

Predicting enteric methane emission of dairy cows with milk Fourier-transform infrared spectra and gas chromatography—based milk fatty acid profiles

van Gastelen, S., Mollenhorst, H., Antunes-Fernandes, E. C., Hettinga, K. A., van Burgsteden, G. G., Dijkstra, J., & Rademaker, J. L. W.

This is a "Post-Print" accepted manuscript, which has been published in "Journal of Dairy Science"

This version is distributed under a non-commercial no derivatives Creative Commons (CC-BY-NC-ND) user license, which permits use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and not used for commercial purposes. Further, the restriction applies that if you remix, transform, or build upon the material, you may not distribute the modified material.

Please cite this publication as follows:

van Gastelen, S., Mollenhorst, H., Antunes-Fernandes, E. C., Hettinga, K. A., van Burgsteden, G. G., Dijkstra, J., & Rademaker, J. L. W. (2018). Predicting enteric methane emission of dairy cows with milk Fourier-transform infrared spectra and gas chromatography–based milk fatty acid profiles. Journal of Dairy Science. DOI: 10.3168/jds.2017-13052

You can download the published version at:

https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2017-13052

- 1 Predicting enteric methane emission of dairy cows with milk Fourier-transform infrared
- 2 spectra and gas chromatography-based milk fatty acid profiles.

- 4 S. van Gastelen*†¹, H. Mollenhorst‡², E.C. Antunes-Fernandes*§³, K.A. Hettinga§, G.G. van
- 5 Burgsteden⁴, J. Dijkstra[†], J.L.W. Rademaker⁵.

6

- * Top Institute Food and Nutrition, P.O. Box 557, 6700 AN Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- 8 † Animal Nutrition Group, Wageningen University & Research, P.O. Box 338, 6700 AH
- 9 Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- ‡ Qlip B.V., P.O. Box 119, 7200 AC Zutphen, The Netherlands.
- § Food Quality and Design Group, Wageningen University & Research, P.O. Box 17, 6700
- 12 AH Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- 13 Corresponding author: sanne.vangastelen@wur.nl.
- ² Current address: Animal Breeding and Genomics Group, Wageningen University &
- Research, P.O. Box 338, 6700 AH Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- ³ Current address: KeyToxicology, Yalelaan 104, 3584 CM Utrecht, The Netherlands.
- ⁴ Current address: CRV B.V., P.O. Box 454, 6800 AL Arnhem, The Netherlands.
- ⁵ Current address: Nutrition Innovation Center Ruminants, ForFarmers N.V., P.O. Box 91,
- 19 7240 AB Lochem, The Netherlands.

20

21

ABSTRACT

23

The objective of the present study was to compare the prediction potential of milk Fourier-24 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) for methane (CH₄) emissions of dairy cows with that 25 of gas chromatography (GC)-based milk fatty acid (MFA). Data from 9 experiments with 26 lactating Holstein-Friesian cows with a total of 30 dietary treatments and 218 observations were 27 used. Methane emissions were measured for 3 consecutive days in climate respiration chambers 28 and expressed as production (g/d), yield (g/kg dry matter intake; DMI), and intensity (g/kg fat-29 and protein-corrected milk; **FPCM**). Dry matter intake was 16.3 ± 2.18 kg/d, FPCM yield was 30 25.9 ± 5.06 kg/d, CH₄ production was 366 ± 53.9 g/d, CH₄ yield was 22.5 ± 2.10 g/kg DMI, 31 32 and CH₄ intensity was 14.4 ± 2.58 g/kg FPCM (mean \pm SD). Milk was sampled during the same days and analyzed by GC and by FTIR. Multivariate GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-33 based CH₄ prediction models were developed and, subsequently, the final CH₄ prediction 34 35 models were evaluated with root mean square error of prediction (RMSEP) and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) analysis. Further, we performed a random 10-fold cross 36 validation to calculate the models performance parameters (e.g., the coefficient of 37 determination of cross validation; R²CV). The final GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ 38 prediction models estimate CH₄ production, yield, and intensity with a RMSEP of 35.7 g/d, 1.6 39 g/kg DMI, and 1.6 g/kg FPCM, and with a CCC of 0.72, 0.59, and 0.77, respectively. The final 40 FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models estimate CH₄ production, yield, and intensity with a 41 RMSEP of 43.2 g/d, 1.9 g/kg DMI, and 1.7 g/kg FPCM, and with a CCC of 0.52, 0.40, and 42 0.72, respectively. The GC-determined MFA-based prediction models described a greater part 43 of the observed variation in CH₄ emission than FTIR-based models. The cross validation results 44 indicate that all CH₄ prediction models (both GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based) are 45 robust, as the difference between R² and R²CV ranged from 0.01 to 0.07. These results indicate 46 that GC-determined MFA have a greater potential than FTIR spectra to estimate CH₄ 47

production, yield, and intensity. Both techniques hold potential, but may not yet be ready to predict CH₄ emission of dairy cows in practice. Additional CH₄ measurements are therefore needed to improve the accuracy and robustness of both GC-determined MFA and FTIR spectra for CH₄ prediction.

Keywords: dairy cow, enteric methane production, milk fatty acid concentration, milk

Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy.

INTRODUCTION

Enteric methane (CH4) is produced in the gastrointestinal tract of livestock, mainly ruminants, and comprises ~40% of global CH4 emissions (Gerber et al., 2013). Enteric CH4 is one of the main targets of mitigation strategies in the dairy cattle sector (Knapp et al., 2014). Quantification of CH4 emission is thus important. Several *in vivo* CH4 measurement techniques have been developed, but are not suitable for precise and accurate large scale measurements (Hammond et al., 2016). Cost-effective, efficient, robust, and fast CH4 measurement techniques applicable on a large scale to estimate CH4 emission of individual dairy cows are required. Therefore, identifying proxies (i.e., indicators or indirect traits related to CH4 emission), might serve as a good alternative (Negussie et al., 2017).

Milk fatty acid (MFA) profiles have been suggested as proxy to estimate CH4 emission in dairy cattle, and many studies have evaluated this proposed relationship between MFA concentrations and CH4 emission (e.g., Chilliard et al., 2009; Mohammed et al., 2011; Rico et al., 2016). However, the gas chromatography (GC) procedure required to obtain the MFA

personnel (Capuano et al., 2014), and is, therefore, unsuitable for large scale measurements. Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (**FTIR**), on the other hand, is a rapid, cost-effective, and high-throughput technique. Currently, major milk components such as fat, protein, lactose,

profiles is time consuming, labor intensive, and requires expensive instruments and trained

and urea are routinely measured with FTIR by milk recording organizations. Diverse milk phenotypes can be estimated by FTIR, as illustrated by De Marchi et al. (2014), including MFA composition (e.g., Rutten et al., 2009; Soyeurt et al., 2011), milk protein composition (Bonfatti et al., 2011), technological properties of milk (DeMarchi et al., 2009), and cow health and energy status (Van Knegsel et al., 2010; McParland et al., 2011).

Dehareng et al. (2012) and Vanlierde et al. (2015) used FTIR to predict CH₄ emission of dairy cattle. The reported prediction accuracy of the models developed for CH₄ emission was high in both studies, with an cross validated coefficient of determination ranging from 0.68 to 0.79. However, the CH₄ predictions of Dehareng et al. (2012) at different stages of lactation were not biologically meaningful, whereas Vanlierde et al. (2015) demonstrated that a lactation stage dependent CH₄ prediction model was more robust and biologically more meaningful. The CH₄ prediction potential of FTIR spectra seems moderate (reviewed by Van Gastelen and Dijkstra, 2016), which is based on experiments only using the SF₆-tracer technique to measure CH₄ emission. More recently, Shetty et al. (2017) demonstrated low prediction accuracy (coefficient of determination for validation being 0.13) for CH₄ emission (in L/d) when models were obtained using FTIR spectra and CH₄ emission measured by the sniffer method in automated milking stations. To date, no research has assessed the CH₄ prediction potential of milk FTIR spectra for CH₄ data obtained in climate respiration chambers and for all 3 units of CH₄ emission, viz. CH₄ production (in g/d), CH₄ yield (in g/kg dry matter intake; **DMI**), and CH₄ intensity (in g/kg fat- and protein-corrected milk; **FPCM**). The objective of the present study was to compare the prediction potential for CH₄ production, yield, and intensity of milk FTIR spectra with that of the GC-determined MFA profile, using CH₄ data obtained in climate respiration chambers.

96

97

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Data collection

Data from 9 studies, designed as randomized block experiments, from Wageningen University & Research (Wageningen, The Netherlands) were used (Table 1). The experiments were conducted in accordance with Dutch law and approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of Wageningen University & Research. The 9 studies represented 30 dietary treatments and 218 individual observations from lactating Holstein-Friesian cows. The dataset included multiple observations from a small number of dairy cows (218 individual observations from 189 unique dairy cows). We consider these particular observations as unique and not as repeated measurements, because of the large differences in conditions between the observations of the same dairy cows (i.e., different experiment, different dietary treatment, different parity, and different lactation stage). The experimental setup was similar for all experiments. After an adaptation period of 12 d, cows were housed individually in open circuit, indirect climate respiration chambers (described by Van Gastelen et al., 2015) for a 5 d period to determine CH4 emission (expressed as production, yield, and intensity). Diets were fed twice daily and intake was restricted to 95% of the voluntarily DMI of the cow consuming the least within a block.

