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INTERPRETIVE SUMMARY

A vision for dairy farms and cows in 2067. *Britt et al, page 0000.* During the next 50 yr global population will reach 10.4 billion and per capita consumption of dairy products will increase, driving upward demand for milk. Climate change will shift location of dairy farms to areas with adequate water, and dairying will continue to provide nutrients sustainably. Dairy cows will be healthier and milk yield will double. Technologies linked to epigenomics and microbiomics will be adopted along with increased automation and greater focus agroecology. Understanding of herd management will be improved by evaluating herds as superorganisms.

INVITED REVIEW: DAIRY FARMS AND COWS IN 2067

Invited Review: Learning from the future: A vision for dairy farms and cows in 2067

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30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Worldwide population in 2067 will reach 10.4 billion with 81% residing in Africa or Asia.
32 Temperature will increase in tropical and temperate zones, especially in the Northern
33 Hemisphere and this will push growing seasons and dairy farming away from arid areas into
34 more northern latitudes. Dairy consumption will increase because it provides essential nutrients
35 more efficiently than many other agricultural systems. Milk production per cow will increase,
36 reaching 25,000 kg/yr per cow in countries with advanced dairying systems. Genetic
37 improvement will include emphasis on the coding genome and associated non-coding epigenome
38 of cattle, and on microbiomes of microbiota of dairy cattle and farmsteads. Farm sizes will
39 increase and there will be more lateral integration of housing and management of dairy cattle of
40 different ages and production stages. Integrated sensors, robotics and automation will replace
41 much of the manual labor on farms. Managing the epigenome and microbiome will become part
42 of routine herd management. Innovations in dairy facilities will improve health of cows and
43 permit expression of natural behaviors Herds will be viewed as superorganisms and studies of
44 herds as observational units will lead to improvements in productivity, health and well-being of
45 dairy cattle, and improve agroecology of dairy farms.

INTRODUCTION

46

47 Demand for dairy products and technologies will grow during the next 50 yr for two reasons.

48 First, increased per capita income worldwide will boost demand for dairy and other food

49 products from animals, and these products increasingly will provide essential nutrients in

50 developing countries. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations

51 states: “Even small amounts of animal source foods can improve the nutritional status of low-

52 income households. Meat, milk and eggs provide proteins with a wide range of amino acids as

53 well as micronutrients such as iron, zinc, vitamin A, vitamin B12 and calcium, in which many

54 malnourished people are deficient” (Kourous 2011). Second, dairy products efficiently meet

55 nutritional requirements of humans from the standpoint of farming practices. Production of milk

56 uses less land to produce 1 g of edible protein than production of other livestock or poultry

57 products and some plant products (Figure 1; Clark and Tillman, 2017; Roser and Ritchie, 2017).

58 Dairy-based diets are superior to vegan-, egg- and classical omnivore-based diets for maximizing

59 capacity of crop lands to feed the greatest number of people while adhering to recommended

60 agronomic practices for various classes of lands (Peters et al., 2016).

61 To supply increased demand for dairy products in developing countries, there must be a

62 balance between imports and products produced within country. This provides opportunities for

63 exporting countries to provide dairy products as well as dairy equipment and technologies to

64 expand dairy farming in countries where suitable land resources exist (Gerosa and Skoet, 2012).

65 As demand for dairy products increases it is important to understand how dairy cows and farms

66 will change during the next several decades to meet the demand. Our group of authors has been

67 engaged informally for more than 2 yr with a specific focus on dairy cows and farms in 2067 --

68 primarily in developed countries with advanced dairy farm industries and technologies. We have

69 developed a vision for modern dairy cows and farms for 50 yr in the future. In this forward-
70 looking commentary, we also include a brief look at global dairy production.

71 **POPULATION AND CLIMATE IN 2067**

72 *Population Demographics*

73 The United Nations estimates that our world's population will grow from 7.6 to 10.5 billion
74 between 2017 and 2067 (United Nations, 2017). This projection represents the median variant,
75 between high (12.6 billion) and low (8.6 billion) variants. Asia and Africa will account for 93%
76 of this growth (Figure 2). Latin America and the Caribbean, North America, and Oceania will
77 grow modestly whereas Europe will decline in population. Half of the world's population in
78 2067 (5.2 billion people) will live in 10 countries, ranked by population: India, China, Nigeria,
79 United States, Pakistan, Indonesia, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Brazil and
80 Bangladesh.

81 *Climate Change*

82 Changes in climate during the next 50 yr will affect where dairy farms and cattle are located
83 and focus more attention on types of cattle that are adaptable to various regions. Climate in the
84 northern hemisphere is particularly important because 81% of the world's population lives north
85 of the equator (Lutz, 2012). Similarly, 86% of world's milk from dairy cattle is produced north
86 of the equator (FAOSTAT, 2017).

87 Global temperature has increased steadily for several decades (Figure 3). This trend has been
88 particularly consistent during the last 5 decades and most forecasts expect it to continue.
89 Forecasts for changes in climate in the northern hemisphere include warmer temperatures year-
90 round, greater variation in precipitation and longer growing seasons toward the polar latitudes.
91 This forecast is also true for the southern hemisphere, but it is dampened by tempering effects of

92 the oceans. It is predicted that the future climate will have longer periods of both drought and
93 excess rainfall with more severe weather incidents.

94 Changes in climate will cause shifts in dairy cows and farms. For example, in the United
95 States, approximately 42% of milk produced currently originates in states that are expected to
96 have severe water shortages by 2067 (Figure 4). A significant portion of dairy farms in these
97 areas will relocate to areas with more sustainable water supplies and adequate growing seasons.
98 Areas most suitable for dairy expansion are in the upper Midwest and Great Lakes regions and
99 into the central provinces of Canada. These areas are forecast to have adequate water resources
100 and longer growing seasons in 2067.

101 **DAIRY CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION**

102 Worldwide, annual consumption of dairy products (fresh milk equivalent basis) averages about
103 87 kg per person based on extrapolations from Alexandratos and Bruinsma (2012). In developed
104 countries, consumption currently averages about 200 kg/year per person compared with 55 per
105 person in developing countries. This amount does not include butter, which is included as an
106 animal fat in the food classification system used by the FAO.

107 Annual dairy consumption (skim milk basis) is estimated to increase to 119 kg per person
108 worldwide by 2067. Increased consumption of dairy products coupled with increased growth in
109 population translates into a need for approximately 600 billion kg more milk in 2067 than is
110 produced today. According to FAO, dairy cows produce 82.4% of the world's milk followed by
111 buffalo (13.6%), goats (2.3%), sheep (1.3%) and camels (0.4%).

112 In 2014, an estimated 274 million dairy cows dotted the globe (FAOSTAT, 2017). To produce
113 the estimated 600 billion kg of additional milk needed by 2067, an average dairy cow needs to
114 double annual yield from 2,405 to 4,531 kg. This seems doubtful because many countries with

115 lowest annual production per cow have the most cows (Figure 5). It is unlikely that yield will
116 increase 10-fold during the next five decades in countries with lowest annual yields, so the
117 needed milk or dairy products will most likely come from countries with highest current yields.

118 Countries with greater production levels per cow could meet much of the increased demand for
119 dairy products without doubling production per cow. Fifteen of 20 countries that rank highest in
120 total annual production of milk from dairy cows are located outside Africa and Asia and in
121 regions where growth of populations will be modest or negative during the next 50 yr (Figure 6).
122 Many of these countries are positioned to capitalize on growing worldwide demand for dairy
123 products.

