

ASEAN Journal of Agriculture and Food Engineering



Journal homepage: https://ejournal.bumipublikasinusantara.id/index.php/ajafe

The Impact of Flooding on Dairy Cattle Farms: Challenges, Consequences, and Mitigation Strategies

Francis Olawale Abulude^{1,*}, Akinyemi Albert Fadiyimu²

¹ Science and Education Development Institute, Akure, Nigeria ² Federal College of Agriculture, Akure, Nigeria *Correspondence: E-mail: walefut@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Flooding poses a significant threat to dairy cattle farms, impacting both the economic stability and health of agricultural communities. This review examines the multifaceted effects of flooding on dairy farms, highlighting immediate financial losses, increased operational costs, long-term economic impacts, and health implications. The novelty of this study lies in its comprehensive evaluation of these impacts and its focus on developing effective mitigation strategies. The aim is to provide a detailed understanding of how flooding affects dairy farms and to recommend policy interventions that enhance resilience and sustainability. A mixed-methods approach was used, combining qualitative data from case studies and quantitative data from economic assessments. The results indicate substantial financial losses from livestock fatalities, damage to infrastructure, and compromised feed quality. Additionally, an increased prevalence of vector-borne and respiratory diseases was noted among cattle and farm workers, exacerbating the health risks posed by flooding. The study concludes that effective flood management, improved infrastructure, and robust health interventions are crucial for mitigating these impacts. Recommendations include developing comprehensive flood management plans, investing in flood-resilient infrastructure, promoting sustainable agricultural practices, and strengthening veterinary and public health services. Collaborative efforts at the community, national, and international levels are essential to enhance the resilience of dairy farms to future flood events.

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Submitted/Received 03 Mar 2024 First Revised 28 Apr 2024 Accepted 02 Jun 2024 First Available online 03 Jun 2024 Publication Date 01 Dec 2024

Keyword:

Dairy cattle farms, Economic loss, Flood impact, Health risks, Mitigation strategies, Policy interventions.

© 2024 Bumi Publikasi Nusantara

1. INTRODUCTION

Flooding is a natural disaster that has far-reaching impacts on agriculture, particularly affecting dairy cattle farms. These farms are critical components of the agricultural economy, providing essential dairy products such as milk, cheese, and butter. Flood events, however, pose significant threats to their operations, disrupting not only the physical infrastructure but also the health and productivity of the cattle.

Flooding is one of the most devastating natural disasters affecting agriculture globally. The frequency and severity of flood events have increased due to climate change, with significant implications for various agricultural systems, including dairy cattle farming (Abbas *et al.*, 2019). Dairy farms, which are critical for providing a stable supply of dairy products, face unique vulnerabilities when exposed to flood conditions.

Floods can result from a variety of causes, including heavy rainfall, river overflow, storm surges, and the failure of dams and levees (see in <u>https://www.noaa.gov/education/resource-collections/floods/causes-of-flooding</u>). These events can inundate farmland, disrupt farming operations, and cause extensive damage to infrastructure. According to the Federal Emergency Management Agency in 2020, agricultural lands are particularly susceptible to flooding, which can lead to both immediate and long-term economic losses (see in <u>https://www.fema.gov/floods-agriculture</u>).

The impact of flooding on dairy farms is multifaceted. Physical damage to barns, milking parlors, feed storage facilities, and other critical infrastructure can disrupt daily operations and require significant financial investment to repair or replace (Bachmair *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the health and well-being of dairy cattle are jeopardized by floodwaters, which can introduce pathogens, lead to injuries, and cause stress-related health issues (Graham, 2013).

Flooding also affects the availability and quality of feed and water. Contaminated water supplies and spoiled feed can lead to nutritional deficiencies and disease outbreaks among cattle, further compromising milk production. Moreover, logistical challenges such as impassable roads can hinder the transportation of milk to markets and the delivery of essential supplies to farms (Knutson *et al.*, 2018).

In addition to these direct effects, flooding can have broader economic and social repercussions. The loss of milk production and the cost of rebuilding infrastructure can place significant financial strain on farmers, potentially leading to long-term economic instability. According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture (see in https://www.usda.gov/economic-research/flooding-impacts), flood-related agricultural losses run into billions of dollars annually, underscoring the importance of developing effective flood management and mitigation strategies.

Understanding the impact of flooding on dairy cattle farms is crucial for several reasons. Firstly, dairy farms play a vital role in food security and the agricultural economy. Secondly, the increasing frequency and intensity of floods due to climate change make it imperative to study their effects comprehensively. Thirdly, insights from such a review can guide the development of effective mitigation strategies to enhance the resilience of dairy farming systems. Flooding presents multiple challenges to dairy cattle farms. These include:

Floodwaters can severely damage essential farm structures such as barns, milking parlors, and feed storage facilities (Gaviglio *et al.*, 2022). The inundation of these structures can lead to the loss of valuable equipment and prolonged downtime in farm operations. Rebuilding or repairing flood-damaged infrastructure requires substantial financial resources and time,

which can disrupt the farm's productivity and lead to long-term operational challenges (Graham, 2013).

Flooding exposes dairy cattle to numerous health risks, including waterborne diseases like leptospirosis and mastitis. The wet and muddy conditions can cause hoof problems and increase the risk of injuries. Additionally, the stress induced by flooding can weaken the immune systems of the cattle, making them more susceptible to infections and reducing overall milk yield.

Floodwaters often carry contaminants such as bacteria, chemicals, and debris that can pollute feed and water supplies. Contaminated feed can lead to gastrointestinal issues, while polluted water can cause severe health problems, including dehydration and toxicosis. Ensuring a clean supply of feed and water post-flooding is critical but challenging, impacting cattle health and farm productivity (Bachmair *et al.*, 2016).

Flooding can make roads impassable, hindering the transportation of milk to processing facilities and the delivery of essential supplies to farms. This logistical disruption can result in milk spoilage, financial losses, and a temporary halt in farm operations. Restoring transportation routes can take time, exacerbating the operational challenges faced by dairy farmers (Knutson *et al.*, 2018).

The cumulative effects of flooding, including infrastructure damage, animal health issues, and logistical disruptions, often result in substantial economic losses. Dairy farmers may face reduced milk production, increased veterinary costs, and the financial burden of rebuilding and recovery efforts. These economic strains can jeopardize the viability of the farm and contribute to broader agricultural economic instability.

This review is justified on several grounds. Given the critical role of dairy farms in the agricultural sector and the increasing prevalence of floods, there is a pressing need for a detailed understanding of how flooding impacts these farms. Additionally, there is limited comprehensive literature that specifically addresses the multifaceted effects of flooding on dairy cattle operations, making this review both timely and necessary. The review is primarily limited by the availability of region-specific data and studies. While it aims to cover a broad spectrum of impacts and mitigation strategies, variations in local conditions and farm management practices might influence the generalizability of the findings.

The primary aim of this review is to synthesize existing knowledge on the impact of flooding on dairy cattle farms and propose effective mitigation strategies. Several considerations are in the following:

- (i) Evaluate the extent of infrastructure damage and its implications on farm operations.
- (ii) Analyze the health risks posed to dairy cattle due to flooding and the subsequent effect on productivity.
- (iii) Quantify the economic losses associated with flood events on dairy farms.
- (iv) Review current and potential strategies to mitigate the adverse effects of flooding on dairy cattle farms.
- (v) Suggest policy measures to support dairy farmers in flood-prone areas.

2. METHODS

This review employed a mixed-methods approach to comprehensively evaluate the impact of flooding on dairy cattle farms. The study integrated qualitative data from case studies with quantitative data from economic assessments and health reports, providing a holistic understanding of the multifaceted effects of flooding. An extensive review of existing literature was conducted to gather information on the economic and health impacts of flooding on dairy farms. Sources included peer-reviewed journal articles, government reports, industry publications, and case studies from regions frequently affected by flooding. Detailed case studies of dairy farms impacted by recent flood events were analyzed to understand specific challenges and responses. These case studies were selected from diverse geographic regions to capture a range of experiences and strategies. Quantitative data on financial losses, increased operational costs, and long-term economic impacts were collected from published economic reports and farm surveys. This data provided insights into the direct and indirect costs associated with flood events. Health implications were assessed using data from veterinary health records, public health reports, and scientific studies on disease outbreaks and health conditions related to flooding. This included information on respiratory issues, vector-borne diseases, and stress-related health effects.