Cows were milked twice daily and water was freely available during the entire

Cows were milked twice daily and water was freely available during the entire experiment. While housed in the climate respiration chambers, milk yield was recorded and representative milk samples (i.e., 5 g/kg of milk production from each cow) were collected at each milking according to Van Gastelen et al. (2015). These milk samples were pooled per period and cow and subsequently analyzed for MFA composition (g/100 g FA) using GC as described by Van Gastelen et al. (2015). The pooled milk samples were also analyzed in the laboratory of Qlip B.V. (Zutphen, the Netherlands) to determine the content of fat, protein, and lactose according to regular test-day procedures using MilkoScan FT 6000 equipment with diamond cuvettes (Foss Analytical A/S, Hillerød, Denmark) using the manufacturer supplied basic calibration models in conformity with ISO 9622 (International Organization for

Standardization, 2013). The applied reference methods were ISO 1211 (International Organization for Standardization, 2010) for fat, ISO 8968-1 (International Organization for Standardization, 2014) for total protein, and an HPLC method based on ISO 22662 (International Organization for Standardization, 2007) for lactose. The FTIR absorption spectra consisted of 1060 infrared frequencies (wavenumbers) representing infrared light absorption through the milk samples ranging from 925 to 5008 cm⁻¹.

Statistical analyses

Model development GC-determined MFA. Multivariate models were developed using a stepwise procedure (PROC GLMSELECT of SAS; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA, version 9.2) with CH₄ emission (i.e., production, yield, and intensity) as the independent variable and stepwise selection of only GC-determined MFA (g/100 g total fatty acids). The significance level for a GC-determined MFA to enter or stay in the model was 0.01 and 0.05, respectively. The final models were selected based on the minimum Akaike's information criterion statistic. The selected models were evaluated in PROC REG in terms of multicollinearity (variation inflation factor > 10), but no multicollinearity was observed.

Model development FTIR. Prediction models for CH₄ production, yield, and intensity were developed only on pre-processed data of selected wavenumbers as linear regression models using Partial Least Squares (PLS) calculated with the SIMPLS algorithm of the PLS toolbox (Eigenvector Research Inc., Manson, WA, USA). In the PLS method, spectroscopic data were reduced to a set of orthogonal, uncorrelated components (viz. latent variables; **LV**). Selected wavenumbers (n = 218) were in the ranges 964 - 1581 cm⁻¹, 1715 – 1773 cm⁻¹, and 2814 - 2968 cm⁻¹. These wavenumbers were selected because these contain valuable information on milk composition and are thus most relevant for milk analysis (Capuano et al., 2014). Additionally, parts of the infrared spectrum that are disturbed by high water absorption

were omitted, because these can interfere with the quantification of other major milk components (Capuano et al., 2014). The selected wavenumbers were pre-processed by applying the Savitzky-Golay (Savitzky and Golay,1964), first derivative with polynomial order 2 and window width 7, and subsequently mean centered.

Model evaluation. All CH₄ prediction models, GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based, were evaluated using 2 methods. Firstly, the mean square error of prediction (**MSEP**), calculated as

155
$$MSEP = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (O_i - P_i)^2 / n,$$

where n is the total number of observations, O_i is the observed value and P_i is the predicted value. The square root of the MSEP (**RMSEP**) gives an estimate of the overall error of prediction and is expressed as percentage of the observed mean or expressed in g/d, g/kg DMI, and g/kg FPCM for CH₄ production, yield, and intensity, respectively. Secondly, concordance correlation coefficient analysis (**CCC**; Lin, 1989) was performed, where CCC is calculated as

161
$$CCC = r \times C_b$$
,

where r is the correlation coefficient providing a measure of precision, and C_b is a bias correction factor providing a measure of accuracy. The C_b variable is calculated as

$$C_{\rm b} = \frac{2}{[v+1/v+\mu^2]'}$$

165 where

$$v = \frac{S_o}{S_p},$$

$$\mu = \frac{\bar{O} - \bar{P}}{(S_o \times S_p)^{0.5'}}$$

where v provides a measure of scale shift, while μ provides a measure of location shift, S_o and S_p are the observed and predicted standard deviations, and \bar{O} and \bar{P} are the observed and

predicted means. A CCC of 0.20 or lower indicates poor predictive ability, between 0.21 and 0.40 indicates fair predictive ability, between 0.41 and 0.60 indicates moderate predictive ability, between 0.61 and 0.80 indicates substantial predictive ability, and between 0.81 and 1.00 indicates accurate predictive ability (Altman, 1997). Furthermore, the predictive power of the calibration was evaluated through the ratio of performance to deviation (**RPD**) statistic, which is the ratio of the standard deviation of the original data to the standard error of cross validation (Dehareng et al., 2012). The RPD values are preferably as high as possible; RPD values between 5 and 10 are adequate for quality control, process control, and potentially suitable for application (Williams et al., 2014). Additionally, PROC CORR in SAS was used to determine the Pearson correlation between the MFA predicted CH₄ emissions and the FTIR predicted CH₄ emissions.

Cross validation MFA and FTIR. In order to calculate the models performance parameters (i.e., root mean square error of cross validation (RMSECV) and the coefficient of determination of cross validation (R²CV)), we performed a random cross validation with 10 splits and 10 iterations as recommended by Rodriguez et al. (2010) for all MFA and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models. For each iteration, a model was developed as described above using 9 splits of the dataset, and the selected model was subsequently evaluated as described above on the remaining part of the dataset (i.e., 1 split). With this approach, all observations were used for both calibration and validation, and each observation was used for validation exactly once. The cross validation performance values represent the average of the 10-fold cross validation.

This random 10-fold cross validation was also used for selection of the number of LV for the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models. The selected number of LV for the final models was based on the suggestion by PLS toolbox and visual assessment of the graphs of the root means square error of calculation (**RMSEC**) and RMSECV against the number of LV. The number of

LV before the RMSECV starts increasing or the RMSECV starts deviating considerably from the RMSEC was the number selected.

196

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

195

194

197 **RESULTS**

The descriptive statistics of animal performance, dietary characteristics, CH₄ emission, and GC-determined MFA concentrations are presented in Table 2. The GC-determined MFAbased CH₄ production, yield, and intensity prediction models are shown in Table 3. In the final models, considering the odd- and branched-chain fatty acids (OBCFA), CH₄ production was positively associated with C15:0 (P = 0.002), CH₄ yield was positively associated with iso C15:0 and C17:0 (P < 0.003), but negatively associated with anteiso C15:0 (P < 0.001), and CH_4 intensity was positively associated with both iso C15:0 and iso C17:0 (P < 0.001). The relation between CH₄ emissions and the C18:1, C18:2, C18:3 isomers was generally negative (P < 0.010), with the exception of the positive association between CH₄ production and C18:2n-6 (P = 0.005). Additionally, CH₄ production was negatively associated with C24:0 (P = 0.007) and positively associated with C20:4n-3 (P = 0.002), and CH₄ intensity was positively associated with C22:5n-3 (P < 0.001). The FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models are based on the regression between the wavenumbers and CH₄ production, yield, or intensity, as illustrated in Figure 1. Certain wavenumbers were not related with CH₄ emissions (i.e., regression vector close to 0), whereas other wavenumbers were clearly positively or negatively related with CH₄ emissions. Both the strength and the direction (positive or negative) of the correlations as well as the correlated wavenumbers differed between the different units of CH₄ emission (i.e., production, yield, and intensity; Figure 1).

The evaluation results (i.e., R², RMSEP, and CCC analysis) of the GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models are shown in Table 4. The observed versus predicted CH₄ production, yield, and intensity plots of the GC-determined MFA-based and

FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models are shown in Figures 2A and 3A, respectively. The residual (i.e., observed minus predicted) versus predicted CH₄ production, yield, and intensity plots of the GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models are shown in Figures 2B and 3B, respectively. The R², RMSEP (%), and CCC of the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models ranged from 0.40 to 0.62, from 7.1% to 10.9%, and from 0.59 to 0.77, respectively (Table 4). The R², RMSEP (%), and CCC of the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models ranged from 0.25 to 0.56, from 8.2% to 11.8%, and from 0.40 to 0.72, respectively. Based on the CCC, for both GC-determined MFA and FTIR, the prediction model for CH₄ yield had the lowest prediction potential (moderate predicting ability for both MFA and FTIR based models) and the prediction model for CH₄ intensity had the highest prediction potential (substantial predicting ability for both MFA and FTIR based models, respectively). The MFA and FTIR based prediction models for CH₄ production had substantial and moderate predicting ability, respectively. The variation in predicted CH₄ emission was smaller than that in the observed CH_4 emission, in particular for CH_4 yield, as indicated by the variable v (scale shift; the relative difference in standard deviation between predicted and observed values). The scale shift was greater for FTIR-based prediction models (v ranged from 1.33 to 2.00) than for GCdetermined MFA-based prediction models (v ranged from 1.26 to 1.55).

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

The RPD statistic, that relates the standard error of prediction to the standard deviation of the original reference data, was smaller than 1.58 for the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models and smaller than 1.39 for the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models (Table 4), suggesting unsatisfactory prediction ability. The Pearson correlations between GC-determined MFA predicted and FTIR predicted CH₄ production, CH₄ yield, and CH₄ intensity were 0.62 (P < 0.001), 0.51 (P < 0.001), and 0.69 (P < 0.001), respectively (Figure 4).

The results of the internal cross validation of all GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models are also shown in Table 4. The average number of GC-determined

MFA included in the GC-determined MFA internal cross validation models varied between 4 and 5, and the average number of LV in the FTIR internal cross validation models varied between 4 and 6. The R²CV and the RMSECV of the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models ranged from 0.38 to 0.63 and from 8.1% to 11.6%, respectively. The R²CV and the RMSECV of the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models ranged from 0.19 to 0.49 and from 8.6% to 12.8%, respectively.