124 We projected that dairy cows will produce approximately 25,300 kg per cow annually by 2067
125 in the United States (Figure 7). For this projection, historical yield data from USDA were
126 subjected to linear and exponential extrapolation to 2067 and then our group discussed these
127 trend lines and opined that average annual yield in 50 yr would be at 25,300 kg, approximately
128 midway between the linear and exponential extrapolations. From 1945 to 2015 milk yield per
129 cow in the USA increased 5.2% per yr (113 kg/yr). The trend lines in Figure 7 reflect increases
130 of 1.3% and 129 kg per year (linear) and 3.5% and 412 kg per year (exponential). Our opinion is
131 that yield will grow by 3.0% and 300 kg per year. If annual production per cow reaches this
132 level, number of cows needed to meet domestic consumption in the United States in 2067 will
133 drop below 5 million. As production per cow increases, there is an opportunity for the United
134 States and other exporting countries to increase exports to maintain cow numbers nearer to
135 today's levels.

136 We do note that gains in milk yield may be tempered by greater focus on milk solids
137 production. Selection for more milk solids is consistent with annual commercial disappearance

138 of dairy products, particularly butterfat (see file: [Commercial disappearance for dairy product](#)
139 [categories \(monthly\)](#) available at <https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/dairy-data/>). Domestic
140 consumption currently favors increased yield of fat and protein within a lower volume of milk.
141 Most genetic selection indexes currently place positive emphasis on fat and protein yield with no
142 weight or a negative weight on milk yield. Milk yield will continue to increase as a correlated
143 response to selection, but volume may increase at a slower rate with greater emphasis on milk
144 solids. A greater emphasis on milk solids may accelerate a shift to breeds that produce higher
145 solids percentages.

146 *Exports*

147 The challenge for dairy exporting countries and regions such as the United States, New Zealand,
148 and EU will be to develop products that provide affordable dairy-based nutrients to meet needs
149 of children and adults in countries in which demand will increase. Meeting this need will require
150 a different strategy than common practice where components not consumed within domestic and
151 regional markets are exported. For example, in 2016 the United States exported about 4% of its
152 milk equivalents expressed on a milk-fat basis, and about 17% expressed on a skim-milk basis,
153 illustrating that domestic supply of milk fat was close to domestic demand whereas other
154 components such as lactose were in oversupply. In the future, importing countries will seek
155 products that are designed for their specific tastes and customs, so there will be a shift away from
156 shipping surpluses to shipping value-added products for consumers in targeted nations.

157 It will be necessary to assess current and projected population pyramids in countries to
158 develop age-specific products for export. Projections show that 31% of the population in Nigeria
159 in 2067 will be less than 15 yr of age compared with 17% in the United States. In contrast, 24%
160 of the population in the United States will be 65 yr or older compared with only 5% in Nigeria

161 (De Wulf, 2016). Thus, population demographics of export markets may differ substantially
162 from those of exporting countries and this difference will drive the need to produce country-
163 specific export products (Odle et al., 2017).

164 **COWS OF THE FUTURE**

165 Dairy cows of the future will produce more milk solids, have relatively smaller environmental
166 footprints, be healthier and have genetic characteristics that fit their climatic locations. Specific
167 lines within major dairy breeds will be developed efficiently through genomic selection to fit
168 various dairy sectors worldwide (Boichard et al., 2015). If major genes that provide greater heat
169 tolerance and enhanced health are identified, these genes will be moved within and among
170 breeds by gene editing. Otherwise, genetic and epigenetic markers for such traits will be included
171 in genomic selection indexes. Trans- or synthetic-genes may be added by inserting sequences
172 into existing genomes.

173 ***Genetic Changes in Dairy Cattle***

174 ***Impact of Genomic Selection.*** Generation interval for dairy cattle will continue to decline
175 through combined use of genomic selection, in vitro fertilization (IVF) and other advanced
176 reproductive technologies (Humblot et al., 2010; Pryce et al., 2012; Weller et al., 2017; Cole and
177 VanRaden, 2018). After the first genomic summary was published for US Holstein cattle in
178 2009, rate of genetic progress for several traits in Holsteins accelerated (Garcia-Ruiz, 2016).
179 Rate of genetic progress per year for yield traits increased by about 50%, but progress increased
180 3- to 4-fold per year for health and longevity traits. In the future, more phenotypes will be added
181 to the list of traits that will be estimated by genomic evaluations, thus accelerating genetic
182 progress to improve animal health and welfare and associated traits. In the past, it has been
183 challenging to incorporate such phenotypes into classical quantitative selection schemes, but

184 with genomic markers for these traits it is becoming simpler (Boichard et al., 2015; Cole and
185 VanRaden, 2017).

186 Genetic progress also will benefit from reduction in generation interval associated with
187 genomic testing and use of reproductive technologies. Since 2009, generation interval for bulls
188 entering AI in the United States has dropped from approximately 7 to 2.5 yr. (Garcia-Ruiz,
189 2016). This interval is approaching the theoretical limit for non-surgical approaches in which
190 oocytes can be retrieved and sperm recovered at about 8 mo of age in well-fed dairy heifers and
191 bulls (Byrne et al., 2017), producing a generation interval of 17 mo. It is possible for generation
192 interval to be dramatically less by 2067 through reproductive innovation. Production of viable
193 oocytes from embryonic-stem cells has been demonstrated in mice (Hayashi et al., 2017). This
194 could allow genomically tested embryos to be used as parents and reduce generation interval to
195 <1 yr, but such techniques have not yet been developed for cattle.

196 During the next 50 yr, use of genomic selection will spread rapidly among breeds that are
197 underrepresented in current world dairy genomic databases (Boichard et al., 2015). Genomic
198 predictions from these breeds are not used currently because of limited data and poor reliability
199 across breeds. Our ability to estimate SNP associations from mixed and crossbred populations
200 will improve and allow a small amount of phenotypic data from an underrepresented breed to be
201 supplemented by large phenotypic databases from major breeds to build more robust databases
202 for breeds worldwide (Hozé et al. 2014).

203 ***Genetic Improvement of Health and Welfare.*** Selection for health- and environmental-related
204 traits will expand as new genomic selection indices are added (Cole and VanRaden, 2017). Some
205 major genes may be moved within or among breeds by gene editing. For example, a Holstein line
206 that was developed through conventional breeding has a gene for heat tolerance (*SLICK* gene)

207 and cows in this line show better tolerance to heat stress (Dikmen et al., 2014). Gene editing
208 could be used to move quickly this *SLICK* gene into other lines or breeds.

209 Genomic selection will expand in areas related to immunity, disease resistance, reproduction
210 and mastitis (Thompson-Crispi et al., 2012; Parker-Gaddis et al., 2014; Miglior et al., 2014).
211 Holsteins with greater immunity identified by a patented genomic test that measures cell- and
212 antibody-mediated immune responses show stronger immunity and have longer herd life and
213 reproductive performance (Thompson-Crispi et al., 2012). Genetic markers for antibody- and
214 cell-mediated immune responses have been identified in Holstein cows and bulls, and semen is
215 available for sires that have these greater immune responses (Thompson-Crispi et al., 2014).

216 Metabolic stress in transition cows is associated with loss of BW and increased metabolic
217 diseases, lameness and infertility; however, two recent studies provide evidence that we can
218 select cows that are more metabolically robust during early lactation. Zachut and Moallem
219 (2017) found that relative postpartum BW loss in Holstein cows differed and was repeatable
220 during the first five lactations. Cows that exhibited less BW loss produced the same amount of
221 milk during lactation as those that lost more BW, but those with lower BW loss had better
222 fertility. Ha et al. (2017) identified a genetic component to estimate metabolic change during
223 early lactation in Brown Swiss cows. Brown Swiss bulls differed in types of daughters that they
224 sired and daughters that were more metabolically robust had extended functional lifetimes in
225 herds. As genetic markers for these traits are identified, there will be increased emphasis on
226 selecting cows that are impacted less by metabolic changes during the postpartum period.