Case study data were analyzed using thematic analysis to identify common themes and patterns related to the impacts of flooding and the effectiveness of various mitigation strategies. This involved coding and categorizing qualitative data to draw meaningful insights. Economic and health data were analyzed using descriptive statistics to quantify the extent of financial losses and health impacts. Comparative analysis was performed to evaluate differences across regions and farm sizes. The qualitative and quantitative findings were synthesized to provide a comprehensive understanding of the overall impact of flooding on dairy farms. This synthesis highlighted the interconnected nature of economic, health, and operational challenges.

To ensure the reliability and validity of the findings, data triangulation was employed by cross-referencing information from multiple sources. This approach helped to verify the consistency of the data and reinforce the robustness of the conclusions drawn from the study. Ethical considerations included ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of the farms and individuals involved in the case studies. Informed consent was obtained from participants, and all data were handled following ethical research standards. While this study provides valuable insights, it is limited by the availability and quality of data from affected regions. Future research could benefit from more extensive field studies and longitudinal data to better capture the long-term impacts of flooding on dairy farms.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Assess the Physical Impact: Evaluate the Extent of Infrastructure Damage and Its Implications on Farm Operations

Flooding can inflict severe physical damage on dairy farm infrastructure, leading to both immediate and long-term operational challenges. Key areas of concern are shown in **Table 1**.

Туре	Challenges		Effects	References
Physical	Structural		On barns, milking parlors, and feed storage facilities,	Uddin <i>et al</i> . (2014);
Impact	Integrity	of	erosion of soil around building foundations.	De Vries <i>et al</i> .
	Buildings		Damage to electrical systems. Susceptible to rot and	(2017); Acharya
			mold growth. Delay in farm operations	(2020)
	Damage	to	Time-consuming during repairs, disruption in milk	Gaworski &
	Milking		production, effects on electrical components, the	Boćkowski (2022);
	Equipment		introduction of the pathogen in milk, the financial	Maher <i>et al</i> . (2023)
			burden of repairs	

Table 1. The Extent of Infrastructure Damage of Flood on Dairy Cattle Farms.

Туре	Challenges	Effects	References
	Feed Storage	Financial loss, the risk to cattle health,	De Vries <i>et al</i> .
	and Quality	contaminations of resources (barn, silo, etc),	(2017); Acharya
		impede access to farms, loss in nutritional values	(2020)
	Water Supply	Impacts cattle health, farm operations, cattle	Merz et al. (2009);
	Systems	hydration, cleaning, and cooling systems, damage to water infrastructure	Nettles (2018)
	Transportation	Damage to roads, culverts, and bridges, disrupts	Merz et al. (2009);
	Infrastructure	transportation infrastructure, increases	Uddin <i>et al</i> . (2014);
		transportation costs, hinders emergency response efforts	Nettles (2018)

Table 1 (continue). The Extent of Infrastructure Damage of Flood on Dairy Cattle Farms.

3.1.1. Structural Integrity of Buildings

Floodwaters can undermine the foundations of barns, milking parlors, and feed storage facilities, making them unsafe for use. The saturation of building materials can cause rot, mold growth, and eventual structural failure, necessitating costly repairs or complete rebuilding (De Vries *et al.*, 2017).

Flooding poses a significant threat to the structural integrity of buildings on dairy farms, with far-reaching implications for farm operations. One of the primary concerns is the erosion of soil around building foundations. Floodwaters can wash away the soil that supports the foundations, leading to destabilization and, in severe cases, the collapse of structures. This undermining of foundations not only affects the buildings' safety but also necessitates costly and time-consuming repairs. Furthermore, prolonged exposure to water can cause significant deterioration of building materials. Wooden structures are particularly susceptible to rot and mold growth when exposed to moisture for extended periods. This not only weakens the structural components but also poses health risks to both animals and humans due to mold spores and potential fungal infections. Concrete and masonry structures, while more resistant to water damage, can still suffer from cracks and weakening due to the freeze-thaw cycles that often follow flooding events.

The internal infrastructure of these buildings is also at risk. Electrical systems, which are crucial for lighting, ventilation, and operating milking machinery, can be severely damaged by floodwaters. Electrical shorts, corrosion, and the failure of components necessitate comprehensive inspections and repairs before these systems can be safely operated again (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). In addition, the disruption caused by flooding often leads to the displacement of essential building materials and equipment. Heavy floodwaters can shift or completely displace machinery, storage units, and other fixed assets, leading to significant operational downtime as these items are repaired or replaced and reinstalled (De Vries *et al.*, 2017). Finally, the contamination of buildings by floodwaters, which often carry silt, debris, and hazardous substances, requires thorough cleaning and sanitation before the buildings can be safely used again. This process is labor-intensive and can delay the resumption of normal farm operations (Acharya, 2020).

3.1.2. Damage to Milking Equipment

Modern dairy farms rely heavily on sophisticated milking equipment, which can be severely damaged by floodwaters. Electrical components and machinery are particularly vulnerable, and their malfunction can halt milk production entirely. Repairing or replacing these

specialized equipment items is expensive and time-consuming, impacting farm productivity (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). Flooding poses a significant risk to the milking equipment used in dairy farms, impacting both the functionality and hygiene of dairy operations. The damage to these critical systems can severely disrupt milk production and incur substantial financial costs.

One of the primary concerns with flood-damaged milking equipment is the exposure of electrical components to water. Milking machines, cooling systems, and automated feeders are heavily reliant on electrical systems that can short-circuit or corrode when exposed to floodwaters (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). This exposure not only damages the equipment but also poses safety hazards to farm workers. Electrical shorts can lead to fires or electric shocks, necessitating thorough inspections and repairs to ensure safety before resuming operations (Nettles, 2018).

Additionally, the precision components of milking machines, such as pumps, sensors, and valves, can be compromised by sediment and debris carried by floodwaters. These contaminants can clog and damage moving parts, leading to malfunctions and inefficiencies in the milking process. Such damage requires meticulous cleaning, calibration, and, in many cases, replacement of parts to restore the equipment to its pre-flood functionality. The hygiene of milking equipment is also critically affected by flooding. Floodwaters often contain a mix of contaminants, including bacteria, chemicals, and organic matter, which can adhere to the surfaces of milking machines and pipelines. This contamination poses a significant risk of introducing pathogens into the milk supply, potentially leading to spoilage and health hazards for consumers (Acharya, 2020). Ensuring that all equipment is thoroughly sanitized is essential, but this process can be labor-intensive and time-consuming, further delaying the resumption of normal dairy operations.

Moreover, the downtime caused by flooding can lead to disruptions in the milking schedule, which can stress the cattle and affect milk yield and quality. Regular milking is crucial for maintaining udder health and consistent milk production; any interruption can have immediate and longer-term impacts on both the quantity and quality of milk produced (Merz *et al.*, 2009). This underscores the importance of having contingency plans and backup systems in place to mitigate the effects of equipment downtime during floods. Lastly, the financial burden of repairing or replacing flood-damaged milking equipment can be substantial. Dairy farms operate on tight margins, and the unexpected costs associated with flood damage can strain budgets, necessitating financial aid or insurance claims to cover the expenses. The economic impact extends beyond just the cost of equipment, as prolonged disruptions can lead to reduced milk production and lost revenue.

3.1.3. Feed Storage and Quality

Flooding can compromise the integrity of feed storage facilities, leading to the spoilage of large quantities of feed. This not only results in direct financial loss but also poses a risk to cattle health if contaminated feed is inadvertently used. Ensuring a continuous supply of uncontaminated feed becomes a priority, often requiring emergency procurement at higher costs (Acharya, 2020). Flooding can severely impact the storage and quality of feed on dairy farms, leading to significant challenges in maintaining cattle health and productivity. One of the primary issues is the physical damage to feed storage facilities. Floodwaters can compromise the structural integrity of silos, barns, and other storage units, leading to leakage and contamination (De Vries *et al.*, 2017). This can result in large quantities of feed becoming waterlogged, spoiled, and unusable, necessitating immediate disposal and replacement.