DISCUSSION

This is the first study evaluating and comparing the CH₄ prediction potential of GC-determined MFA and milk FTIR spectra for CH₄ data obtained in climate respiration chambers. Data were obtained from dairy cattle experiments where type of forage, forage quality, and forage to concentrate ratio were varied, without use of CH₄ mitigating additives. Our results indicate that the GC-determined MFA-based prediction models had a higher prediction potential than the FTIR-based models and described a larger amount of the observed variation in CH₄ emission.

GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models

All CH₄ prediction models were based on OBCFA and long chain fatty acids (> 16 carbons). No short- and medium-straight, even-chain fatty acids (\leq 16 carbons) were included in any of the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models, despite the fact that these are synthesized *de novo* in the mammary gland from acetate and β -hydroxybutyrate produced in the rumen, which are both reported to be positively associated with CH₄ emission (Ellis et al., 2008). As reviewed by Van Gastelen and Dijkstra et al. (2016), these short- and medium-straight, even-chain fatty acids were usually not included in the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction equations (n = 6) previously developed, except for C4:0 and C16:0 that were

oBCFA in the current study is in agreement with *iso* OBCFA being more abundant in fibrolytic bacteria and *anteiso* OBCFA being more abundant in amylolytic bacteria (Vlaeminck et al., 2006). Both C15:0 and C17:0 were found to be positively associated with CH₄ emissions, which is in disagreement with Vlaeminck et al. (2006) and Rico et al. (2016), but in agreement with Chilliard et al. (2009), Dijkstra et al. (2011) and Van Lingen et al. (2014). The negative relations between C18:1, C18:2, and C18:3 isomers in milk and CH₄ emission are in agreement with several other studies (e.g., Van Lingen et al., 2014 and Rico et al., 2016). The associations between CH₄ emissions and long-chain fatty acids have been reported before (i.e., Chilliard et al., 2009; Rico et al., 2016; Van Gastelen et al., 2017a), suggesting that these GC-determined MFA are important in terms of CH₄ prediction.

In general, the prediction potential of the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models appears to be moderate to substantial, with the CCC ranging from 0.40 to 0.77. The observed R² values ranged from 0.40 to 0.62 and are lower than the ones reported by Dijkstra et al. (2011) for CH₄ yield, and by Chilliard et al. (2009), Mohammed et al. (2011), and Rico et al. (2016) for CH₄ production, but of similar magnitude as Van Lingen et al. (2014) and Van Gastelen et al. (2017a). The recent research, including the present study, on the relationship between GC-determined MFA and CH₄ emission gives inconsistent results. Where some studies found a clear and strong relation between GC-determined MFA and CH₄ emission (e.g., Chilliard et al., 2009, Dijkstra et al., 2011), other studies concluded that GC-determined MFA alone might not be suitable to develop universal CH₄ prediction models (e.g., Mohammed et al., 2011), and more recently, Castro-Montoya et al. (2017) concluded that GC-determined MFA are not reliable predictors for specific amounts of CH₄ emitted by a cow based on the coefficient of determination of validation ranging from 0.18 to 0.41. Even the studies that do find a clear relation between GC-determined MFA and CH₄ emissions, do not describe similar

prediction models using the same GC-determined MFA. The discrepancies between these studies have been reviewed by Van Gastelen and Dijkstra (2016). There are many factors that can influence GC-determined MFA concentrations and therefore the relation between GC-determined MFA and CH₄ emissions (Gengler et al., 2016), such as dietary composition (e.g., Mohammed et al., 2011 and Dijkstra et al., 2016) and lactation stage (Vanrobays et al., 2016). Moreover, it should be noted that previous analyses were often based on data of cattle fed lipid supplements or feed additives, whereas in the present study dietary contrasts included variation in forage to concentrate ratio, type of forage, and forage quality only.

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

The difference between R² and R²CV for the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models was small (0.07 for CH₄ production, 0.02 for CH₄ yield, and 0.01 for CH₄ intensity; Table 4). These small differences indicate that all GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models are robust in terms of CH₄ prediction. The GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models were also assessed for robustness in terms of composition of the prediction models. All 4 GC-determined MFA that were part of the overall prediction model for CH₄ intensity (Table 3) were also selected in the prediction models developed in the 10-fold cross validation (results not shown). Three of the 4 GC-determined MFA were included in all 10 models (i.e., iso C15:0, iso C17:0, and C18:1 trans-15 + C18:1 cis-11), which shows the robustness of the GCdetermined MFA-based prediction model for CH₄ intensity in terms of composition. In comparison, all 6 GC-determined MFA of the MFA-based prediction model for CH₄ yield were selected in the 10-fold cross validation. Although only 1 GC-determined MFA of the GCdetermined MFA-based model (i.e., C18:3n-3) was included in all 10 models of the cross validation, the other 5 GC-determined MFA were included in 6 to 8 of the 10 models. However, of the 8 GC-determined MFA in MFA-based prediction model for CH₄ production, only 5 were also selected in the 10-fold cross validation of which 1 GC-determined MFA (i.e., C18:3n-3) was included in all 10 models. Moreover, 3 of the GC-determined MFA in the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ production prediction model were not selected in any of the 10 models of the cross validation (i.e., C18:1 *trans*-10, C18:2n-6, and C20:4n-3). This illustrates that the GC-determined MFA-based prediction model for CH₄ production in particular is less robust in comparison to the GC-determined MFA-based prediction model for CH₄ intensity and CH₄ yield.

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

319

320

321

322

323

FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models

In general, the prediction potential of the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models appears to be moderate to substantial, with the CCC ranging from 0.40 to 0.72 and the R² ranging from 0.25 to 0.56. From the regression vector (Figure 1) it appears that bands around 975 cm⁻¹, 1,075 $-1,150 \text{ cm}^{-1}, 1,450 \text{ cm}^{-1}, 1,500 - 1,575 \text{ cm}^{-1}, 1,750 \text{ cm}^{-1}, \text{ and } 2,850 - 3,000 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ are important}$ for the prediction of CH₄ emissions. The latter region, and the bands around 1,175 cm⁻¹ and 1,750 cm⁻¹ are commonly used to quantify milk fat content (Safar et al., 1994; Dupuy et al., 1996; Yang and Irudayaraj, 2000). Protein is expected to have absorption peaks around wavenumbers 1,500 to 1,700 cm-1 (Osborn and Fearn, 1986; McQueen et al., 1995; Dufour et al., 1998), with the bands around 1,500 – 1,575 cm⁻¹ coinciding with the amide II band (Etzion et al., 2004). Additionally, the infrared region between 1,000 – 1,100 cm⁻¹ provides information on sugar molecules (Hashimoto and Kameoka, 2008). This suggests that the bands of the FTIR spectra which are important to determine the milk composition, such as fat and protein content, are also important for the prediction of CH₄ emission. However, as illustrated by Negussie et al. (2017), milk fat and milk protein content have low CH₄ prediction potential. This is also observed in the present study, in which milk protein and milk fat contents were relatively weakly associated with CH₄ emissions measured in the climate respiration chambers, except for CH₄ intensity for which the calculation includes milk fat and protein contents. Methane yield was correlated with fat content (r = 0.17, P = 0.010) and tended to be related to protein

content (r = 0.12, P = 0.066), whereas no significant correlations were observed for CH₄ production. However, as expected from the similarity in FTIR spectra bands, FTIR predicted CH₄ emissions were more strongly related to milk protein content (r = 0.11, P = 0.096 for CH₄ production; r = 0.32, P < 0.001 for CH₄ yield; r = 0.64, P < 0.001 for CH₄ intensity) and to milk fat content (r = -0.11, P = 0.094 for CH₄ production; r = 0.37, P < 0.001 for CH₄ yield; r = 0.13, P = 0.053 for CH₄ intensity).

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

The differences between R² and R²CV for the milk FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models were 0.06 for CH₄ production, 0.06 for CH₄ yield, and 0.07 for CH₄ intensity (Table 4). For CH₄ yield and intensity, these differences between R² and R²CV of FTIR-based models are somewhat larger than for GC-determined MFA-based models, indicating that GC-determined MFA-based models are slightly more robust. The number of studies on FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models is limited. Deharing et al. (2012) reported FTIR-based prediction models for both CH₄ production and CH₄ intensity (g/kg milk) using the SF₆-tracer technique, involving 11 lactating dairy cows and 3 dietary treatments. The prediction potentials of the FTIR-based prediction models reported by Dehareng et al. (2012) were higher than the ones reported in the present study, with the R² ranging from 0.77 to 0.93 and the R²CV ranging from 0.68 to 0.79. Additionally, Vanlierde et al. (2015) developed both lactation stage independent (i.e., including only FTIR spectra) and lactation stage dependent (i.e., including FTIR spectra and days in milk) CH₄ prediction models using the SF₆-tracer technique involving 142 lactating dairy cows fed a wide range of diets. Vanlierde et al. (2015) reported, for the lactation stage independent CH₄ prediction model (i.e., comparable to present study), a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.77$) between observed and predicted CH₄ production, which is also higher than that in the present study. However, the previous studies developed FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models using multiple measurements of the same cows in a shorter time frame than in our study. Consequently, cows were in a rather same lactation stage and parity and received the same dietary treatment. The study of Dehareng et al. (2012) involved 11 dairy cows, whereas the prediction models were developed using 77 observations (i.e., 7.00 observations per individual), and the study of Vanlierde et al. (2015) involved 142 dairy cows, while the prediction models were developed using 446 observations (i.e., 3.14 observations per individual). This could have positively influenced the performance parameters of their CH₄ prediction models, as repeated measures are generally more closely related than independent observations. Contrary, the present study involved multiple distinct measurements of a limited number of cows (i.e., out of 189 individual dairy cows, 29 cows had 2 observations; 1.15 observations per individual). These observations on the same individual are considered as separate measurements because they were obtained at a different parity and lactation stage as well as a different dietary treatment. Furthermore, the large range of CH₄ emissions measured using the SF₆-tracer technique might have contributed to the high prediction potentials found in both studies. In Dehareng et al. (2012) CH₄ production ranged from 218 to 653 g/d and CH₄ intensity ranged from 10.2 to 47.1 g/kg milk, and in Vanlierde et al. (2015) CH₄ production ranged from approximately 180 to 950 g/d, which are not within the range of CH₄ measurements reported in literature (Appuhamy et al., 2016).