227 One genetic opportunity that has global appeal is development of cattle that are resistant to
228 major infectious foreign diseases such as foot and mouth disease (FMD) and endemic diseases
229 like Leptospirosis, IBR and BVD. These diseases affect cow health and may interfere with

230 international trade. Within five decades, there is a good possibility that some of these diseases
231 will be eliminated through genomic selection and other technologies.

232 Proprietary lines of dairy cattle will be developed by commercial businesses that have access to
233 genomic information not in the public domain. These lines will have phenotypes that make them
234 profitable for dairy farmers by production of unique or therapeutic milk products, greatly
235 improved feed efficiencies, or other characteristics. These lines will have intellectual property
236 protection that will limit the sale of breeding stock from farms.

237 The importance of specialized dairy cattle lines in the future will lead to a change in the way
238 that genetic resources are marketed from breeding companies. The primary product will expand
239 from semen to fresh or frozen embryos that will be produced through cell culture techniques
240 maintained for each line. This will essentially move genetic mating decisions to the IVF
241 laboratory rather than on the farm, but it will also increase greatly the types of products produced
242 by the dairy genetic industry.

243 *Understanding Epigenetic Effects*

244 Significant improvements will occur in understanding roles and importance of non-sequence
245 based features of the dairy cattle genome and how these affect gene function in response to
246 environment. Classically this has been referred to as epigenetics and has largely focused on
247 methylation of DNA or acetylation of histone proteins. Now we know that there are many DNA
248 sequences that are transcribed into RNA that acts as a regulator of gene action rather than a
249 template for protein synthesis. So the focus of epigenetics has broadened to include additional
250 mechanisms such as transfer of RNA between cells (Macaulay et al., 2016) and regulation of
251 genes by non-translated RNAs (Yang et al., 2017).

252 Intervals between environmental events and subsequent epigenetic responses may be as long as
253 months or years. Here we refer to such displaced responses as epigenetic effects because of their
254 latent temporal nature (Humblot, 2011; Sinclair et al., 2016). One example of an epigenetic
255 effect is how body condition change during 3 to 5 wk postpartum affects conception rate at 12
256 wk postpartum. Holstein cows that lost more body condition during 5 wk postpartum had lower
257 fertility at first AI at 83 days postpartum and this led to the Britt Hypothesis (Figure 8) that
258 postpartum BW loss exerted an adverse effect on the developing follicle or its oocyte (Britt,
259 1992). A subsequent experiment with 1887 Holstein cows found that cows gaining body
260 condition during 3 wk postpartum had a timed-AI pregnancy rate of 84% compared with 38%
261 and 25% for cows that maintained or lost body condition. (Carvahlo et al., 2014). This fertility
262 response illustrates the time lag between an event (loss of body condition) and its outcome
263 (conception rate). Lucy et al (2014) suggested that effects described by the Britt Hypothesis be
264 extended to the oviduct and uterus because of their responses to BW loss during the postpartum
265 period.

266 There are numerous examples of such latent responses in dairy cattle. Heifer calves that gain
267 more weight during the first 2 mo of life produce more milk in their first lactation about 2 yr
268 later (Soberon et al., 2014), apparently because more gain in early life induces growth of more
269 mammary epithelial cells that later produce more milk (Soberon and Van Amburgh, 2017).
270 Holstein cows milked more frequently each day during the first 3 to 6 wk postpartum and then at
271 a lower frequency during the remainder of lactation produce more milk during the remainder of
272 lactation than control cows milked at the lower frequency throughout the entire lactation (Bar-
273 Peled et al., 1995; Hale et al., 2003).

274 The ovarian follicle reserve is established during fetal development, and cattle with an optimal
275 ovarian reserve have better reproductive performance (Mossa et al., 2012; Jimenez-Krassel et al.,
276 2017). Husbandry practices, disease and environmental conditions can affect this reserve. For
277 example, restricting weight gain in early gestation in pregnant cows reduces number of antral
278 follicles in heifers born to those restricted dams (Mossa et al., 2013). Reducing rate of gain
279 during a few weeks before expected puberty increases number of primordial follicles near first
280 breeding (Freetly et al., 2014; Amundson et al., 2015). Inflammation associated with disease
281 reduces the number of primordial follicles (Bromfield and Sheldon, 2013). Such latent effects
282 will become important targets for management during the next 50 yr.

283 Genomics in the future will expand to cover these and other traits and will include some RNA
284 sequencing and DNA methylation profiling as part of an animal's genomic evaluation.
285 Connecting the dots on some of these pathways and relationships will make it more feasible to
286 incorporate the epigenome into genomic selection.

287 *Genomes of the Microbiota*

288 Advances in DNA and RNA sequencing technologies are leading to rapid advances in
289 indentifying and understanding microbiomes (genomes) of organisms in cattle fed and managed
290 under various conditions (Deusch et al., 2015). For example, the fecal microbiome of beef cattle
291 differs among cattle receiving different rations within a location, among specific locations within
292 a region and among different regions of the United States (Shanks et al., 2011).

293 Although rumen microbiomes are more alike within locations, differences in populations of
294 rumen microorganisms among cows consuming the same TMR in a herd may cause cows to
295 produce milk that differs in composition. Jami et al. (2014) fed primiparous Holstein cows the
296 same TMR during first lactation, but found that ratio of the two dominant phyla of rumen

297 organisms (*Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes*) ranged from 2:1 to 1:3 and this ratio was correlated (r^2
298 = 0.52) with milk fat yield. So many questions remain about causes of differences in the
299 gastrointestinal microbiome in cattle and how this affects performance and health.

300 Uncertainty exists about when the gastrointestinal microbiome is established, but substantial
301 evidence supports that it begins to be established by 2 d after birth (Yanez-Ruiz et al., 2015).
302 Studies with identical human twins found that genetics plays an important role ($h^2 = 0.39$) in
303 twins having common gastrointestinal organisms (van Opsta and Bordenstein, 2017). It may be
304 possible to utilize genomic selection to manipulate gastrointestinal microbiome to improve feed
305 utilization and health of dairy cattle.

306 Microbiomes of mammary (Oikonomouj et al., 2014) and urogenital (Santos and Bicalho,
307 2012) systems differ among healthy and diseased states in dairy cows, but it is unclear exactly
308 how changes in the microbiome are related to a disease state. As we develop systems for
309 routinely monitoring microbiomes in cattle, managing the microbiome may become a key aspect
310 of herd management.

311 ***Biological Limits.***

312 An often-asked question by scientists, farmers and consumers is “Are we reaching the
313 biological limit in milk yield and production traits?” To address this question, our group
314 examined data from top-yielding cows in the United States and compared yields among cows of
315 the same breed in the United States. Top individual cow records produced during the last decade
316 were 10 to 14 SD units greater than the average yield per cow in 2014, indicating that the
317 potential for increased yield is substantial. Similarly, we looked at US crop yields and found that
318 top yields for maize and soybeans in 2014 were 7 to 9 SD units greater than average yields

319 (Lobell, 2014). Therefore, imminent biological limits do not seem to be restraining output per
320 cow or per hectare.

321 **ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF DAIRY FARMS OF THE FUTURE**

322 Dairy farming enterprises of the future will be larger and utilize lateral integration to house and
323 manage classes of cattle within enterprises. Robotics, sensors and automation will replace many
324 manual labor activities and enhance agro-ecological practices for dairy enterprises. Crops and
325 feeds will require fewer inputs such as fertilizers and pesticides and will be more digestible.
326 Greater focus will be placed on systematically managing the epigenome and microbiome to
327 enhance animal health and productivity. Facilities for housing dairy cattle will be modified to
328 allow dairy cattle to express natural behaviors. The herd will be managed as a superorganism.