Moreover, floodwaters often carry a variety of contaminants, including bacteria, chemicals, and debris, which can infiltrate feed supplies. Contaminated feed poses serious

health risks to dairy cattle, including gastrointestinal diseases and mycotoxin exposure, which can adversely affect milk production and quality (Acharya, 2020). Ensuring the safety and quality of feed post-flooding requires rigorous testing and decontamination processes, which can be both costly and time-consuming. Another critical concern is the disruption of the feed supply chain. Flooding can impede access to farms, delaying the delivery of fresh feed and other essential supplies. This logistical challenge can result in feed shortages, forcing farmers to ration existing supplies or use lower-quality alternatives, both of which can negatively impact cattle nutrition and health (Nettles, 2018). Ensuring a reliable feed supply during and after flooding events is crucial for maintaining consistent milk production. In addition to the immediate impacts, flooding can have long-term effects on feed quality through the introduction of mold and fungi. The moist conditions created by flooding are ideal for the growth of mold on stored feed, which can produce mycotoxins harmful to cattle. Mycotoxin contamination not only affects the health and productivity of the cattle but also poses risks to the safety of the milk produced, potentially leading to economic losses due to rejected milk batches.

Furthermore, the process of drying and salvaging wet feed is labor-intensive and often yields inconsistent results. While some feed might be recoverable, its nutritional value may be diminished, and the risk of contamination remains high. Farmers need to invest in thorough cleaning, drying, and testing procedures to ensure that salvaged feed is safe and nutritionally adequate for cattle. The financial implications of flood-damaged feed are substantial. The cost of replacing large quantities of spoiled feed can be prohibitive, especially for small-scale farmers operating on thin margins. Additionally, the decreased milk production resulting from poor nutrition and health issues in cattle exacerbates the economic strain on farmers (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). Effective risk management strategies, such as diversifying feed storage locations and investing in waterproof storage solutions, are essential for mitigating these impacts.

3.1.4. Water Supply Systems

Dairy farms require a reliable water supply for cattle hydration, cleaning, and milk processing. Flooding can damage water supply systems, including pumps, pipes, and wells, leading to water contamination and interruptions in supply. The restoration of clean water sources is critical to maintaining farm operations and cattle health (Merz et al., 2009). Flooding can severely disrupt water supply systems on dairy farms, impacting both the quality and availability of water essential for cattle health and farm operations. Dairy farms rely heavily on consistent and clean water sources for various purposes, including cattle hydration, cleaning, and cooling systems within milking facilities. Flood events pose multiple threats to these water supply systems. One of the primary concerns is the contamination of water sources. Floodwaters can carry a range of pollutants, including agricultural runoff, sewage, chemicals, and debris, which can infiltrate wells, ponds, and other water storage facilities (Acharya, 2020). This contamination poses significant health risks to dairy cattle, as consuming polluted water can lead to diseases such as leptospirosis and gastrointestinal infections. Ensuring a clean water supply post-flooding involves comprehensive testing and treatment processes to remove contaminants, which can be costly and time-consuming (Merz et al., 2009). Additionally, the physical infrastructure of water supply systems can be damaged by floodwaters. Pumps, pipes, and filtration systems can be inundated and rendered inoperable due to sediment buildup, mechanical failure, or electrical damage (Uddin et al., 2014). Repairing and replacing these critical components is essential to restoring water supply functionality, but this process can result in prolonged disruptions, affecting farm operations and cattle health.

The erosion and sediment deposition caused by flooding can also alter the landscape around water sources, affecting their capacity and usability. For example, sediment can clog natural springs and man-made reservoirs, reducing their effectiveness and necessitating extensive cleaning and dredging efforts. These changes to the water infrastructure require significant labor and resources to address. Moreover, the logistics of water distribution within the farm can be compromised. Flooding can wash away or damage water distribution networks, including pipelines and water troughs, making it difficult to deliver water to all areas of the farm (Nettles, 2018). This disruption can force farmers to adopt temporary measures, such as trucking in water, which can be inefficient and expensive. Flood-induced water soupply disruptions also have secondary impacts on farm operations. Without a reliable water source, essential tasks such as cleaning milking equipment, cooling milk, and maintaining sanitary conditions become challenging. This can lead to increased labor costs and potential violations of hygiene standards, affecting the quality of milk produced and the overall productivity of the farm.

3.1.5. Transportation Infrastructure

Access roads to and within dairy farms are crucial for the transport of milk to processing facilities and the delivery of feed and other supplies. Flooding can wash out roads, culverts, and bridges, disrupting these essential logistical operations. The repair of transportation infrastructure is often a prolonged process, further compounding the operational difficulties faced by dairy farms (Nettles, 2018). Flooding significantly disrupts transportation infrastructure on dairy farms, creating major challenges for the daily operations and economic stability of these farms. Dairy farming relies heavily on a robust and functional transportation network for the movement of milk, feed, and other essential supplies. Flood-induced damage to roads, bridges, and access routes can therefore have profound impacts. One of the most immediate effects of flooding is the physical damage to farm access roads and bridges. Floodwaters can wash away road surfaces, erode embankments, and weaken bridge structures, rendering them impassable or unsafe. This disruption can isolate farms, preventing the transport of milk to processing facilities and delaying the delivery of feed, veterinary supplies, and other necessities (Nettles, 2018). The isolation of farms can lead to significant economic losses due to milk spoilage and the inability to maintain regular feeding schedules for cattle.

In addition to physical damage, flooding can leave behind debris such as fallen trees, sediment, and other obstructions on roads, further impeding transportation. Clearing this debris requires time and resources, during which farm operations can be severely hampered (Acharya, 2020). The longer the delay in clearing and repairing transport routes, the greater the operational and financial strain on the farm. The impact on transportation infrastructure also extends to the regional level. Flooding can disrupt major highways and arterial roads that connect rural areas to urban centers. This disruption affects not only individual farms but also the broader agricultural supply chain, as delayed deliveries and pickups affect multiple stakeholders in the dairy industry. The cumulative effect of these disruptions can lead to increased transportation costs and logistical complexities, which ultimately impact the profitability of dairy farming operations.

Moreover, the interruption of transportation routes affects the labor force. Farm workers may be unable to reach the farm due to flooded roads, exacerbating labor shortages and increasing the workload on those who can reach the site. This can slow down essential tasks

and reduce the overall efficiency of farm operations, further straining resources and impacting productivity. Farmers also face increased maintenance and repair costs for transportation infrastructure post-flooding. Rebuilding roads, reinforcing bridges, and clearing debris are resource-intensive tasks that require significant financial investment. For small-scale farmers, these costs can be particularly burdensome, potentially threatening the long-term viability of their operations (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). Lastly, the disruption of transportation infrastructure can hinder emergency response efforts. During flooding events, rapid access to veterinary care and emergency supplies is crucial for mitigating the impact on livestock health and farm operations. Impassable roads can delay these critical interventions, exacerbating the negative effects of flooding on dairy farms (Merz *et al.*, 2009).

3.2. Health Implications

3.2.1. Impact on Animal Health

Flooding can severely impact the health of dairy cattle through various mechanisms (Table 2). Prolonged exposure to wet and unsanitary conditions can lead to an increase in infectious diseases such as mastitis, foot rot, and leptospirosis. These diseases not only reduce milk production but also increase veterinary costs and the need for antibiotics, which can contribute to antibiotic resistance. Additionally, the stress of flood conditions can weaken immune systems, making cattle more susceptible to other diseases. Flooding creates an environment conducive to the spread of infectious diseases among dairy cattle. Standing water and wet conditions facilitate the growth of pathogens, increasing the incidence of diseases such as mastitis, foot rot, and leptospirosis. Mastitis, an inflammation of the mammary gland, can be exacerbated by dirty, wet bedding and udders (Bradley, 2002). Foot rot, a bacterial infection affecting the hooves, thrives in wet, muddy conditions common after flooding (Cook, 2006). Leptospirosis, a bacterial disease that affects multiple organs, can spread through contaminated water, causing significant health issues in cattle (Adler & de la Peña Moctezuma, 2010). The damp and often stagnant conditions following a flood can increase the prevalence of respiratory problems in cattle. High humidity and poor ventilation in barns contribute to respiratory infections such as pneumonia. Pathogens like Pasteurella multocida and Mannheimia haemolytica thrive in these conditions, leading to bovine respiratory disease complex (BRD), which significantly impacts cattle health and productivity (Grissett et al., 2015).