More recently, Shetty et al. (2017) concluded that it is not feasible to predict CH₄ emission based on FTIR spectra alone, because of the low prediction accuracies found when models were obtained using FTIR spectra and because of the marginal added value of FTIR spectra in combination with traits such as milk yield and lactation stage. Hence, there is a considerable discrepancy between the results obtained in the present study and the three aforementioned studies. This discrepancy might be the results of different CH₄ emission measurement techniques (i.e., climate respiration chambers, SF₆-tracer technique, and the sniffer technique), the size as well as the structure of the population [i.e., ranging from 11 dairy cows in Dehareng et al. (2012) to 490 dairy cows in Shetty et al. (2017)], the prediction and validation methods

(i.e., internal cross validation and external validation), and the duration of measurement and the time between CH₄ measurements and milk FTIR sampling (Shetty et al., 2017).

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

393

394

Comparison of GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models

For all CH₄ emission units, but particularly for CH₄ production and CH₄ yield, GCdetermined MFA-based prediction models had a higher prediction potential than the FTIRbased models. This is evident by the lower RMSEP values and higher R² and CCC values. The higher CCC values are caused by the higher accuracy (C_b) and, in particular, higher precision (r) of the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models (Table 4). The relatively larger differences between the GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based prediction models for CH₄ production and CH₄ yield might be explained by GC-determined MFA being more closely linked to the ruminal CH₄ production pathways than FTIR spectra. It is known that GCdetermined MFA are related to CH₄ production because of the common biochemical pathway between CH₄ and fatty acids in the rumen (Chilliard et al., 2009; Ellis et al., 2008). As discussed above, the FTIR spectra represent the absorbed light by vibrations at several wavelengths of many milk components, including GC-determined MFA, urea, citrate, free fatty acids, and fat, protein, and lactose content. The latter 3 solid major milk components have a low CH₄ prediction potential (Negussie et al., 2017) and do not seem to be directly linked with ruminal CH₄ pathways. The relatively small difference between the GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR based prediction models for CH₄ intensity might be explained by the fact that CH₄ intensity takes milk yield into account, which is directly associated with enteric CH₄ production by cows and reflected by both the FTIR spectral data and the GC-determined MFA profile, due to dilution effects (Dehareng et al., 2012). This is also illustrated by the somewhat stronger correlation between GC-determined MFA predicted CH₄ intensity and FTIR predicted CH₄

intensity (r = 0.69), compared with the correlation between both methods for CH₄ production (r = 0.62) and CH₄ yield (r = 0.51).

All CH₄ prediction models, both GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based, had a scale shift which was different from 1 (v > 1.26). This indicates that there is a change in standard deviation between predicted and observed CH₄ values for all CH₄ prediction models, which is also visualized in Figures 2 and 3 for GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based models, respectively. The variation in predicted CH₄ values was clearly smaller than that in observed CH₄ values for all CH₄ prediction models. However, the scale shift was greater for all the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models (v ranges from 1.33 to 2.00) than for the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models (v ranges from 1.26 to 1.55), which indicates that GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models have the ability to describe more of the observed variation in CH₄ emissions compared with FTIR-based prediction models.

The RPD values from the present study are lower than the RPD values reported by Dehareng et al. (2012). The low RPD values from the present study (i.e., < 1.58 for the GC-determined MFA based CH₄ prediction models and < 1.39 for the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models), suggest that the prediction ability of these models can be regarded as poor (Williams et al., 2014). According to Williams and Sobering (1993) a RPD value of 2.5 and above would suggest that the model is satisfactory for screening. A narrow range in the variability of the observations is known to negatively affect predictability of methods of interest (Manley, 2014). Indeed, the coefficient of variation (SD relative to mean) is highest for CH₄ intensity (17.9%) and the models for CH₄ intensity had relatively the best RPD. The lowest coefficient of variation is for CH₄ yield (9.3%) and the models for CH₄ yield had the smallest RPD values. Moreover, although the respiration chamber method is generally considered to be the golden standard for CH₄ measurements (Hammond et al., 2016), its reproducibility as compared with many chemical analyses for which the RPD statistic was originally developed, is much lower, hence

reducing prediction accuracy of the prediction methods. The RPD values would suggest that the CH₄ prediction models presented in the current study, both GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based, would not be able to classify dairy cows from populations with low variation in CH₄ emission into low and high CH₄ producers. More variation in the dairy population under evaluation, such as greater variation in animal genetics, in dietary composition, and in production management, could potentially improve the ability of the models to predict CH₄ emission (Dehareng et al., 2012).

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

It is important to note though, that the present study did not take lactation stage into account. Although lactation stage is a poor CH₄ proxy when considered alone (Negussie et al., 2017), Vanlierde et al. (2015) demonstrated that lactation stage in combination with FTIR improved the CH₄ prediction model. Vanlierde et al. (2015) developed both lactation stageindependent and lactation stage-dependent CH₄ prediction models. The average CH₄ production (g/d) predicted by both models was similar (416 \pm 63 g/d). However, in contrast to the lactation stage-independent prediction model, the lactation stage-dependent prediction model showed biologically meaningful behavior throughout lactation: an increase in CH₄ production (g/d) after calving up to approximately 100 DIM, followed by a gradual decline towards the end of lactation (Vanlierde et al., 2015). This effect of lactation stage could also be important for the MFA-based CH₄ prediction models, because Vanrobays et al. (2016) clearly demonstrated that the correlations between GC-determined MFA and CH₄ production in dairy cows vary according to lactation stage. We therefore acknowledge that the CH₄ prediction models of the present study may be improved in terms of predictive power and robustness, when combining GC-determined MFA or FTIR with lactation stage. We were, however, not able to confirm this, because differences in lactation stage were confounded by differences in dietary composition in the dataset used in the present study. Additionally, it should be noted that this study was based on 9 experiments with forage-based diets only (forage varied between 700 and 850 g/kg DM). Furthermore, the milk production of the cows did not exceed 36.8 kg/d, and all cows were restricted in their feed intake to avoid confounding effects of DMI on CH₄ production. Hence, the area of validity of the CH₄ prediction models that have been established in this study, is limited to these conditions.

Application of CH₄ prediction models in practice

In the present study, we show that GC-determined MFA have a higher prediction potential for CH₄ emissions than FTIR spectra. However, the gas chromatography procedure required to obtain the GC-determined MFA profile is unsuitable for routine milk recording, whereas the prediction of CH₄ emission using FTIR has the potential for practical high throughput application.

Although the RPD results suggest that the GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models currently have limited applicability, the CCC results demonstrated that the models had at least moderate predictive ability. Potential practical applications for these models include: (1) as a farm management tool, (2) to evaluate CH₄ mitigation strategies, and (3) as a tool to breed for dairy cows with lower CH₄ emissions (Cottle et al., 2011). When a dietary strategy is applied in practice, the proxy for CH₄ emission should be able to evaluate whether CH₄ emission is affected by the new dietary strategy. Therefore, within each study that had at least 2 dietary treatments, we evaluated whether the GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models were able to estimate the same difference in CH₄ emission as measured in the climate respiration chambers, by comparing CH₄ emission at 2 extreme diets (i.e., furthest apart from one another in terms of dietary composition). The results of this evaluation are shown in Table 5. In general, all CH₄ prediction models predicted a difference in CH₄ emission similar to the climate respiration chambers in terms of trend (i.e., increase or decrease). There were only a few exceptions, viz. two for the GC-determined MFA-based and

five for the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models. Furthermore, the differences in CH₄ emission between the two diets as estimated by the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models were generally more in line with the observed differences as measured in the climate respiration chambers, than that of the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models compared with the difference measured in climate respiration chambers. This suggests that the FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models might have less accuracy relative to the GC-determined MFA-based CH₄ prediction models, both based on a single FTIR or a single GC measurement to determine the MFA profile of a 4-day combined milk sample, to evaluate the effect of forage level and quality on CH₄ emission of dairy cattle.

Breeding for reduced CH₄ emission can be achieved with, for example, improved productivity, increased longevity, or shorter calving interval (Bell et al., 2011), but also by breeding for actual lower enteric CH₄ production (Wall et al., 2010). Several studies have shown that CH₄ emissions of dairy cows have a genetic component, with heritability ranging from 0.20 to 0.30 (e.g., De Haas et al., 2011 for predicted CH₄ emission based on feed intake; Lassen and Løvendahl, 2016 for CH₄ emission measured with a portable air-sampler), indicating that breeding for dairy cows with lower CH₄ emission may be possible. Recently, Vanlierde et al. (2016) reported that FTIR can distinguish cows with low or high daily CH₄ emissions. Direct breeding for lower enteric CH₄ production requires CH₄ production measurements of a large number of individual dairy cows to determine the genetic component of the CH₄ phenotype as well as to determine the genetic correlations of CH₄ emissions with other traits. Although the feasibility needs to be assessed in actual commercial environments before implementation, the FTIR technique has the potential to assist in breeding for reduced CH₄ emission as it can be used routinely to estimate CH₄ on commercial dairy farms.