329 *Dairy Farm Sizes and Organization*

330 Dairy farm enterprises will continue to increase in scale to optimize efficiency and lower cost
331 of producing milk (MacDonald and Newton, 2014). Limits on size will be affected by zoning
332 and environmental regulations and proximities to heavily populated areas.

333 Dairy enterprises will move toward specialization in housing and managing various groups of
334 cattle (Figure 9). Two key components of specialization will be shared transition facilities and
335 shared feed centers. Cows in a shared transition facility will be milked 3- to 4-times daily and
336 managed to minimize impacts of transition on health and well-being. Feed centers will harvest
337 and store crops from land occupied by dairy enterprises and other farm land and deliver feeds to
338 various units using driverless, automated equipment. Relative cost of feed will be reduced
339 because of the efficiencies of scale

340 Dairy beef will increase in importance because its production generates about one-third of the
341 green house gas equivalents per unit weight of product as traditional beef production (Opio et al.,

342 2013). Cows with lower genomic ranks in herds will be inseminated with gender-selected sperm
343 from beef sires or will receive terminal-cross embryos from beef-breed donors. This will increase
344 proportion of dairy farm income generated by sale of animals, and these animals may enter a
345 premium consumer market focused on climate-friendly beef products.

346 Smaller dairy farm enterprises will collaborate and adopt practices of larger enterprises to
347 remain economically competitive. This will eventually lead to vertical integration of smaller
348 units in commercial dairy sectors. Nevertheless, some dairy farms will remain smaller and
349 independent with targeted niche markets emphasizing pasture-based grazing or local production.
350 Other small farms may produce milk with proprietary therapeutic products.

351 The shared resource model (Figure) will reduce construction and operating costs because
352 specific milking and housing facilities will be identical, using common design and construction.
353 Management protocols and equipment will be standardized among locations within laterally-
354 integrated operations. This standardization will permit lactating cows to move easily from one
355 unit to a different one during different lactations.

356 *Automation and Robotics*

357 Farms of the future will utilize on-farm and remote sensors, robotics and automation to
358 improve management of herds, comply with regulations and reduce the farm's environmental
359 footprint. Data from sensors, robots and automated equipment will be converted through
360 artificial intelligence to actionable outputs that will inform managers. This integrated system will
361 contribute significantly to improving sustainability of the dairy enterprise from field to farm gate
362 and beyond.

363 Sensors monitoring fields where crops are grown and sensors from silos and other feed storage
364 facilities will provide information about digestibility and quality of feed and how this is

365 influenced by field-specific and storage conditions. Added to this sensor information will be data
366 from individual cow intake monitored by 3-D imaging systems. Implantable, biodegradable
367 sensors will monitor mammary gland, liver and other organs. In-line detectors from each teat cup
368 will monitor teat and udder health, metabolic traits, milk composition and key hormones.
369 Automated systems also will measure cow BW, body condition and changes in gait to predict
370 lameness as cows move to and from robots for milking. Milk somatic cell DNA will be
371 monitored to characterize changes in immune and disease status that are reflected in
372 perturbations in key DNA sequences throughout the genome.

373 Automation and robotics will reduce manual labor on farms. In most developed countries,
374 cows will be milked by robotic systems, feed will be loaded, mixed and delivered by driverless
375 vehicles, and livestock waste and waste water will be processed automatically to produce energy,
376 fertilizers, other co-products, and clean water. Automation will lead to continued growth in size
377 of dairy farms, because economies of scale will be needed to pay for automated systems. To
378 reduce transportation costs, milk solids will be concentrated on farms and residual liquid portions
379 containing lactose and some minerals will be re-utilized into rations. Alternatively, milk with
380 different compositions will be sorted from the cow into tank trucks destined for different milk
381 processing facilities.

382 ***Managing “Omics” on the Dairy Farm***

383 There will be increased focus on management practices that benefit animal health, welfare and
384 productivity through controlling effects of epigenomics and microbiomics in herds. This will be
385 guided by improved understanding of temporal cause-and-effect relationships that lead to
386 improvements in animal health and welfare; more efficient utilization of land, crop and

387 byproduct resources; and improvements in sustainability. Practices and protocols will be guided
388 by artificial intelligence systems that mine data from the entire farm enterprise.

389 Epigenetic management will be focused on individual animals, and individual field crop areas
390 that will be harvested at the same time. For example, cows that are expected to be exposed to
391 heat stress that raises their body temperature to a critical level may receive certain dietary
392 supplements while being milked robotically or during feeding in dry cow groups. Crops that are
393 expected to be stressed by too much or too little water during specific growing stages will be
394 treated with different inoculants at harvest and storage to improve digestibility or nutrient
395 quality.

396 Managing the microbiome will depend on a clearer understanding of how it is established and
397 maintained in healthy animals. Knowledge of how feed sources and geographic locations affect
398 microbiomes of dairy cattle will expand quickly and lead to manipulation of the microbiomes in
399 various ways and at different stages of life to improve health, welfare, and productivity.

400 If current concepts that microbiomes of gastrointestinal, mammary, and urogenital tracts are
401 established before birth or early in life, then, products will be developed to inoculate colostrum
402 milk fed to calves at birth to create beneficial microbiomes. Once microbiomes are established,
403 the strategy to modify them will be to displace or replace specific organisms in a priority order
404 rather than replacing the entire microbiome. Proprietary microbial products will be used
405 therapeutically to replace some antimicrobial products and these may require a veterinary
406 prescription.

407 The dairy enterprise will utilize microbial additives for seeds, soils, crops, and irrigation water
408 to improve soil quality, boost crop yields and protect water quality. Seeds will be coated with
409 microbes that enhance soil health and improve yields without increasing chemical inputs

410 (Broadfoot, 2016). In housing and milking facilities, microbial mixtures will enhance quality of
411 bedding materials, increase values of manure and wastewater, and improve natural biodiversity
412 of the farmstead.

413 *Feeds*

414 Increased focus on improving digestibility of feeds and on utilizing crops that sustain soil
415 fertility and health will enhance agro-ecosystems on dairy farms. Progress will continue in
416 development of alfalfa and other forages that have less lignin and more starches (Combs, 2016).
417 Drought- and salt-tolerant varieties will increase in importance as climate changes and irrigation
418 increases. High yielding perennials including perennial maize (Murray and Jessup, 2014) and
419 hybrid canes (Głowacka et al. 2016; Burner et al, 2017) that have high sugar contents will be
420 introduced for production of silage. New feeds or feed supplements also will be produced from
421 microalgae (Costa et al., 2016). There will be increased emphasis on reducing amount of
422 chemical fertilizers and pesticides applied to cropland through development of crops that need
423 less fertilization and through broad use of precision farming technologies that match application
424 rates with fertility at square meter-level specificity.

425 *Facilities to Benefit the Cow's Natural Behavior and Health*

426 Confinement facilities restrict natural behaviors, limit expression of estrus, and contribute to
427 lameness and other health problems that impair well-being of cattle (Dobson and Smith, 2000;
428 von Borell et al., 2007). These effects are attributable largely to cows spending most of their
429 standing or walking time on concrete alleys and walkways rather than on surfaces that provide
430 more cushioning and comfort. Cows learn to behave differently on concrete than on natural
431 surface; for example they display less mounting and standing activity during the same estrus on
432 concrete than on dirt (Britt et al., 1986).

433 Facilities in the future will be designed and constructed to benefit cows in confinement. Alleys
434 and walkways will be constructed with laminates that combine underlying strength and durability
435 of concrete with overlying flexible polymers strengthened by carbon materials. Cows may move
436 regularly through covered exercise arenas in their daily routines and sensors will detect lameness
437 earlier than today's manual scoring methods. Stall and loose housing facilities will be cleaned,
438 bedded, and managed by robotic equipment to collect waste from bedding surfaces, tend the
439 bedding substrate and provide fresh material as needed.