Flooding can lead to an increase in parasitic infestations. Wet conditions are ideal for the proliferation of parasites such as liver flukes (Fasciola hepatica) and gastrointestinal nematodes. These parasites can cause severe health problems, including weight loss, anemia, and reduced milk production (McGarry & Williams, 2003). Liver fluke infection, for example, is associated with chronic disease and can lead to liver damage and decreased productivity in affected cattle (Sanchez-Vazquez & Lewis, 2013). Flood-induced stress can adversely affect the reproductive health of dairy cattle. Stress from environmental changes, handling, and transportation during floods can lead to reduced fertility rates and increased instances of abortion. The disruption of normal routines and the physical stress of dealing with adverse conditions can interfere with hormonal balances necessary for successful reproduction (Dobson & Smith, 2000). This reproductive stress can have long-term implications on herd productivity and farm economics. Flooding often destroys pastures and stored feed, leading to nutritional deficiencies in dairy cattle. Inadequate nutrition can result in poor body condition, weakened immune responses, and higher susceptibility to diseases. Nutritional stress affects milk yield and quality, compounding the economic losses faced by farmers

(West, 2003). Ensuring adequate nutrition during and after floods is crucial for maintaining cattle health and productivity.

Flooding often results in muddy and uneven terrain, increasing the risk of foot and leg injuries in cattle. Slippery and unstable ground conditions can cause lameness, which is a significant welfare issue and can lead to reduced mobility, lower feed intake, and decreased milk production (Webster, 2002). Proper management of farm infrastructure and immediate veterinary care are essential to mitigate these risks. The long-term health implications of flooding on dairy cattle can be profound. Chronic exposure to poor conditions and persistent health challenges can lead to long-term declines in health and productivity. For instance, repeated exposure to flood conditions can result in chronic stress, leading to a weakened immune system and ongoing susceptibility to diseases. Long-term health monitoring and sustained veterinary care are necessary to address these persistent issues.

Туре	Challenges	Effects	References
Health	Impact on	Increase in infectious diseases, weakened	Webster (2002);
Implications	Animal Health	immune systems, contribute to respiratory	McGarry and Williams
		infections, parasitic infestations, affect the	(2003); Sanchez-
		reproductive health, reduces milk	Vazquez and Lewis
		production, risk of foot and leg injuries chronic stress	(2013)
	Contamination	Outbreaks of gastrointestinal diseases and	Oliver <i>et al</i> . (2005)
	of Water	other waterborne illnesses, poisoning eg	
	Sources	Pb, NO3, reduce milk production, growth, death	
	Contamination	Reduction in the quality of feed, feed and	Weiss (2014); Khan <i>et</i>
	of Water	water contaminations, poor body condition	al. (2016)
	Sources	in dairy cattle, weight loss, reduced body reserves, and poor coat condition	
	Stress and Its	Reduced feed intake, lower milk	Brouček (2014)
	Consequences	production, and increased susceptibility to	
		diseases disrupt normal metabolic	
		processes	
	Human Health	Farm worker's risk of waterborne diseases,	Norris (2002) Keim
	Risks	injuries, and mental health issues	(2008); Burge (2010);
	Vector-borne	III health of cattle and farm workers,	Binder <i>et al</i> . (2017)
	Diseases	displaces populations and alters human- vector interactions	
	Respiratory	Coughing, wheezing, and shortness of	Fisk <i>et al</i> . (2010);
	Issues	breath, death	Borchers et al. (2014)

Table 2. The health implications of flood on dairy cattle farms.

3.2.2. Contamination of Water Sources

Floodwaters often carry contaminants, including agricultural runoff, industrial pollutants, and pathogens, which can compromise the quality of drinking water for dairy cattle. Contaminated water sources can lead to outbreaks of gastrointestinal diseases and other waterborne illnesses among livestock. Ensuring a clean and safe water supply post-flooding is critical to maintaining herd health and preventing disease spread. Floodwaters often carry a high load of pathogens, including bacteria, viruses, and protozoa, which can contaminate

water sources used by dairy cattle. Pathogens such as Escherichia coli, Salmonella spp., and Cryptosporidium can cause severe gastrointestinal diseases in cattle, leading to dehydration, decreased feed intake, and reduced milk production (LeJeune & Wetzel, 2007). Contaminated water can quickly spread these pathogens throughout a herd, exacerbating health issues and requiring extensive veterinary intervention. Flooding can lead to the leaching of agricultural chemicals, such as pesticides and fertilizers, into water sources. These chemical contaminants pose a significant risk to cattle health, potentially causing acute toxicity or chronic health problems. Exposure to nitrates, for example, can lead to nitrate poisoning, characterized by symptoms such as reduced growth, decreased milk production, and even death in severe cases (Ward, 2009). Ensuring the safety of water supplies post-flooding is critical to prevent chemical-related health issues.

Floodwaters can also mobilize heavy metals from industrial areas, mining sites, and other contaminated lands, leading to the contamination of water sources. Heavy metals such as lead, mercury, and cadmium can accumulate in the tissues of dairy cattle, leading to long-term health issues, including kidney damage, neurological disorders, and reproductive problems. Monitoring and mitigating heavy metal contamination in water is essential to protect cattle health and milk safety. Flooding can promote the growth of cyanobacteria (blue-green algae) in stagnant water bodies, which can produce toxins harmful to cattle. Ingesting water contaminated with cyanobacterial toxins can lead to symptoms such as liver damage, neurological effects, and, in severe cases, death (Funari & Testai, 2008). Preventing access to contaminated water and providing alternative water sources are crucial steps in mitigating these risks.

Flooding often increases the sediment load and turbidity of water sources. High sediment levels can harbor pathogens and reduce water quality, making it unsuitable for cattle consumption. Turbid water can also clog watering systems and reduce the effectiveness of water treatment processes (Warrington *et al.*, 2003). Managing sediment levels through filtration and settling ponds can help maintain water quality for livestock. Water quality directly affects milk safety and quality. Contaminated water used for cleaning milking equipment or as drinking water for cows can introduce pathogens into the milk supply, posing a risk to public health. Ensuring that water sources are free from contaminants is vital for maintaining the safety and quality of dairy products (Oliver *et al.*, 2005). Preventing water contamination involves both immediate and long-term strategies. Immediately after flooding, testing water sources for contaminants is essential to determine safety and necessary interventions. Long-term strategies include improving water infrastructure, such as using well-protected wells, implementing water filtration systems, and creating buffer zones to prevent runoff contamination. Educating farmers on best practices for maintaining water quality can also significantly reduce contamination risks.

3.2.3. Nutritional Deficiencies

Flooding can disrupt the availability and quality of feed, leading to nutritional deficiencies. Waterlogged pastures and damaged stored feed can result in mold growth and mycotoxin contamination, which pose significant health risks to dairy cattle. Nutritional deficiencies weaken cattle's immune systems and can cause a decline in milk yield and overall productivity. Flooding can devastate forage crops, which are a primary source of nutrition for dairy cattle. The destruction of pastures and stored feed reduces the availability of essential nutrients, leading to deficiencies in energy, protein, vitamins, and minerals necessary for optimal health and milk production (Khan *et al.*, 2016). Flood-damaged crops are often

unsuitable for consumption due to mold contamination, further exacerbating the shortage of quality feed. Flooding increases the risk of mold growth on feed, resulting in mycotoxin contamination. Mycotoxins, such as aflatoxins and fumonisins, can have severe health impacts on dairy cattle, including liver damage, immunosuppression, and reduced reproductive performance (Gallo *et al.*, 2015). Ingesting mycotoxin-contaminated feed can lead to poor feed intake and nutrient absorption, compounding the effects of nutritional deficiencies (Fink-Gremmels, 2008).