CONCLUSIONS

This study is the first to assess and compare the CH₄ emission prediction potential of both GC-determined MFA profiles and FTIR spectra based on CH₄ emission data obtained in climate respiration chambers and for three different units of CH₄ emission, viz. CH₄ production, yield, and intensity. For both GC-determined MFA and FTIR, the prediction model for CH₄ yield had the lowest prediction potential and the prediction model for CH₄ intensity had the highest prediction potential. For all CH₄ emission units, but particularly for CH₄ production and yield, GC-determined MFA-based prediction models had a higher prediction potential than the FTIR-based models, and GC-determined MFA-based prediction models described a greater part of the observed variation in CH₄ emission than FTIR-based models. Results indicate that the current GC-determined MFA-based and FTIR-based CH₄ prediction models have potential, but have limited current applicability. Additional CH₄ measurements are needed to improve prediction models in terms of accuracy and robustness of both GC-determined MFA and FTIR spectra for CH₄ prediction.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge the project "Low Emission Animal Feed", which received financial support of the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs (The Hague, the Netherlands), Product Board Animal Feed (Zoetermeer, the Netherlands), and the Dutch Dairy Board (Zoetermeer, the Netherlands).

542	REFERENCES
543	Altman, D. G. 1997. Practical Statistics for Medical Research. Chapman & Hall, London.
544	Appuhamy, J. A. D. R. N, J. France, and E. Kebreab. 2016. Models for predicting enteric methane emissions from
545	dairy cows in North America, Europe, and Australia and New Zealand. Global Change Biol. 22:3039-3056.
546	Bell, M. J., E. Wall, G. Russell, G. Simm, and A. W. Stott. 2011. The effect of improving cow productivity,
547	fertility, and longevity on the global warming potential of dairy systems. J. Dairy Sci. 94:3662–3678.
548	Bonfatti, V., G. Di Martino, and P. Carnier. 2011. Effectiveness of mid-infrared spectroscopy for the prediction of
549	detailed protein composition and contents of protein genetic variants of individual milk of Simmental cows.
550	J. Dairy Sci. 94:5776-5785.
551	Capuano, E., J. Rademaker, H. van den Bijgaart, and S. M. van Ruth. 2014. Verification of fresh grass feeding,
552	pasture grazing and organic farming by FTIR spectroscopy analysis of bovine milk. Food Res. Int. 60:59-
553	65.
554	Castro-Montoya, J. M., N. Pieren, J. Veneman, B. De Baets, S. De Campeneere, and V. Fievez. 2017. Predictions
555	of methane emission levels and categories based on milk fatty acid profiles from dairy cows. Animal
556	11:1153-1162.
557	Chilliard, Y., C. Martin, J. Roual, and M. Doreau. 2009. Milk fatty acids in dairy cows fed whole crude linseed,
558	extruded linseed, or linseed oil, and their relationship with methane output. J. Dairy Sci. 92:5199-5211.
559	Cottle, D. J., J. V. Nolan, and S. G. Wiedemann. 2011. Ruminant enteric methane mitigation: a review. Anim.
560	Prod. Sci. 51:491-514.
561	CVB (2012). Chemische samenstellingen en nutritionele waarden van voedermiddelen (in Dutch). The Hague,
562	Netherlands, CVB (Centraal Veevoederbureau).
563	De Haas, Y., J. J. Windig, M. P. L. Calus, J. Dijkstra, M. de Haan, A. Bannink, and R. F. Veerkamp. 2011. Genetic
564	parameters for predicted methane production and potential for reducing enteric emissions through genomic
565	selection. J. Dairy Sci. 94:6122–6134.
566	Dehareng, F., C. Delfosse, E. Froidmont, H. Soyeurt, C. Martin, N. Gengler, A. Vanlierde, and P. Dardenne. 2012.
567	Potential use of milk mid-infrared spectra to predict individual methane emission of dairy cows. Animal
568	6:1694-1701.
569	De Marchi, M., C. C. Fagan, C. P. O'Donnell, A. Cecchinato, R. Dal Zotto, M. Cassandro, M. Penasa, and G.
570	Bittante. 2009. Prediction of coagulation properties, titratable acidity, and pH of bovine milk using mid-
571	infrared spectroscopy. J. Dairy Sci. 92:423-432.

- De Marchi, M., V. Toffanin, M. Cassandro, and M. Penasa. 2014. Invited review: mid-infrared spectroscopy as
- phenotyping tool for milk traits. J Dairy Sci 97:1171-1186.
- Dijkstra, J., S. van Gastelen, E. C. Antunes-Fernandes, D. Warner, B. Hatew, G. Klop, S. C. Podesta, H. J. van
- Lingen, K. A. Hettinga, and A. Bannink. 2016. Relationships between milk fatty acid profiles and enteric
- methane production in dairy cattle fed grass- or grass silage-based diets. Anim. Prod. Sci. 56:541-548.
- 577 Dijkstra, J., S. M. van Zijderveld, J. A. Apajalahti, A. Bannink, W. J. J. Gerrits, J. R. Newbold, H. B. Perdok, and
- H. Berends. 2011. Relationships between methane production and milk fatty acid profiles in dairy cattle.
- 579 Anim. Feed Sci. Technol. 166-167:590-595.
- Dufour, E., P. Robert, D. Renard, and L. Llamas. 1998. Investigation of β-lactoglobulin gelation in water/ethanol
- 581 solutions. Int. Dairy J. 8:87-93.
- Dupuy, N., L. Duponchel, J. P. Huvenne, B. Sombret, and P. Legrand. 1996. Classification of edible fats and oils
- by principal component analysis of Fourier transform infrared spectra. Food Chem. 57:245-251.
- Ellis, J. L., J. Dijkstra, E. Kebreab, A. Bannink, N. E. Odongo, B. W. McBride, and J. France. 2008. Aspects of
- rumen microbiology central to mechanistic modelling of methane production in cattle. J. Agric. Sci.
- 586 146:213-233.
- 587 Etzion, Y., R. Linker, U. Cogan, and I. Shmulevich. 2004. Determination of protein concentration in raw milk by
- 588 mid-infrared Fourier transform infrared/attenuated total reflectance spectroscopy. J. Dairy Sci. 87:2779-
- 589 2788.
- 590 Gengler, N., H. Soyeurt, F. Dehareng, C. Bastin, F. Colinet, H. Hammami, M.-L. Vanrobays, A. Lainé, S.
- 591 Vanderick, C. Grelet, A. Vanlierde, E. Froidmont, and P. Dardenne. 2016. Capitalizing on fine milk
- 592 composition for breeding and management of dairy cows. J. Dairy Sci. 99:4071-4079.
- 593 Gerber, P. J., H. Steinfeld, B. Henderson, A. Mottet, C. Opio, J. Dijkman, A. Falcucci, and G. Tempio. 2013.
- Tackling climate change through livestock A global assessment of emissions and mitigation opportunities.
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), Rome.
- 596 Hammond, K. J., L. A. Crompton, A. Bannink, J. Dijkstra, D. R. Yáñez-Ruiz, P. O'Kiely, E. Kebreab, M. A.
- 597 Eugène, Z. Yu, K. J. Shingfield, A. Schwarm, A. N. Hristov, and C. K. Reynolds. 2016. Review of current
- in vivo measurement techniques for quantifying enteric methane emission from ruminants. Anim. Feed Sci.
- 599 Technol. 219:13-30.
- Hashimoto, A., and T. Kameoka. 2008. Application of infrared spectroscopy to biochemical, food, and agricultural
- processes. Appl. Spectrosc. Rev. 43:416-451.

Hatew, B., A. Bannink, H. van Laar, L. H. de Jonge, and J. Dijkstra. 2016. Increasing harvest maturity of whole-602 603 plant corn silage reduced methane emission of lactating dairy cows. J. Dairy Sci. 99:354-368. International Organization for Standardization. 2007. ISO 22662:2007 (IDF 198:2007). Milk and milk products -604 605 Determination of lactose content by high-performance liquid chromatography (Reference method). 606 International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, Switzerland. 607 International Organization for Standardization. 2010. ISO 1211:2010. Milk - Determination of fat content -608 Gravimetric method (Reference method). International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, 609 Switzerland. International Organization for Standardization. 2013. ISO 9622:2013. Milk and liquid milk products - Guidelines 610 611 for the application of mid-infrared spectrometry. International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, 612 Switzerland. 613 International Organization for Standardization. 2014. ISO 8968-1:2014. Milk and milk products - Determination 614 of nitrogen content - Part 1: Kjeldahl principle and crude protein calculation. International Organization for 615 Standardization, Geneva, Switzerland. Klop, G., B. Hatew, A. Bannink, and J. Dijkstra. 2016. Feeding nitrate and docosahexaenoic acid affects enteric 616 methane production and milk fatty acid composition in lactating dairy cows. J. Dairy Sci. 99:1161-1172. 617 Klop, G., J. Dijkstra, K. Dieho, W. H. Hendriks, and A. Bannink. 2017. Enteric methane production in lactating 618 619 dairy cows with continuous feeding of essential oils or rotational feeding of essential oils and lauric acid.. 620 J. Dairy Sci. 100:3563-3575. 621 Knapp, J. R., G. L. Laur, P. A. Vadas, W. P. Weiss, and J. M. Tricarico. 2014. Invited review: Enteric methane 622 in dairy cattle production: Quantifying the opportunities and impact of reducing emissions. J. Dairy Sci. 97:3231-3261. 623 Lassen, J., and P. Løvendahl. 2016. Heritability estimates for enteric methane emissions from Holstein cattle 624 625 measured using noninvasive methods. J. Dairy Sci. 99:1959-1967. 626 Lin, L. I. K. 1989. A concordance correlation coefficient to evaluate reproducibility. Biometrics 45:255-268. Manley, M. 2014. Near-infrared spectroscopy and hyperspectral imaging: non-destructive analysis of biological 627 628 materials. Chem. Soc. Rev. 43:8200. McParland, S., G. Banos, E. Wall, M.P. Coffey, H. Soyeurt, R. F. Veerkamp, and D. P. Berry. 2011. The use of 629

mid-infrared spectrometry to predict body energy status of Holstein cows. J. Dairy Sci. 94:3651-3661.