440 Facilities will provide ways for early postpartum cows and newborn calves to interact for an
441 extended period after birth. Most interactions between cows and their calves will be controlled
442 through electronic sorting systems that fit into the natural flow of cows in the facilities.

443 **HERDS AS SUPERORGANISMS**

444 The term superorganism typically refers to a colony of animals, such as bees or termites that
445 function as a unit (hive or nest) and that has divisions of labor among members of the group
446 (Seeley, 2010). Such groups share sources of food and living conditions and are exposed to the
447 same diseases and environmental conditions. Cattle in dairy herds share feed and living
448 conditions and are exposed to diseases as a group. A herd should be viewed a superorganism and
449 be considered as an observational unit in developing more knowledge about herd management.

450 A herd is the central production and economic unit of dairy farming, but we lack understanding
451 of why herds differ in productivity, animal well-being and economic viability. Historically,
452 animal scientists have practiced reductionist-oriented research, moving from studying complete
453 organisms to studying an organism's systems, organs, cells and genes. Reductionist research
454 does not provide important data about what accounts for differences among herds.

455 We need studies focused on herds as experimental units to understand how environment,
456 operational practices and interactions among animals affect a herd's performance. For example,
457 why do dairy herds located in common physiographic areas and feeding similar diets differ in
458 productivity, health and animal welfare? How is a herd's health and performance affected by
459 land where its feed is grown? What are the most important practices for caring for and managing
460 herds?

461 Can we understand how cattle in a herd communicate to influence a herd's behavior, health
462 and productivity? Do cows signal to other cows their responses to personnel, housing conditions,
463 feed, threats and rewards? How does communication among cows differ among herds? Can we
464 develop ways to communicate effectively with cattle? Many species secrete pheromones, but we
465 are only beginning to identify the signaling chemicals in urine and other excretions of cattle
466 (Archunan and Kumar, 2012). If we could identify and detect volatile or soluble signals in milk,
467 urine or feces that reflect various physiological or disease states in dairy cattle, this would be a
468 valuable tool for managing herds.

469 It will be essential to engage scientists from public and private sectors to undertake this task. It
470 will be necessary to develop ways of capturing data that are not collected routinely. For example,
471 what percentage of herds use standard operating protocols for monitoring and recording health
472 and disease events and how well are these protocols implemented consistently within a herd? Do
473 protocols for the same practices differ among herds? If so, are there some that result in better
474 outcomes? Are there electronic systems or software that monitor protocols routinely to verify
475 compliance?

476 We need to look at the entire dairy enterprise when considering the herd as a superorganism. It
477 will take partnerships among dairy farmers, dairy product companies, equipment manufacturers,

478 input suppliers, scientists, veterinarians and government agencies to conduct such studies. There
479 will need to be support from experts in areas such as operations management, human sciences
480 and workforce development to understanding how training and recurring improvements in
481 management affect a herd's overall performance.

482 We currently have more than 40,000 dairy herds in the United States and hundreds of
483 thousands more in other countries, so there are plenty of opportunities to find herds for these
484 studies. It will be important to select several herds within multiple independent areas that reflect
485 differences in weather and climate, typical feedstuffs, types of facilities and housing and
486 production goals (e.g. conventional, organic, low input, grass-fed, etc.). In the end, we will learn
487 much about primary factors that influence herd performance, productivity, health and well-being,
488 and this will be beneficial to feeding the world in 2067.

489 **UNCERTAINTIES**

490 Dairying has been a part of domestication of livestock for about 360 human generations (Hirst,
491 2017). The next 50 yr comprise about 2 generations, so it seems unlikely that dairying as we
492 know it will be displaced by 2067. It is more likely that new technologies coupled with improved
493 sustainability of farming practices will strengthen dairying, and keep it its position of providing
494 dairy foods efficiently and sustainably.

495 Disruptive industrial technologies could alter dairying. A counterfeit of cow's milk is being
496 produced currently through industrial fermentation <http://www.perfectdayfoods.com/>. The
497 products being manufactured comprise plant-based sugars and fats, minerals, and proteins
498 secreted by yeast that have been genetically modified by insertion of bovine genes. The
499 challenge for manufacturers will be to produce products that mimic characteristics of cows' milk
500 that make it broadly used in food products worldwide.

501 Changes in sources of energy could influence where dairy farms are located if energy cost is
502 reduced substantially for desalination of sea water. The multi-national fusion project known as
503 ITER and now underway in France could provide the way for clean energy at a low cost
504 <https://www.iter.org/proj/inafewlines>. This could benefit dairy farms in coastal regions that are
505 forecast to have inadequate water resources in 2067 (Figure

506 Societal preferences will continue to influence food production including dairy farming,
507 particularly as future generations become more displaced from ancestral connections to farming.
508 Many concerns of consumers are focused on practices that they perceive to be unnatural
509 including confining cattle, overuse of pharmaceuticals, weaning calves shortly after birth,
510 overuse of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, and contamination of streams and sub-surface
511 water with livestock waste. Many of the practices that will be developed and implemented in the
512 next 50 yr will ameliorate several of these issues and dampen concerns of consumers. There will
513 be more zoning- and regulatory-based restrictions on farming, but demographic shifts to urban
514 areas also could also free-up land resources for farming. Structural consolidation of dairy
515 farming will continue and the industry will become more vertically integrated than today.

516 CONCLUSIONS

517 The world faces a challenge in feeding its expanding population during the next 50 yr, and we
518 forecast that dairying will meet this challenge by exploiting knowledge and technology to
519 develop better dairy cows and more productive and sustainable dairy farms. Discoveries and
520 application of new practices in areas such as genomics, microbiomics and intelligent systems
521 will be among key avenues for boosting milk yield of dairy cows and milk output from dairy
522 farming systems. Our vision is that dairying in the future will reflect sustainable intensification

523 that benefits animals, agroecosystems and mankind through production of key nutrients for
524 human consumption.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Square meters of land required to produce 1 gm of protein from various crops or production systems. Data from Clark and Tillman (2017) and graph modified from Roser and Ritchie (2017).

Figure 2. Estimated population of world's regions from 2017 to 2067. Raw data downloaded from United Nations (2017).

Figure 3. Deviations in average global temperature from average temperature for 1901 to 2000. Source of data: NOAA National Centers for Environmental information, Climate at a Glance: Global Time Series, published July 2017, retrieved on July 27, 2017 from <http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/cag/>.

Figure 4. Projected relocation of dairy farming from US regions with shortages of water to US regions with adequate water during the next 50 yr. Darker shaded areas will have less sustainable water supplies with current projections of climate change. Percentage in base of each arrow represents estimated percentage of US milk produced currently in that state. Original underlying map converted to black and white and used by permission (Roy et al., 2012).

Figure 5. Number of cows (n, millions) and average yield per cow in kg/yr for the 10 countries with the greatest number of cows in the FAO database for 2014. These countries comprise 150 million milk cows, about 46% of the world's inventory.