Protein is crucial for growth, milk production, and overall health in dairy cattle. Flooding can disrupt the supply of high-protein feed ingredients like alfalfa and soybeans, leading to protein deficiencies. Protein-deficient diets result in decreased milk yield and poor body condition, which affects the reproductive efficiency and long-term productivity of dairy cows. Energy is a critical nutrient that supports lactation and maintenance in dairy cattle. Flood-induced destruction of energy-rich feed sources such as corn silage and grain lead to energy deficiencies. Inadequate energy intake can cause a negative energy balance, resulting in weight loss, reduced milk production, and increased susceptibility to metabolic diseases such as ketosis (Van Saun, 2000). Flooding can lead to shortages of essential minerals and vitamins in cattle diets. For instance, calcium and phosphorus are vital for bone health and milk production, while vitamins A and E are important for immune function and reproduction. Deficiencies in these nutrients can cause a range of health issues, including poor growth, weakened immune response, and reproductive failures. Ensuring adequate mineral and vitamin supplementation post-flooding is essential to maintaining cattle health.

The cumulative effect of nutritional deficiencies leads to poor body condition in dairy cattle. Cows with inadequate nutrition exhibit weight loss, reduced body reserves, and poor coat condition. Poor body condition not only affects milk yield but also compromises the ability of cows to withstand stress and recover from illnesses (Wildman et al., 1982). Monitoring and managing body condition scores are crucial to ensuring the well-being of dairy cattle during and after flood events. Young calves and heifers are particularly vulnerable to the impacts of nutritional deficiencies caused by flooding. Inadequate nutrition during critical growth periods can lead to stunted growth, poor development, and delayed onset of puberty. This can have long-term effects on the productivity and reproductive performance of replacement heifers (Van Amburgh et al., 1998). Providing balanced nutrition to young stock is essential for their development and future productivity. To mitigate the impact of nutritional deficiencies, farmers can adopt several management strategies. These include ensuring the proper storage of feed to prevent water damage, using alternative feed sources, and providing nutritional supplements to address specific deficiencies (Weiss, 2014). Additionally, regular monitoring of feed quality and nutritional status can help identify and address issues promptly, ensuring that cattle receive the nutrients they need to remain healthy and productive.

3.2.4. Stress and Its Consequences

The stress associated with flooding, including the disruption of normal routines and habitats, can have significant adverse effects on dairy cattle. Stress can lead to reduced feed intake, lower milk production, and increased susceptibility to diseases (Brouček, 2014). Chronic stress can also affect reproductive performance, further impacting the economic viability of dairy farms. Flooding induces physiological stress responses in dairy cattle, triggering the release of stress hormones such as cortisol and adrenaline. These hormones prepare the body for "fight or flight" responses, redirecting energy away from essential functions like growth, reproduction, and immunity towards survival mechanisms. Prolonged

or severe stress can disrupt normal metabolic processes and compromise the health and productivity of dairy cattle. Chronic stress weakens the immune system of dairy cattle, making them more susceptible to diseases and infections. Stress hormones suppress immune function by inhibiting the production of antibodies and reducing the activity of immune cells (Brouček, 2014). This compromised immune response increases the likelihood of respiratory infections, mastitis, and other health issues, further exacerbating the consequences of flooding on cattle health (Brouček, 2014).

Stress can lead to reduced feed intake in dairy cattle, negatively impacting their nutritional status and milk production. Flood-induced stressors such as changes in routine, unfamiliar environments, and social disruption can cause anorexia and decreased rumination in cattle (Lay *et al.*, 1992). Reduced feed intake results in energy deficits and nutrient deficiencies, further contributing to the physiological strain experienced by dairy cattle during flood events. Stress alters the behavior of dairy cattle, leading to abnormal patterns such as increased aggression, restlessness, and stereotypic behaviors (Mason, 2010). Flood-induced stressors disrupt the social hierarchy within herds, causing conflicts and competition for resources (Mason, 2010). These behavioral changes not only impact animal welfare but also increase the risk of injuries and reduce overall productivity on dairy farms.

Stress can have detrimental effects on the reproductive health of dairy cattle, leading to decreased fertility rates and reproductive failures. Flood-induced stressors disrupt normal estrous cycles, delay puberty in heifers, and increase the incidence of embryonic loss and pregnancy failures (Dobson & Smith, 2000). Chronic stress can also affect semen quality and reproductive performance in bulls, further compromising the breeding success of dairy herds (Dobson & Smith, 2000). To mitigate the consequences of stress on dairy cattle health, farmers can implement several management strategies. Providing comfortable housing, adequate ventilation, and access to clean water and feed can help alleviate stress during flood events (Mellor, 2012). Additionally, minimizing disruptions to routine, avoiding overcrowding, and employing low-stress handling techniques can help reduce stress levels and promote animal welfare (Mellor, 2012). Regular monitoring of cattle behavior and health is essential to identify and address stress-related issues promptly.

3.2.5. Human Health Risks

Flooding not only affects animal health but also poses significant risks to human health. Farmers and farmworkers are at increased risk of waterborne diseases, injuries, and mental health issues due to the stress and demands of managing flood impacts. Contaminated floodwaters can expose individuals to pathogens such as E. coli and Salmonella, leading to gastrointestinal illnesses and other health complications. Flooding can contaminate food products derived from dairy cattle, posing risks to human health. Milk and dairy products from flooded farms may contain pathogens such as Escherichia coli, Salmonella, and Listeria monocytogenes, which can cause foodborne illnesses in humans. Consumption of contaminated dairy products can lead to gastrointestinal infections, food poisoning, and other adverse health outcomes, particularly in vulnerable populations such as children, the elderly, and immunocompromised individuals. Floodwaters contaminated with fecal matter, agricultural runoff, and industrial pollutants can serve as vectors for waterborne diseases. Human exposure to contaminated water sources used for drinking, recreation, or irrigation can result in infections caused by bacteria, viruses, and parasites (Hunter *et al.*, 2010). Diseases such as gastroenteritis, hepatitis, and cryptosporidiosis can spread rapidly in flood-

affected areas, posing significant public health risks, and placing additional strain on healthcare systems.

Flooding creates conducive environments for the proliferation of disease vectors such as mosquitoes, ticks, and flies. Standing water and flooded areas provide breeding grounds for these vectors, increasing the risk of vector-borne diseases such as West Nile virus, dengue fever, and Lyme disease (Reisen, 2010). Human exposure to infected vectors can lead to debilitating illnesses, with symptoms ranging from mild fever to severe neurological complications (Reisen, 2010). Effective vector control measures are essential to mitigate the spread of these diseases in flood-affected communities. Flood-damaged buildings and damp environments promote mold growth, which can release spores and mycotoxins into the air. Inhalation of mold spores and exposure to mycotoxins can cause respiratory problems, and allergies (Burge, 2010). Prolonged exposure to mold-contaminated indoor environments poses risks to human respiratory health and can lead to chronic health issues if left unaddressed (Burge, 2010).

Flood events can have profound psychological impacts on affected individuals, leading to stress, anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Norris et al., 2002). Loss of property, displacement, financial strain, and disruption of social support networks contribute to increased psychological distress in flood-affected populations (Norris et al., 2002). Mental health consequences can persist long after the floodwaters recede, necessitating comprehensive psychosocial support and mental health services for affected communities. The human health impacts of flooding extend beyond physical and psychological consequences to encompass economic burdens. Outbreaks of waterborne and vector-borne diseases strain healthcare resources, increase healthcare costs, and result in productivity losses due to illness and absenteeism (Keim, 2008). The economic burden of flood-related health risks underscores the importance of investing in preventive measures, early detection, and rapid response to mitigate human health impacts and minimize economic losses. Building community resilience to the human health risks of flooding requires integrated approaches that address social, economic, and environmental factors. Investments in infrastructure, early warning systems, healthcare capacity, and public health interventions are essential for reducing vulnerability and enhancing preparedness (Keim, 2008). Empowering communities to develop adaptive strategies, strengthen social networks, and access support services can foster resilience and improve outcomes in the face of future flood events.

3.3. Vector-borne Diseases

Flooding creates ideal conditions for the proliferation of mosquitoes and other vectors that transmit diseases. Stagnant water serves as breeding grounds for mosquitoes, increasing the risk of diseases such as West Nile virus and other vector-borne illnesses that can affect both livestock and humans. Effective vector control measures are essential to mitigate these health risks post-flooding. Flooding creates favorable conditions for the proliferation of disease vectors such as mosquitoes, ticks, and flies. Stagnant water accumulates in flooded areas, providing breeding grounds for mosquitoes, which are vectors for diseases such as West Nile virus, dengue fever, and Zika virus (Focks *et al.*, 2000). Increased vector populations elevate the risk of disease transmission to both humans and animals, particularly in regions where vector-borne diseases are endemic. Floodwaters can introduce vector species to new habitats, facilitating their establishment and spread. Mosquito larvae, for example, thrive in shallow, stagnant water, which is abundant in flooded areas (Reisen, 2010). Flood-induced

changes in water levels and landscape features create suitable breeding sites for mosquitoes, increasing the risk of vector-borne disease transmission to nearby communities.