- 631 McQueen, D. H., R. Wilson, A. Kinnunen, and E. P. Jensen 1995. Comparison of two infrared spectroscopic
- methods for cheese analysis. Talanta 42:2007-2015.
- Mohammed, R., S. M. McGinn, and K. A. Beauchemin. 2011. Prediction of enteric methane output from milk
- fatty acid concentrations and rumen fermentation parameters in dairy cows fed sunflower, flax, or canola
- 635 seeds. J. Dairy Sci. 94:6057-6068.
- Negussie, E., Y. de Haas, F. Dehareng, R. Dewhurst, J. Dijkstra, N. Gengler, D. P. Morgavi, H. Soyeurt, S. van
- Gastelen, T. Yan, and F. Biscarini. 2017. Invited review: Large-scale indirect measurements for enteric
- 638 methane emissions in dairy cattle: A review of proxies and their potential for use in management and
- 639 breeding decisions. J. Dairy Sci. 100:2433-2453.
- Osborne, B.G., and T. Fearn. 1986. Near Infrared Spectroscopy in Food Analysis. Longman, Harlow, UK.
- Rico, D. E., P. Y. Chouinard, F. Hassanat, C. Benchaar, and R. Gervais. 2016. Prediction of enteric methane
- emissions from Holstein dairy cows fed various forage sources. Animal 10:203-211.
- Rodriguez, J. D., A. Pérez, and J. A. Lozano. 2010. Sensitivity analysis of k-fold cross validation in prediction
- error estimation. IEEE Transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence 32:569-575.
- Rutten, M. J. M., H. Bovenhuis, K. A. Hettinga, H. J. F. van Valenberg, and J. A. M. van Arendonk. 2009.
- Predicting bovine milk fat composition using infrared spectroscopy based on milk samples collected in
- 647 winter and summer. J. Dairy Sci. 92:6202-6209.
- Safar, M., D. Bertrand, P. Roberts, M. F. Devaux, and C. Genot. 1994. Characterization of edible oils, butters and
- margarines by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy with attenuated total reflectance. J. American Oil
- Chemists' Society 71:371.
- Savitzky, A., and M. J. E. Golay. 1964. Smoothing and differentiation of data by simplified least squares
- 652 procedures. Anal. Chem. 36:1627–1638.
- 653 Shetty, N., G. Difford, J. Lassen, P. Løvendahl, and A. J. Buitenhuis. 2017. Predicting methane emissions of
- 654 lactating Danish Holstein cows using Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy of milk. J. Dairy Sci.
- 655 100:9052-9060.
- 656 Soyeurt, H., F. Dehareng, N. Gengler, S. McParland, E. Wall, D. P. Berry, M. Coffey, and P. Dardenne. 2011.
- 657 Mid-infrared prediction of bovine milk fatty acids across multiple breeds, production systems, and
- 658 countries. J. Dairy Sci. 94:1657-1667.
- Van Gastelen, S., and J. Dijkstra. 2016. Prediction of methane emission from lactating dairy cows using milk fatty
- acids and mid-infrared spectroscopy. J. Sci. Food Agric. 96:3963-3968.

- Van Gastelen, S., E. C. Antunes-Fernandes, K. A. Hettinga, G. Klop, S. J. J. Alferink, W. H. Hendriks, J. Dijkstra. 661 2015. Enteric methane production, rumen volatile fatty acid concentrations, and milk fatty acid composition 662 in lactating Holstein-Friesian cows fed grass silage- or corn silage-based diets. J. Dairy Sci. 98:1915-1927. 663 664 Van Gastelen, S., E. C. Antunes-Fernandes, K. A. Hettinga, and J. Dijkstra. 2017a. Relationships between methane 665 emission of Holstein Friesian dairy cows and fatty acids, volatile metabolites and non-volatile metabolites 666 in milk. Animal 11:1539-1548. Van Gastelen, S., M. H. P. W. Visker, J. E. Edwards, E. C. Antunes-Fernandes, K. A. Hettinga, S. J. J. Alferink, 667 W. H. Hendriks, H. Bovenhuis, H. Smidt, and J. Dijkstra. 2017b. Linseed oil and DGAT1 K232A 668 polymorphism: effects on methane emission, energy and N metabolism, lactation performance, ruminal 669 670 fermentation, and rumen microbial composition of Holstein-Friesian cows. J. Dairy Sci. 100:8939-8957. Van Knegsel, A. T. M., S. G. A. van der Drift, M. Horneman, A. P. W. de Roos, B. Kemp, and E. A. M. Graat. 671 672 2010. Short communication: Ketone body concentration in milk determined by Fourier transform infrared 673 spectroscopy: Value for the detection of hyperketonemia in dairy cows. J. Dairy Sci. 93:3065-3069. 674 Vanlierde, A., M. L. Vanrobays, F. Dehareng, E. Froidmont, H. Soyeurt, S. McParland, E. Lewis, M. H. Deighton, 675 F. Grandl, M. Kreuzer, B. Grendler, P. Dardenne, and N. Gengler. 2015. Hot topic: Innovative lactationstage-dependent prediction of methane emissions from milk mid-infrared spectra. J. Dairy Sci. 98:5740-676 5747. 677 678 Vanlierde, A., M. L. Vanrobays, N. Gengler, P. Dardenne, E. Froidmont, H. Soyeurt, S. McParland, E. Lewis, M. 679 H. Deighton, M. Mathot, and F. Dehareng. 2016. Milk mid-infrared spectra enable prediction of lactation-680 stage dependent methane emissions of dairy cattle within routine population-scale milk recording schemes. Anim. Prod. Sci. 56:258-264. 681 Van Lingen, H. J., L. A. Crompton, W. H. Hendriks, C. K. Reynolds, and J. Dijkstra. 2014. Meta-analysis of 682 683 relationships between enteric methane yield and milk fatty acid profile in dairy cattle. J. Dairy Sci. 97:7115-684 7132. Van Lingen, H. J., J. E. Edwards, J. D. Vaidya, S. van Gastelen, E. Saccenti, E., B. van den Bogert, A. Bannink, 685
- H. Smidt, C. M. Plugge, and J. Dijkstra, J. 2017. Diurnal dynamics of gaseous and dissolved metabolites
 and microbiota composition in the bovine rumen. Frontiers Microbiol. 8: 425.
 Vanrobays, M.-L., C. Bastin, J. Vandenplas, H. Hammami, H. Soyeurt, A. Vanlierde, F. Dehareng, E. Froidmont,
- and N. Gengler. 2016. Changes throughout lactation in phenotypic and genetic correlations between

690 methane emissions and milk fatty acid contents predicted from milk mid-infrared spectra. J. Dairy Sci. 99:7247-7260. 691 Vlaeminck, B., V. Fievez, A. R. J. Cabrita, A. J. M. Fonseca, and R. J. Dewhurst. 2006. Factors affecting odd- and 692 693 branched-chain fatty acids in milk: A review. Anim. Feed Sci. Technol. 131:389-417. 694 Wall, E., G. Simm, and D. Moran. 2010. Developing breeding schemes to assist mitigation of greenhouse gas 695 emissions. Animal 4:366-376. 696 Warner, D., S. C. Podesta, B. Hatew, G. Klop, H. van Laar, A. Bannink, and J. Dijkstra. 2015. Effect of nitrogen 697 fertilization rate and regrowth interval of grass herbage on methane emission of zero-grazing lactating dairy 698 cows. J Dairy Sci. 98:3383-3393. 699 Warner, D., B. Hatew, S. C. Podesta, G. Klop, S. van Gastelen, H. van Laar, J. Dijkstra, and A. Bannink. 2016. 700 Effects of nitrogen fertilisation rate and maturity of grass silage on methane emission by lactating dairy 701 cows. Animal 10:34-43. 702 Warner, D., A. Bannink, B. Hatew, H. van Laar, and J. Dijkstra. 2017. Effects of grass silage quality and level of 703 feed intake on enteric methane production in lactating dairy cows. J. Anim. Sci. 95:3687-3699. 704 Williams, P. 2014. The RPD statistic: a tutorial note. NIR news 25:22-26. 705 Williams, P. C., and D. C. Sobering. 1993. Comparison of commercial near infrared transmittance and reflectance 706 instruments for the analysis of whole grains and seeds. J. Near Infrared Spectrosc. 1:25-33. 707 Yang, H., and J. Irudayaraj. 2000. Characterization of semisolid fats and edible oils by Fourier transform infrared 708 photoacoustic spectroscopy. J American Oil Chemists' Society 77: 291-295.