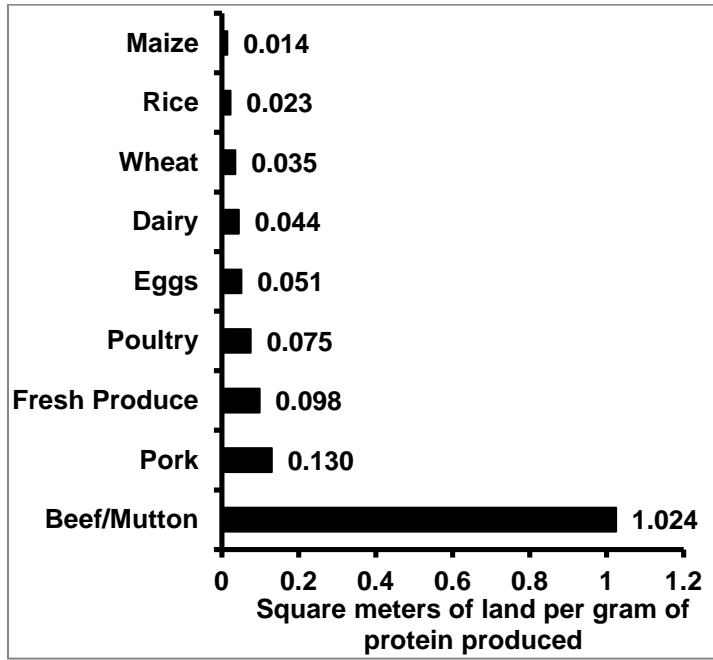
Figure 6. Annual yield of milk per cow and percentage of world's cow milk produced by the top 20 producing countries in 2014. These countries produced 74.4% of world's cow milk. Closed circles represent countries in Africa or Asia. Country codes are from <http://www.fao.org/countryprofiles/iso3list/en/>.

777 **Figure 7.** Forecasted change in milk yield of USA dairy cows in the next 50 yr. Actual data
778 from USDA sources (heavy black line) were extended through linear and exponential trend lines
779 using Microsoft Excel[®]. Our group of authors discussed these trend lines and agreed on a likely
780 level of production (star on right vertical axis).

781 **Figure 8.** Example of an epigenetic-type effect on the developing bovine oocyte that is
782 subjected to changes in energy balance and other adverse environmental conditions during the
783 transition period in dairy cows. The oocyte is activated about 21 days prepartum and ovulated
784 about 80 days postpartum. It is affected by adverse metabolic or disease conditions during the
785 transition period that subsequently affect its survival after fertilization. Model developed based
786 on Britt (1992) and Carvalho et al. (2014).

787 **Figure 9.** Model of organization of dairy enterprises of the future. Cows will be fed and
788 managed in a transition facility and milked 3- to 4-times per day. Cows will then move to Milk
789 Cow units for voluntary milking in robotic systems. Calves, heifers, dry cows and dairy beef will
790 be managed in separate shared facilities. Feed will be stored and mixed in feed centers that serve
791 multiple locations. This organization model would serve a single large dairy enterprise or
792 multiple smaller dairy enterprises.

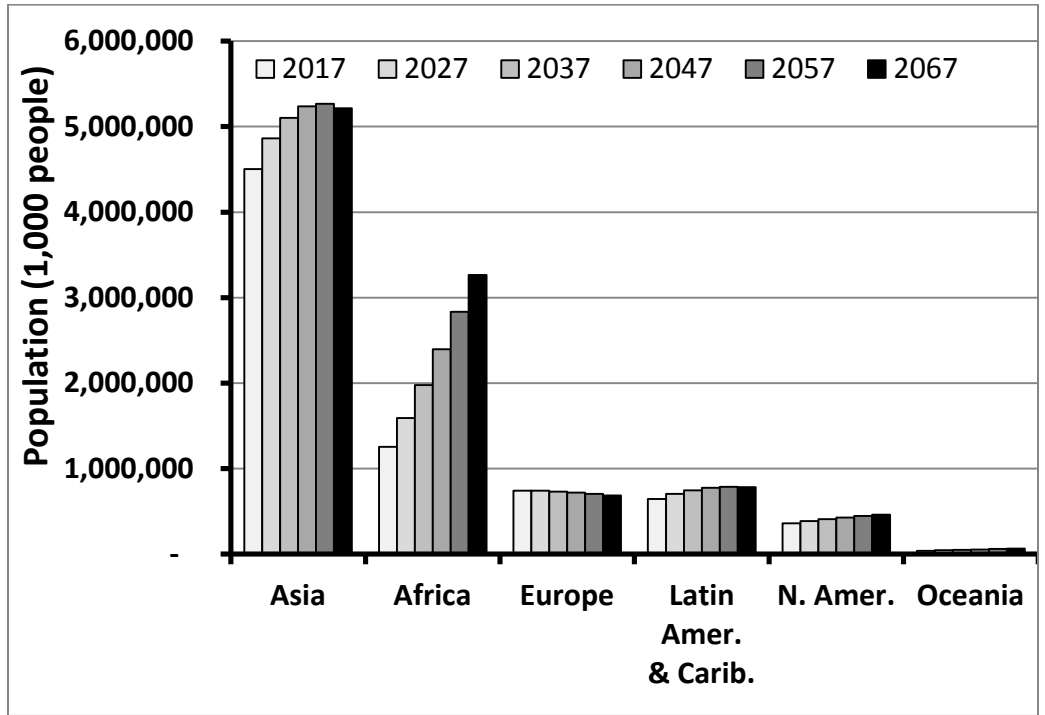
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794 **Britt, Figure 1**

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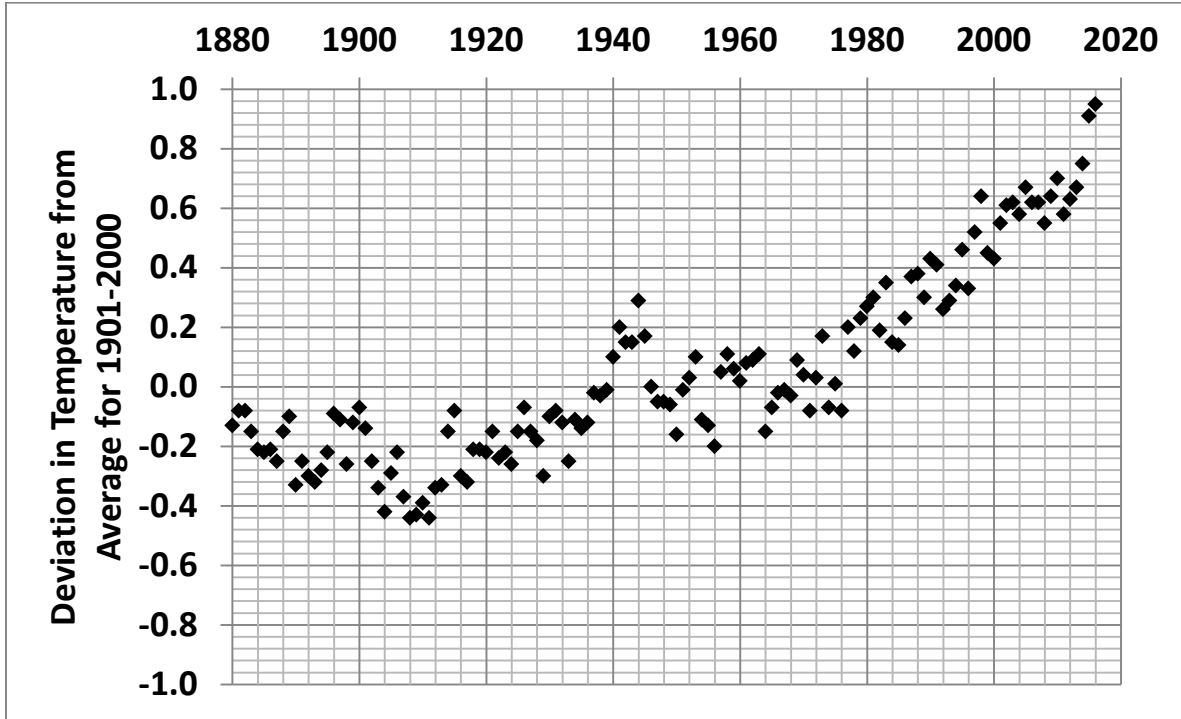
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797 **Britt, Figure 2**