Flooding disrupts human settlements, displaces populations, and alters human-vector interactions, influencing the transmission dynamics of vector-borne diseases. Displaced individuals may relocate to temporary shelters or refugee camps, where overcrowding and inadequate sanitation facilitate disease transmission (Keiser & Utzinger, 2008). Vector-borne diseases can spread rapidly among displaced populations, exacerbating the public health impact of flooding. Climate change exacerbates the impact of flooding on vector-borne disease transmission. Rising temperatures and altered precipitation patterns create conducive environments for vector proliferation and expand the geographical range of vector-borne diseases. Flooding events become more frequent and intense due to climate change, leading to recurrent outbreaks of vector-borne diseases in vulnerable populations. Effective vector control strategies are essential for mitigating the impact of flooding on vector-borne disease transmission. Integrated vector management approaches, including habitat modification, larval control, insecticide application, and community engagement, can reduce vector populations and prevent disease transmission. Targeted vector surveillance and early warning systems enable timely detection and response to emerging vector-borne disease threats.

Building community resilience to vector-borne diseases involves empowering communities to actively participate in disease prevention and control efforts. Community-based vector control programs, education campaigns, and capacity-building initiatives enhance local knowledge and skills in vector management (Binder *et al.*, 2017). Engaging communities in the design and implementation of vector control interventions promotes sustainable solutions and strengthens community resilience to vector-borne disease outbreaks.

3.4. Respiratory Issues

Exposure to mold and fungal spores, which thrive in the damp conditions following a flood, can lead to respiratory problems for both cattle and humans. Conditions like farmer's lung and other respiratory illnesses can significantly impact the health and productivity of farmworkers and livestock. Ensuring proper ventilation and sanitation in barns and storage areas is critical to preventing these health issues. Flooding often leads to increased moisture levels in homes and buildings, creating an ideal environment for mold and fungi to grow. Exposure to mold spores can cause a range of respiratory issues, including allergic reactions, asthma exacerbations, and hypersensitivity pneumonitis (Burge, 2010). Prolonged exposure to mold-contaminated environments can lead to chronic respiratory conditions and decreased lung function (Mendell *et al.*, 2011). Flooding can significantly deteriorate indoor air quality by introducing pollutants such as bacteria, viruses, and chemical contaminants. Standing water and damp conditions promote the growth of microorganisms and the release of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from building materials. Inhaling these pollutants can cause respiratory symptoms such as coughing, wheezing, and shortness of breath, especially in individuals with pre-existing respiratory conditions.

Flood cleanup activities often generate airborne particulate matter, which can be inhaled and cause respiratory irritation. Dust and debris from damaged buildings, as well as soil particles disturbed during cleanup efforts, contribute to increased levels of particulate matter in the air. Inhaling these particles can aggravate respiratory conditions such as asthma and bronchitis, and long-term exposure can lead to chronic respiratory diseases. The use of gasoline-powered generators and other combustion devices during and after floods can increase the risk of carbon monoxide (CO) poisoning. Poorly ventilated spaces where these devices are used can accumulate high levels of CO, leading to symptoms such as headaches, dizziness, and shortness of breath, and in severe cases, it can be fatal. Ensuring proper ventilation and the use of CO detectors can mitigate these risks.

Flooding can exacerbate asthma and allergies due to increased exposure to allergens and irritants. Damp environments and mold growth can trigger asthma attacks and allergic reactions in sensitive individuals (Fisk *et al.*, 2010). The stress and anxiety associated with flood events can also exacerbate respiratory conditions, highlighting the need for comprehensive health support for affected individuals (Fisk *et al.*, 2010). To address respiratory issues associated with flooding, public health interventions should focus on improving indoor air quality, reducing mold and particulate exposure, and providing education on safe cleanup practices. Programs to monitor air quality and offer respiratory health services are crucial in flood-affected areas. Community outreach and support services can help individuals manage respiratory conditions and access necessary medical care during and after flood events.

3.5. The Economic Impact of Flooding on Dairy Farms

3.5.1. Immediate Financial Losses

Apart from direct damage to physical assets, flooding results in immediate financial losses due to disruptions in dairy farm operations (**Table 3**). The inability to milk cows, maintain regular feeding schedules, and provide adequate veterinary care leads to reduced milk production and quality, impacting farm income (Acharya, 2020; Grout *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, the loss of perishable goods such as stored feed and harvested crops exacerbates the financial strain on farmers (Nettles, 2018). Flooding causes immediate financial losses for dairy farms through the destruction of crops. Crops grown for cattle feed, such as hay and silage, are particularly vulnerable to floodwaters, which can submerge fields and ruin entire harvests. The loss of feed crops not only deprives dairy farmers of essential nutrition for their cattle but also represents a direct financial loss in terms of lost revenue from the sale of surplus feed.

Flood events can result in immediate livestock losses, further exacerbating the financial impact on dairy farms. Cattle may drown or suffer from injuries during flooding, leading to mortality rates that vary depending on the severity and duration of the flood (Merz *et al.*, 2009). The loss of valuable dairy cows represents a significant financial setback for farmers, who must bear the costs of replacing lost animals and rebuilding their herds. Flooding causes damage to farm infrastructure, including barns, milking parlors, and equipment sheds. The force of floodwaters can compromise the structural integrity of buildings, leading to collapsed roofs, weakened foundations, and structural damage. The immediate financial impact of infrastructure damage includes repair and reconstruction costs, which can be substantial and strain farm budgets already stretched by other flood-related expenses. Disruption to dairy farm operations during flooding can result in milk spoilage, leading to financial losses for farmers. The inability to refrigerate and transport milk due to power outages or impassable roads can result in large quantities of milk being discarded as unfit for human consumption (Nettles, 2018). This represents a direct loss of revenue for dairy farmers, who rely on milk sales as a primary source of income.

Flood events often necessitate increased operating expenses for dairy farms in the form of emergency measures and temporary solutions. Farmers may incur additional costs for emergency veterinary care, temporary housing for displaced cattle, and rental or purchase of equipment to replace flood-damaged machinery. These unplanned expenses further strain

farm finances and contribute to the immediate financial losses experienced during flooding. Flooding disrupts labor availability and productivity on dairy farms, leading to additional financial losses. Farm workers may be unable to reach the farm due to flooded roads or may be diverted to emergency response efforts, reducing the workforce available for routine farm tasks (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). The loss of labor productivity can result in decreased efficiency and output, translating into financial losses for the farm.

Туре	Challenges	Effects	References
Economic	Immediate	Reduced milk production and quality, loss of cattle,	Gaviglio <i>et al</i> . (2019);
Impact	Financial	emergency measures, and temporary solutions can	Paulick <i>et al</i> . (2021)
	Losses	impact farm income	
	Increased	Diminish the farm's financial resources, borrowing,	Davies (2016); Pan &
	Operational	and lead to health issues	Qiu (2022)
	Costs		
	Long-term	Decreased land productivity, impacting agricultural	Soulibouth et al.
	Economic	productivity and profitability, disrupts dairy farm	(2021)
	Impact	businesses in the long term, leading to loss of	
		market share and customer relationships	
	Market	Disrupt supply chains and affect market prices, price	Sun <i>et al</i> . (2022)
	Disruptions	fluctuations, delays in fulfilling international	
	•	contracts, loss of customers	
	Loss of	Cease operations and potential sales of land,	De Vries <i>et al</i> . (2017)
	Livelihoods	poverty, and unemployment, lead to increased	
		stress, anxiety, depression, and death	

Table 3. The economic impacts on th	e dairy cattle farms.
-------------------------------------	-----------------------

3.5.2. Increased Operational Costs

Flooding imposes additional operational costs on dairy farms during the recovery phase. These costs include expenses for emergency repairs, cleaning, and decontaminating facilities, and replacing damaged equipment. Temporary measures, such as renting milking equipment or purchasing feed supplements, further contribute to increased operational expenditures (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). These unforeseen costs diminish the farm's financial resources and may necessitate borrowing or seeking financial assistance. Flooding necessitates immediate repairs and replacements of damaged infrastructure and equipment on dairy farms. This includes repairing flood-damaged buildings, replacing equipment such as milking machines and feeders, and restoring electrical systems (De Vries *et al.*, 2017). The urgency of these repairs often requires farmers to incur additional costs for expedited services and materials, adding to the overall financial burden of flood recovery.

