreach Coordinator, Michigan State University, W.K. Kellogg Biological Station



W.K. Kellogg
Biological Station
Pasture Dairy Center
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY



KBS LTER
Kellogg Biological Station
Long-term Ecological Research

Animal Agriculture
in a Changing Climate

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

Extension

MSU is an affirmative-action, equal-opportunity employer, committed to achieving excellence through a diverse workforce and inclusive culture that encourages all people to reach their full potential. Michigan State University Extension programs and materials are open to all without regard to race, color, national origin, gender, gender identity, religion, age, height, weight, disability, political beliefs, sexual orientation, marital status, family status or veteran status. Issued in furtherance of MSU Extension work, acts of May 8 and June 30, 1914, in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Jeffrey W. Dwyer, Interim Director, MSU Extension, East Lansing, MI 48824. This information is for educational purposes only. Reference to commercial products or trade names does not imply endorsement by MSU Extension or bias against those not mentioned. 1P-01:2016-BP-Quantity-LJ/AB WCAG 2.0