Table 1. Data sources and characteristics of included studies

Study	Reference	n ¹	No. of treatments	Diet composition / treatments ²
1	Warner et al. (2015)	25	4	15% concentrate, 85% grass herbage. Grass herbage was cut after 3 vs. 5 weeks of regrowth,
				after receiving low (20 kg of N/ha) vs. high (90 kg of N/ha) fertilization rate after initial cut.
2	Van Gastelen et al. (2015)	30	4	20% concentrate, 80% roughage. Roughage consisted of 100:0 vs. 67:33 vs. 33:67 vs. 0:100
				grass silage:corn silage.
3	Warner et al. (2016)	42	6	20% concentrate, 80% grass silage. Grass silage received low (65 kg N/ha) vs. high (150 kg
				N/ha) fertilization rate preceding growth period 28 d vs. 41 d vs. 62 d of regrowth.
4	Klop et al. (2016)	6	1	30 % concentrate, 21 % grass silage, 49% corn silage. Control diet, with concentrate
				containing urea as nonprotein N source.
5	Warner et al. (2017)	55	8	20% concentrate, 10% corn silage, 70% grass silage. Grass silage was cut at four growth
				stages (leafy vs. boot vs. early heading vs. late heading) and fed at two intake levels (15.5
				kg/d vs. 16.6 kg/d DMI ³).
6	Hatew et al. (2016)	25	4	20% concentrate, 5% wheat straw, 75% corn silage. Whole-plant corn was harvested at very
				early (25% DM) vs. early (28% DM) vs. medium (32% DM) vs. late (40% DM) stage of
				maturity.
7	Klop et al. (2017)	7	1	30% concentrate, 30% grass silage, 40% corn silage (control diet).
8	Van Lingen et al. (2017)	4	1	30% concentrate, 30% grass silage, 40% corn silage (control diet).

9 Van Gastelen et al. (2017b) 24 1 30% concentrate, 30% grass silage, 40% corn silage (control diet). Cows with *DGAT1* KK vs. *DGAT1* AA genotype.

709

¹ The total number of observations, which equals the number of dairy cows, used for the present study.

² Proportion (%) on DM basis.

³ Dry matter intake (kg/d).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of animal performance, dietary characteristics, methane emission, and the milk fatty acid profile determined with gas chromatography (N = 218)

Variable	Mean	Median	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Animal performance					
Body weight	617	617	59.7	462	817
Parity	2.7	3.0	1.38	1.0	7.0
Days in milk	179	185	85.2	59	567
Milk yield (kg/d)	24.3	23.9	5.42	11.3	36.8
FPCM ¹ (kg/d)	25.9	25.3	5.06	12.3	39.9
Milk fat content (g/100 g milk)	4.67	4.67	0.659	2.94	6.70
Milk crude protein content	3.37	3.30	0.406	2.62	5.00
(g/100 g milk)					
Milk anhydrous lactose content	4.57	4.59	0.221	3.80	5.03
(g/100 g milk)					
DMI^2 (kg/d)	16.3	16.1	2.18	10.8	24.5
Dietary characteristics (in g/kg DM, unless st	ated otherw	vise)			
Dry matter (g/kg)	502	502	101.5	306	797
Ash	77	79	13.5	53	103
Crude protein	176	172	40.1	82	251
NDF	380	372	49.9	242	501
ADF	221	218	25.7	183	291
ADL	14	14	4.2	6	26
Crude fat	31	33	6.7	21	46
Starch	118	79	85.5	5	326
Sugar	89	70	59.0	21	265
GE (MJ/kg DM)	18.6	18.6	0.41	17.6	19.3
NDF to starch ratio (g/g)	8.2	4.8	15.76	1.0	86.2
Methane emission					
Production (g/d)	366	365	53.9	234	535
Yield (g/kg DMI)	22.5	22.6	2.10	17.2	28.0

Intensity (g/kg FPCM)	14.4	14.4	2.58	8.5	24.8
Milk fatty acids (g/100 g fatty acids) determ	ined with gas	chromatog	graphy		
C4:0	3.5	3.5	0.35	1.8	4.4
C6:0	2.1	2.2	0.21	1.5	2.6
C8:0	1.1	1.1	0.17	0.6	1.6
C10:0	2.5	2.4	0.53	1.1	4.1
C12:0	2.8	2.8	0.69	1.3	4.9
C14:0	10.4	10.5	1.39	6.7	14.1
iso C14:0	0.08	0.08	0.017	0.04	0.13
C14:1 cis-9	0.99	0.97	0.238	0.47	1.95
C15:0	0.97	0.97	0.168	0.53	1.56
iso C15:0	0.23	0.23	0.041	0.13	0.37
anteiso C15:0	0.40	0.40	0.068	0.24	0.62
C16:0	31.7	31.7	3.35	24.6	42.3
iso C16:0	0.18	0.18	0.035	0.12	0.34
C16:1 trans-9	0.21	0.21	0.037	0.13	0.35
C16:1 cis-9	1.9	1.8	0.38	1.0	3.0
C17:0	0.65	0.64	0.099	0.44	0.96
iso C17:0	0.40	0.39	0.060	0.25	0.63
anteiso C17:0	0.42	0.41	0.056	0.32	0.61
C17:1 cis-9	0.31	0.30	0.087	0.15	0.69
C18:0	9.6	9.7	1.61	5.0	15.2
C18:1 cis-9 ³	21.0	20.7	3.83	12.3	30.5
C18:1 cis-12	0.18	0.15	0.075	0.07	0.47
C18:1 cis-13	0.13	0.13	0.037	0.05	0.27
C18:1 trans-6	0.20	0.19	0.051	0.06	0.42
C18:1 trans-9	0.15	0.14	0.026	0.08	0.25
C18:1 trans-10	0.19	0.16	0.091	0.00	0.65
C18:1 trans-11	0.89	0.88	0.221	0.17	2.18
C18:1 trans-15 + C18:1 cis-11	0.77	0.75	0.171	0.33	1.23

C18:2 cis-9, trans-11	0.42	0.40	0.116	0.20	1.29
C18:2n-6	1.5	1.5	0.24	0.9	2.4
C18:3n-3	0.47	0.48	0.154	0.14	0.98
C18:3n-6	0.07	0.07	0.014	0.04	0.13
C20:0	0.13	0.13	0.019	0.08	0.19
C20:1 cis-11	0.06	0.06	0.022	0.00	0.12
C20:2n-6	0.04	0.04	0.007	0.02	0.07
C20:3n-6	0.07	0.07	0.019	0.03	0.13
C20:4n-3	0.03	0.03	0.026	0.00	0.13
C20:4n-6	0.11	0.11	0.024	0.05	0.18
C20:5n-3	0.06	0.06	0.013	0.03	0.09
C22:0	0.06	0.06	0.014	0.00	0.11
C22:5n-3	0.08	0.08	0.019	0.04	0.14
C24:0	0.04	0.04	0.013	0.00	0.08

¹ Fat- and protein-corrected milk (kg/d) = $[0.337 + 0.116 \times \text{fat (g/100 g milk)} + 0.06 \times \text{protein (g/100 g milk)}]$ × milk yield (kg/d) (CVB, 2012).

² Dry matter intake (kg/d).

³ C18:1 *cis-*9 represents the sum of C18:1 *cis-*9 and C18:1 *trans-*12, as these 2 FA could not be separated in the analysis. The portion of C18:1 *trans-*12 is considered to be negligible, as this FA is always present in small amounts.

Table 3. The prediction model developed for methane production (g/d), yield $(g/kg \ DMI^1)$, and intensity $(g/kg \ FPCM^2)$ based on milk fatty acids determined with gas chromatography

Methane emission	Milk fatty acids	Estimate	SE	P-value
Methane production (g/d)	Intercept	507.9	28.66	< 0.001
	C15:0	62.9	17.22	0.002
	C17:1 <i>cis-</i> 9	-240.6	32.29	0.007
	C18:1 trans-10	-202.8	47.75	0.010
	C18:1 trans-11	-59.3	12.70	< 0.001
	C18:2n-6	48.1	14.08	0.005
	C18:3n-3	-187.1	24.40	< 0.001
	C20:4n-3	326.4	104.30	0.002
	C24:0	-816.8	230.89	0.007
Methane yield (g/kg DMI)	Intercept	22.9	1.27	< 0.001
	iso C15:0	20.9	4.17	0.003
	anteiso C15:0	-9.6	2.34	< 0.001
	C17:0	7.6	1.26	< 0.001
	C18:1 trans-11	-2.4	0.52	< 0.001
	C18:1 trans-15 + C18:1 cis-11	-2.7	0.84	< 0.001
	C18:3n-3	-4.4	0.81	< 0.001
Methane intensity(g/kg FPCM)	Intercept	8.0	1.13	< 0.001
	iso C15:0	24.8	3.66	< 0.001
	iso C17:0	10.3	2.30	< 0.001
	C18:1 trans-15 + C18:1 cis-11	-6.6	0.95	< 0.001
	C22:5n-3	22.7	6.61	< 0.001

¹ Dry matter intake (kg/d)

 $^{^2}$ Fat- and protein-corrected milk (kg/d) = [0.337 + 0.116 × fat (g/100 g milk) + 0.06 × protein (g/100 g milk)] × milk yield (kg/d) (CVB, 2012).

Table 4. The coefficient of determination (R²) and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) analysis of the prediction equations and the 10-fold cross validation results

				Overall		10-fold cross validation			ation			
	Adjusted		RMSEP							Number of LV or		
Methane emission	\mathbb{R}^2	RMSEP ⁽⁵⁾	% ⁽⁶⁾	CCC ⁽⁷⁾	r ⁽⁸⁾	$C_{b}^{(9)}$	$v^{(10)}$	$\mu^{(11)}$	RPD ⁽¹²⁾	MFA ⁽¹³⁾	R^2CV	RMSECV %
Methane production (g/d)												
GC-determined MFA ⁽¹⁾	0.54	35.7	9.8	0.72	0.75	0.96	1.34	0	1.27	4	0.47	11.6
FTIR ⁽²⁾	0.36	43.2	11.8	0.52	0.60	0.88	1.68	0	1.19	4	0.30	12.4
Methane yield (g/kg DMI ⁽³⁾)												
GC-determined MFA	0.40	1.6	7.1	0.59	0.64	0.91	1.55	0	1.15	5	0.38	8.1
FTIR	0.25	1.9	8.2	0.40	0.50	0.80	2.00	0	1.09	5	0.19	8.6
Methane intensity (g/kg												
FPCM ⁽⁴⁾)												
GC-determined MFA	0.62	1.6	10.9	0.77	0.79	0.97	1.26	0	1.58	5	0.63	11.4
FTIR	0.56	1.7	11.8	0.72	0.75	0.96	1.33	0	1.39	6	0.49	12.8

⁽¹⁾ Milk fatty acids in g/100 g fatty acids determined with gas chromatography.