After flooding, dairy farms must undergo thorough cleaning and decontamination procedures to ensure the safety of facilities and livestock. This involves removing sediment, debris, and contaminants from barns, milking parlors, and feed storage areas. The cost of cleaning agents, disinfectants, and labor for these tasks can be substantial, particularly for farms with extensive flood damage or large-scale operations. Flooding can lead to health issues in dairy cattle, necessitating emergency veterinary care and treatment. Common flood-related health concerns include waterborne diseases, foot infections, and stress-related ailments (Merz *et al.*, 2009). Dairy farmers incur additional expenses for veterinary services,

medications, and diagnostic tests to address these health issues and prevent disease outbreaks among their herds. During the recovery phase, dairy farms may need to implement temporary solutions to maintain essential operations. This could include renting temporary housing for displaced cattle, leasing equipment to replace flood-damaged machinery, or purchasing emergency feed supplies. While these temporary measures are essential for ensuring the continuity of farm operations, they come with associated costs that contribute to increased operational expenses.

Flooding can disrupt transportation networks, increasing the cost of transporting goods and materials to and from dairy farms. Farmers may need to arrange alternative transportation routes or utilize specialized vehicles to navigate flooded roads and bridges (Nettles, 2018). These transportation challenges can lead to higher fuel costs, vehicle maintenance expenses, and logistical complexities, adding to the overall operational costs incurred by dairy farms. The disruption caused by flooding can result in a loss of productivity on dairy farms, further increasing operational costs. Delays in routine tasks such as milking, feeding, and cleaning can reduce overall farm efficiency and output (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). The need for additional labor to address these delays, along with the associated overtime pay and labor recruitment costs, contributes to the financial burden faced by dairy farmers.

3.5.3. Long-term Economic Impact

The long-term economic impact of flooding extends beyond immediate losses. Structural damage to buildings and infrastructure may reduce property values and deter investment in affected areas (De Vries *et al.*, 2017). Additionally, decreased land productivity due to soil erosion and nutrient depletion can affect crop yields and farm profitability over multiple growing seasons (Merz *et al.*, 2009). The cumulative effect of these long-term impacts can hinder the farm's ability to recover financially and impede its long-term sustainability. Flooding can lead to long-term soil degradation on dairy farms, impacting agricultural productivity and profitability. Soil erosion caused by floodwaters can strip away topsoil layers, reducing soil fertility and nutrient content. This degradation affects the ability of farmers to grow feed crops and pasture grasses, ultimately leading to decreased milk production and increased reliance on costly external inputs such as fertilizers and supplements.

The long-term economic impact of flooding includes ongoing maintenance costs for repairing and reinforcing farm infrastructure. Structural damage to buildings, fences, and drainage systems must be addressed to prevent further deterioration and ensure the safety and functionality of farm facilities (De Vries *et al.*, 2017). Investing in infrastructure maintenance is essential for preserving the long-term value of dairy farms and mitigating future flood risks. Repeated flooding can diminish the value of agricultural land, affecting the overall financial viability of dairy farming operations. Properties located in flood-prone areas may experience decreased demand from potential buyers and reduced market value (Merz *et al.*, 2009). The depreciation of land value limits farmers' ability to leverage their assets for loans or investments, constraining their options for future expansion or diversification. The long-term economic impact of flooding includes changes in insurance premiums for dairy farms. Following flood events, insurance companies may adjust premiums to reflect the increased risk of future flooding (Nettles, 2018). Higher insurance costs can place additional financial strain on dairy farmers, particularly those already struggling with reduced income and increased operational expenses due to flooding.

Flooding can disrupt dairy farm businesses in the long term, leading to loss of market share and customer relationships. Interruptions in milk production and supply chain disruptions may result in decreased customer satisfaction and loyalty. Rebuilding trust and regaining market share after a flood event can be a challenging and time-consuming process, impacting the long-term financial stability and competitiveness of dairy farms. The long-term economic impact of flooding includes compliance costs associated with environmental regulations aimed at mitigating flood risk and protecting natural resources. Regulatory requirements for floodplain management, water quality protection, and habitat restoration may impose additional costs on dairy farmers (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). Adapting to these regulations and investing in environmentally sustainable practices can entail upfront expenses but may lead to long-term benefits in terms of resource conservation and resilience.

3.5.4. Market Disruptions

Flooding disrupts the market dynamics for dairy products, leading to price fluctuations and reduced market access for farmers. The decrease in milk production following a flood event can disrupt supply chains and affect market prices. Farmers may also face challenges in meeting contractual obligations with dairy processors and distributors, resulting in financial penalties or contract renegotiations. Market uncertainty and volatility further compound the economic uncertainty faced by dairy farmers in flood-affected regions. Flooding disrupts the dairy supply chain, leading to market disruptions and volatility in dairy product prices. Interruptions in milk collection and transportation due to flooded roads and infrastructure can delay or prevent dairy products from reaching processing facilities and consumers (Nettles, 2018). This disruption can create temporary shortages in the market, leading to increased competition among dairy processors and distributors for limited supplies.

Market disruptions caused by flooding often result in price fluctuations for dairy products, impacting both producers and consumers. The decrease in milk production following a flood event can lead to increased demand for dairy products, driving up prices in the short term. Conversely, prolonged disruptions in the supply chain and reduced consumer confidence may result in lower demand and downward pressure on prices over time. Flooding can affect dairy farmers' ability to fulfill contractual obligations with dairy processors and distributors, leading to financial losses and contractual disputes. Farmers may be unable to deliver agreed-upon quantities of milk due to disruptions in production or transportation, resulting in penalties or contract renegotiations (Uddin et al., 2014). These contractual uncertainties add to the financial stress faced by dairy farmers during and after flood events. Flood-related infrastructure damage can restrict dairy farmers' access to markets, limiting their ability to sell milk and dairy products. Roads and bridges may be impassable, preventing farmers from transporting goods to market or accessing dairy processing facilities (Merz et al., 2009). Market access challenges exacerbate the financial impact of flooding by reducing farmers' revenue opportunities and increasing their reliance on local markets, which may offer lower prices for dairy products.

Market disruptions resulting from flooding can lead to the loss of customers for dairy farmers, particularly if interruptions in supply lead to inconsistent product availability. Consumers may turn to alternative sources for dairy products or choose imported products over locally produced ones. Rebuilding customer trust and loyalty after a flood event requires farmers to invest in marketing efforts and product quality assurance measures, adding to their financial burden. Flooding can impact dairy farmers' access to export markets, affecting the competitiveness of dairy products on the global stage. Disruptions in production and supply chain logistics may result in missed export opportunities or delays in fulfilling international contracts (De Vries *et al.*, 2017). The loss of export revenue further contributes to the

economic impact of flooding on dairy farms and can hinder the long-term growth and sustainability of the dairy industry.

3.6. Loss of Livelihoods

In severe cases, flooding can lead to the loss of livelihoods for dairy farmers and their families. The combination of immediate financial losses, increased debt burden, and long-term economic challenges may force farmers to cease operations or sell their land (Acharya, 2020). The loss of dairy farming as a source of income not only affects individual families but also has broader socio-economic implications for rural communities, including reduced employment opportunities and population decline (Nettles, 2018). Severe flooding can lead to the loss of livelihoods for dairy farmers, forcing them to cease operations and potentially sell their land. The combination of extensive flood damage, financial losses, and uncertainty about future flooding events may render dairy farming economically unviable for some farmers (Nettles, 2018). As a result, farmers may be forced to make the difficult decision to close their farms, leading to the loss of their primary source of income and livelihood.