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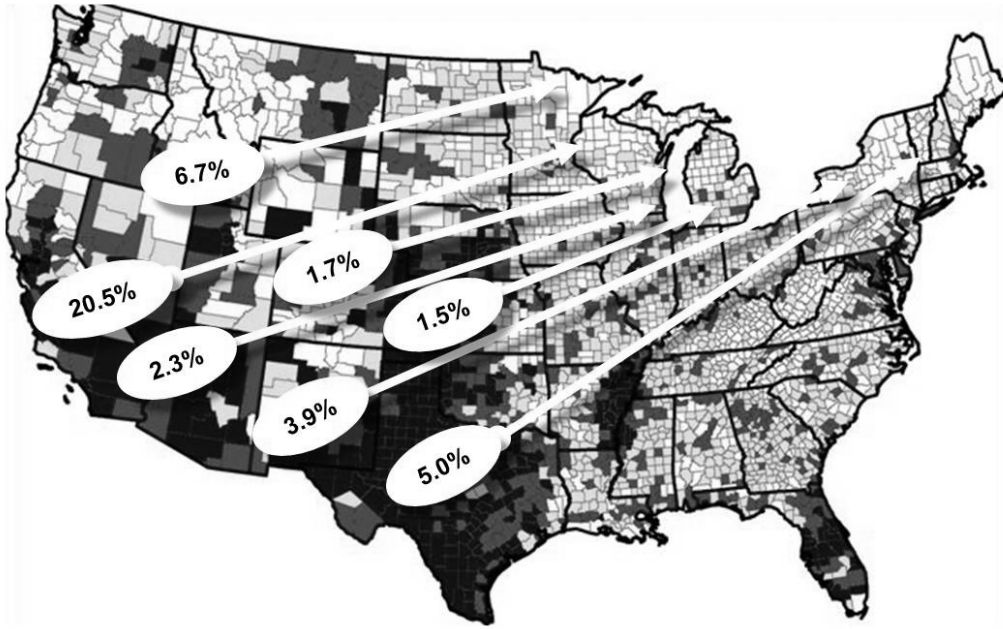
799 **Britt Figure 3**



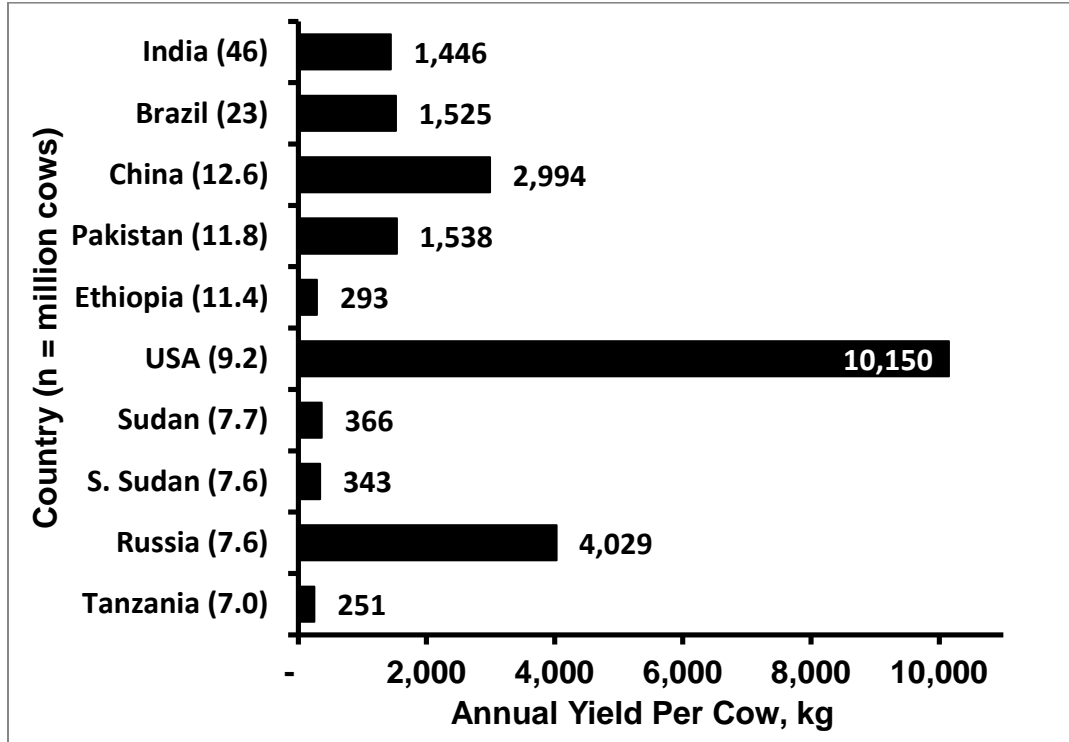
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802 **Britt Figure 4**
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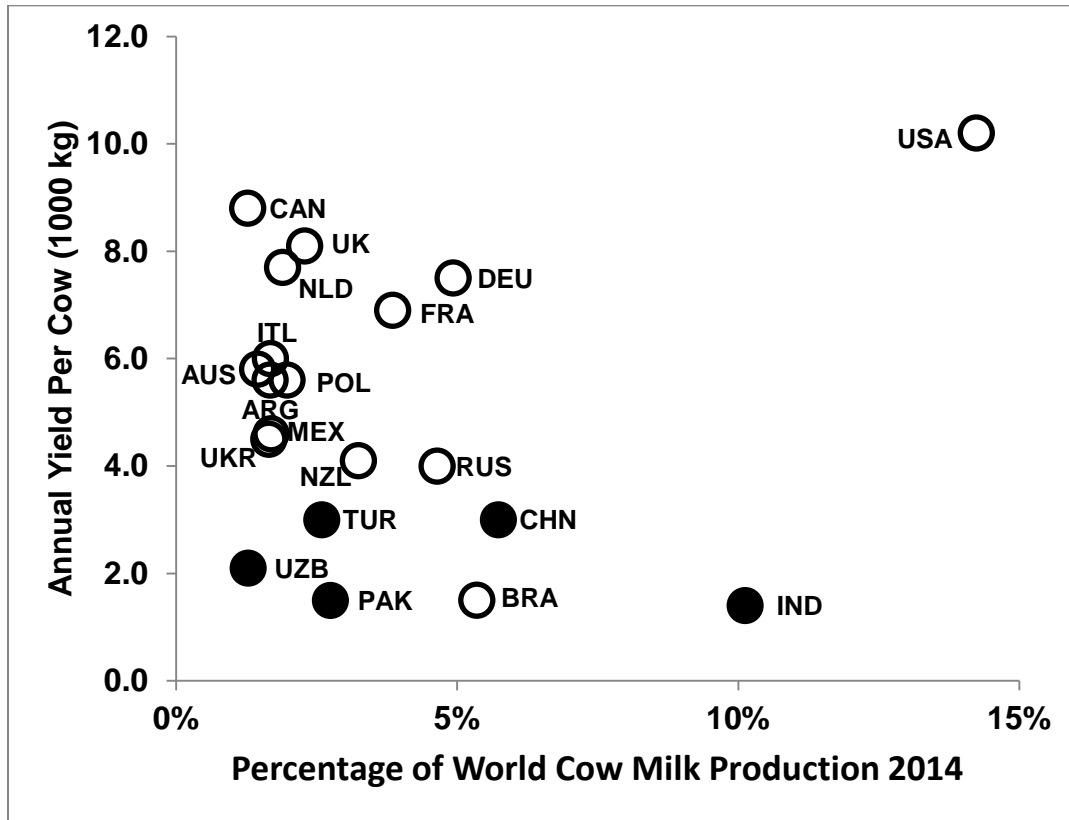