⁽²⁾ Fourier-transform infrared spectra.

⁽³⁾ Dry matter intake (kg/d)

⁽⁴⁾ Fat- and protein-corrected milk $(kg/d) = [0.337 + 0.116 \times fat (g/100 g milk) + 0.06 \times protein (g/100 g milk)] \times milk yield (kg/d) (CVB, 2012).$

- (5) Root mean squared error of prediction expressed in g/d, g/kg DMI, and g/kg FPCM for methane production, yield, and intensity, respectively.
- (6) Root mean squared error of prediction expressed as a percentage of the observed mean.
- ⁽⁷⁾ Concordance correlation coefficient, where CCC = $r \times C_b$.
- (8) Pearson correlation coefficient; a measure of precision.
- (9) Bias correction factor; a measure of accuracy.
- (10) Scale shift; change in standard deviation between predicted and observed methane emission.
- (11) Location shift; if positive under prediction, if negative over prediction.
- (12) Ratio of performance to deviation.

(13) Number of latent variables included in the Fourier-transform infrared based models or the number of milk fatty acids included in the milk fatty acid based models.

Table 5. Differences in methane emissions between 2 extreme dietary treatments within each study, measured in climate respiration chambers and estimated with the MFA-based and FTIR-based prediction models

		ence Difference between treatments			Difference estimated	
Study	Reference		Methane emission	Difference measured in CRC ¹	MFA ²	FTIR ³
1	Warner et al.	Grass herbage 5 weeks of regrowth receiving high	Production (g/d)	+31	+36	+8
	(2015)	fertilization compared with grass herbage 3 weeks of	Yield (g/kg DMI)	+2.0	+1.9	+0.4
		regrowth receiving low fertilization	Intensity (g/kg FPCM)	+1.3	+1.3	+1.0
2	Van Gastelen et	Roughage consisting of 100% corn silage compared with	Production (g/d)	-12	-13	-15
	al. (2015)	roughage consisting of 100% grass silage	Yield (g/kg DMI)	-2.6	-2.9	-0.9
			Intensity (g/kg FPCM)	-1.3	-3.3	-0.8
3	Warner et al.	Grass silage 62 d of regrowth and high fertilization rate	Production (g/d)	-39	-4	+8
	(2016)	compared with grass silage 28 d of regrowth and low	Yield (g/kg DMI)	+1.6	+1.5	0.0
		fertilization rate	Intensity (g/kg FPCM)	+4.6	+2.6	+1.6
5	Warner et al.	Late heading stage grass silage at low DMI compared with	Production (g/d)	+24	+32	-1
	(2017)	leafy stage grass silage at high DMI	Yield (g/kg DMI)	+5.0	+2.8	+1.5
			Intensity (g/kg FPCM)	+4.0	+3.1	+2.6
6	Hatew et al.	Late harvested whole-plant corn silage compared with early	Production (g/d)	-29	+13	-0.4
	(2016)	harvested whole-plant corn silage	Yield (g/kg DMI)	-1.6	0.0	+0.3

¹ Climate respiration chambers.

² Milk fatty acids in g/100 g fatty acids determined with gas chromatography.

³ Fourier-transform infrared spectra.

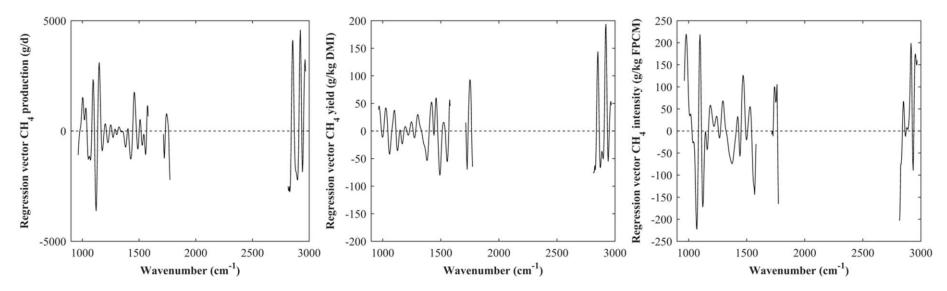


Figure 1. The regression vectors of the PLS models for methane production (g/d), yield (g/kg dry matter intake), and intensity (g/kg fat- and protein-corrected milk) plotted against wavenumbers (cm⁻¹).

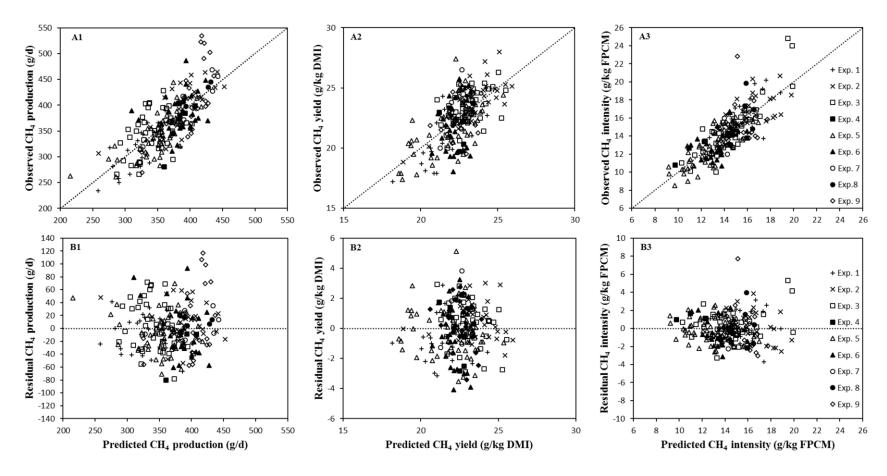


Figure 2. (A) Observed and predicted, and (B) residual (i.e., observed – predicted) (1) methane production (g/d), (2) methane yield (g/kg dry matter intake), and (3) methane intensity (g/kg fat- and protein-corrected milk) from the regression analyses based on milk fatty acid profiles (g/100 g fatty acids) determined with gas chromatography. The slope of residuals regressed on predicted values did not differ significantly from zero. The different symbols identify the 9 individual experiments described in Table 1.

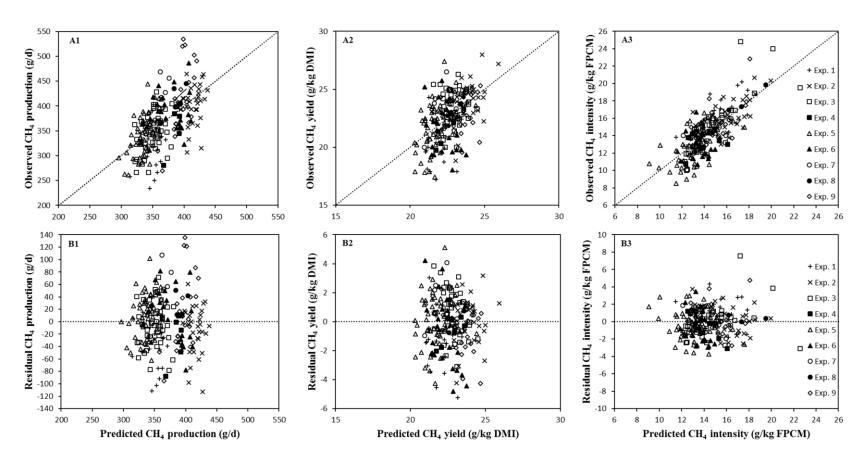


Figure 3. (A) Observed and predicted, and (B) residual (i.e., observed – predicted) (1) methane production (g/d), (2) methane yield (g/kg dry matter intake), and (3) methane intensity (g/kg fat- and protein-corrected milk) from the PLS regression analyses based on Fourier-transform infrared wavenumbers (cm⁻¹). The slope of residuals regressed on predicted values did not differ significantly from zero. The different symbols identify the 9 individual experiments described in Table 1.

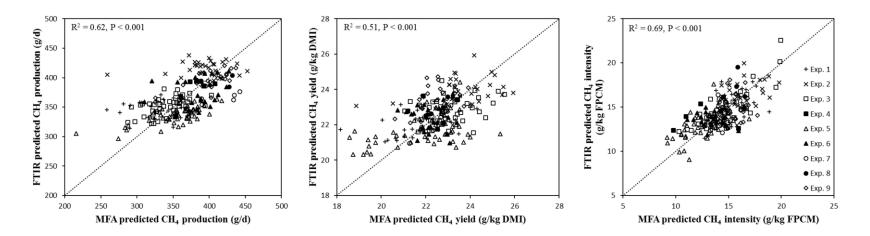


Figure 4. The relationship between methane production (g/d), yield (g/kg dry matter intake), and intensity (g/kg fat- and protein-corrected milk) predicted with milk fatty acid profiles determined with gas chromatography and predicted with milk Fourier-transform infrared spectra. The different symbols identify the 9 individual experiments described in Table 1.