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807 **Britt, Figure 5**

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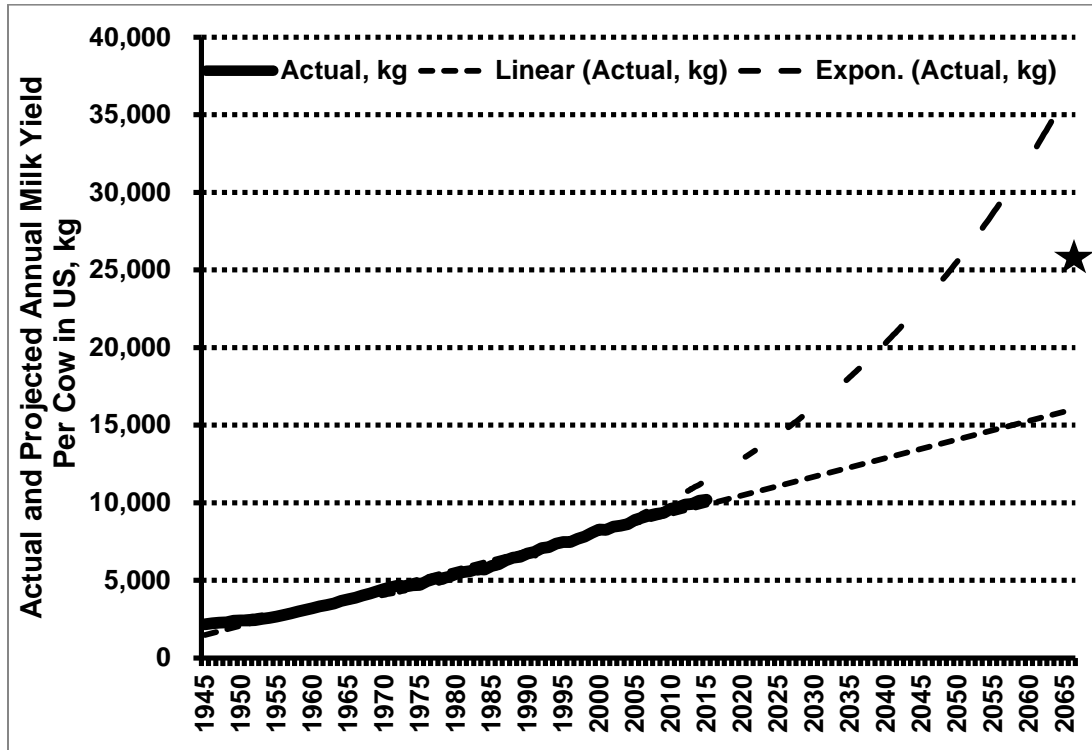
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810 **Britt Figure 6**

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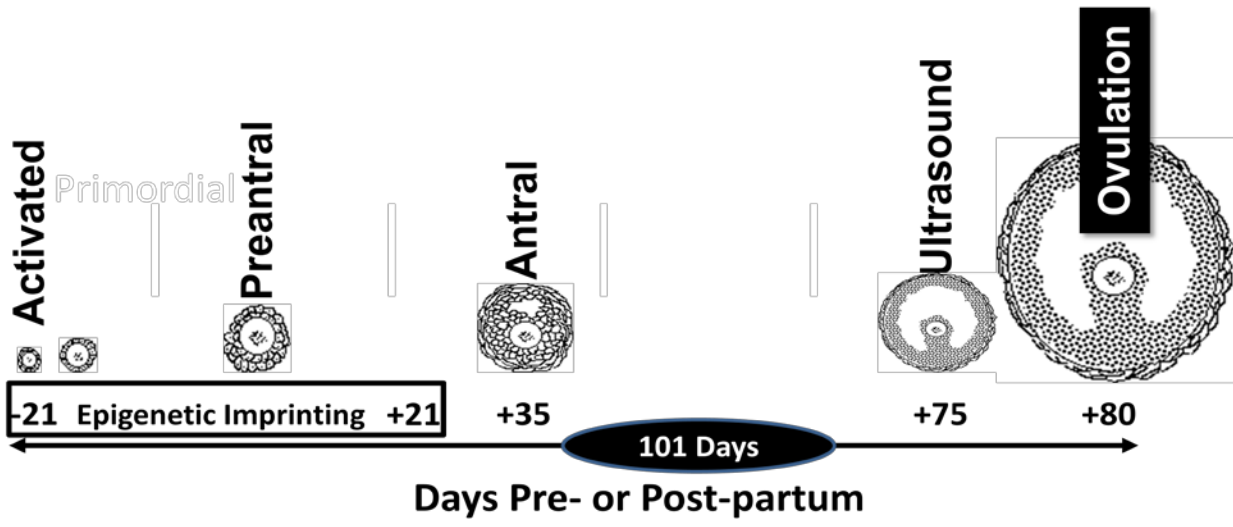
813 Britt, Figure 7.



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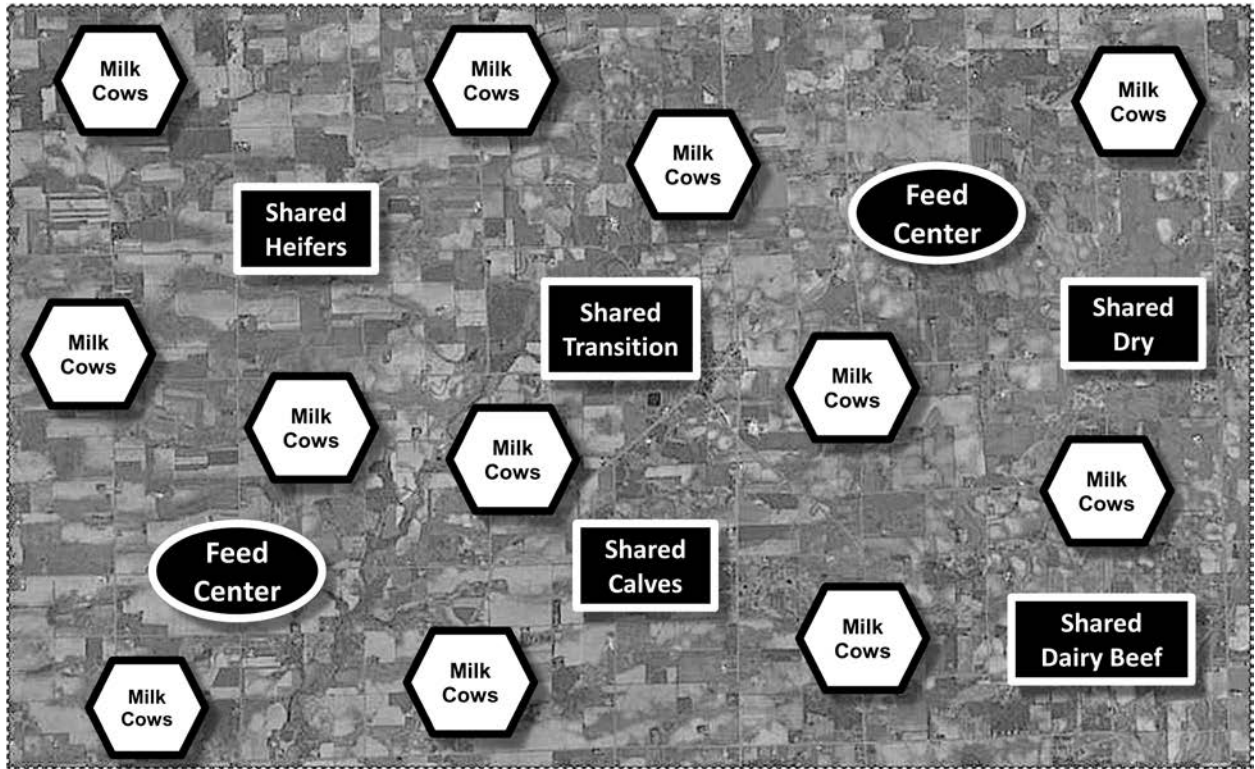
816 Britt Figure 8



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819 Britt Figure 9



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