The loss of livelihoods due to flooding extends beyond individual farmers to encompass entire rural communities dependent on dairy farming. Farm closures and reductions in dairy production can result in economic displacement for farm workers, suppliers, and service providers reliant on the dairy industry for employment and income (Merz *et al.*, 2009). The ripple effect of job losses and reduced economic activity can destabilize local economies and contribute to poverty and unemployment in rural areas. In cases of severe and repeated flooding, dairy farmers may be compelled to relocate their operations to higher ground or away from flood-prone areas. The financial and logistical challenges associated with relocating a dairy farm, including purchasing new land, constructing new facilities, and transporting livestock and equipment, can be prohibitively expensive. Forced relocation disrupts established farming communities and may result in the loss of social ties and support networks.

The loss of livelihoods due to flooding can have inter-generational impacts on dairy farming families, affecting the prospects and aspirations of future generations. Young people growing up on flood-affected dairy farms may be deterred from pursuing careers in agriculture due to the perceived risks and uncertainties associated with farming in flood-prone regions (Uddin *et al.*, 2014). This loss of human capital and agricultural knowledge further diminishes the resilience and sustainability of rural communities. The loss of livelihoods in the dairy farming sector contributes to the decline of rural communities dependent on agriculture. As farms close and populations decrease, rural schools, businesses, and social services may face closure or downsizing. The loss of community infrastructure and amenities further erodes the quality of life for remaining residents, leading to a cycle of decline that is difficult to reverse.

The loss of livelihoods due to flooding has profound psychological effects on dairy farmers and their families. Forced farm closures and economic displacement can lead to feelings of failure, grief, and anxiety about the future (Acharya, 2020). The loss of identity tied to farming and the disruption of social connections within the agricultural community exacerbate the emotional toll of flooding-related livelihood losses. The economic impact of flooding extends beyond monetary losses to include psychological stress and emotional toll on dairy farmers. The uncertainty regarding the farm's financial future, coupled with the physical and emotional exhaustion from recovery efforts, can lead to increased stress, anxiety, and depression among farmers. Addressing the psychological impact of flooding is essential for supporting farmers' mental health and resilience in the face of adversity.

The economic impact of flooding on dairy farms can have significant psychological repercussions for farmers and their families, leading to increased stress and anxiety. The uncertainty surrounding the farm's financial future, coupled with the physical and emotional strain of flood recovery efforts, can contribute to heightened levels of stress (Acharya, 2020). Farmers may experience anxiety about their ability to rebuild their livelihoods and provide for their families in the aftermath of a flood event. The psychological impact of flooding on dairy farms can manifest in symptoms of depression among farmers and their families. The loss of income, livelihoods, and sense of security associated with farm closures and economic displacement can trigger feelings of hopelessness and despair (Nettles, 2018). Farmers may struggle to cope with the emotional toll of flood-related losses and changes to their way of life, leading to persistent feelings of sadness and isolation. Flooding can result in profound feelings of grief and loss for dairy farmers, particularly in cases where farm closures or forced relocations occur. Farmers may mourn the loss of their farms, livelihoods, and sense of identity tied to farming (Merz et al., 2009). The emotional impact of saying goodbye to the land, animals, and community connections built over generations can be devastating and may require support from mental health professionals and community resources.

The psychological impact of flooding on dairy farms can contribute to social isolation and withdrawal among farmers and their families. The stigma associated with financial hardship and farm closures may prevent farmers from seeking support from friends, neighbors, or community organizations. Social isolation can exacerbate feelings of loneliness and exacerbate mental health issues such as depression and anxiety. Farmers may employ various coping mechanisms to deal with the psychological impact of flooding, including seeking social support, engaging in physical activity, or practicing mindfulness and relaxation techniques (Uddin et al., 2014). However, limited access to mental health services and cultural barriers to seeking help may hinder farmers' ability to cope effectively with flood-related stressors. Addressing the psychological impact of flooding requires targeted interventions that promote mental health awareness, reduce stigma, and improve access to counseling and support services for farmers and rural communities. Despite the psychological challenges posed by flooding, dairy farmers demonstrate resilience and adaptability in the face of adversity. Drawing on their deep connection to the land and their communities, farmers may find strength in collective support networks and traditional coping strategies passed down through generations (De Vries et al., 2017). Fostering resilience and promoting mental wellbeing among dairy farmers are essential components of comprehensive flood recovery and mitigation efforts.

3.7. Mitigation Strategies

3.7.1. Flood-Resistant Infrastructure

Implementing flood-resistant infrastructure is crucial for mitigating the economic impact of flooding on dairy farms (**Figure 1**). This includes elevating buildings and critical equipment above flood levels, constructing levees or flood barriers, and installing drainage systems to divert water away from farm structures. Investing in flood-resistant infrastructure reduces the likelihood of damage during flood events and minimizes the need for costly repairs and replacements. One of the key strategies for creating flood-resistant infrastructure on dairy farms is elevating critical structures above the expected flood levels. This includes raising barns, storage facilities, and milking parlors on stilts or higher foundations to prevent water from entering during floods (McNally *et al.*, 2018). Elevating buildings helps to protect valuable assets and reduces the risk of water damage, which can be costly to repair. Constructing flood barriers and levees around dairy farms can provide a physical barrier against floodwaters. These structures can be built using earth, concrete, or other materials to create a protective barrier that prevents water from inundating farm buildings and pastures (Smith *et al.*, 2020). Properly designed and maintained levees and barriers are effective in minimizing flood damage and safeguarding livestock and equipment. Implementing water diversion systems, such as trenches, ditches, and swales, can help manage floodwaters and reduce the impact on dairy farms. These systems are designed to direct excess water away from critical areas, such as animal housing and feed storage, to minimize flooding and waterlogging (Moss *et al.*, 2019). Effective water diversion helps maintain the usability of farm infrastructure and reduces the potential for contamination and spoilage.

Floodproofing techniques involve making buildings more resistant to flood damage through modifications such as sealing walls, installing waterproof doors and windows, and using water-resistant building materials. These measures help prevent water ingress and reduce damage to the structure and its contents during a flood event (Sadig et al., 2017). Floodproofing is an essential component of a comprehensive flood-resistance strategy, enhancing the overall resilience of dairy farm infrastructure. Improving drainage systems on dairy farms is crucial for reducing the risk of flooding. This includes installing or upgrading drainage tiles, surface drains, and culverts to facilitate the efficient removal of excess water from fields and around buildings (Gould et al., 2016). Effective drainage systems prevent water accumulation, reduce soil erosion, and help maintain the structural integrity of farm facilities during heavy rainfall and flood events. Ensuring that power systems are resilient to flooding is another important aspect of flood-resistant infrastructure. This includes elevating electrical panels, backup generators, and other critical electrical components above potential flood levels, as well as using waterproof enclosures and connections (Lloyd et al., 2017). Maintaining a reliable power supply during and after flood events is essential for operating milking equipment, ventilation systems, and other critical farm functions.



Figure 1. Mitigation strategies of the impact on dairy cattle farms.

3.7.2. Risk Assessment and Planning

Conducting comprehensive risk assessments and developing flood preparedness plans are essential for minimizing the economic impact of flooding on dairy farms. Farmers can identify flood-prone areas on their properties, assess potential risks to buildings and infrastructure, and develop strategies to mitigate these risks. By proactively planning for flood events, farmers can minimize damage, protect livestock and assets, and expedite recovery efforts. Effective risk assessment and planning for dairy farms start with identifying potential flood hazards specific to the farm's location. This involves mapping flood-prone areas, understanding historical flood patterns, and assessing the likelihood and severity of different types of flooding (Plough *et al.*, 2018). Using geographic information systems (GIS) and flood modeling tools, farmers can visualize areas at risk and prioritize interventions to protect critical infrastructure and resources.

A thorough vulnerability analysis helps dairy farmers understand which aspects of their operations are most at risk from flooding. This includes evaluating the susceptibility of buildings, equipment, livestock, and crops to flood damage (Aerts *et al.*, 2014). By identifying vulnerabilities, farmers can develop targeted strategies to reinforce weak points, such as upgrading flood defenses for vulnerable structures or relocating high-risk assets to safer areas. Conducting an impact assessment involves estimating the potential economic, environmental, and social consequences of flood events on dairy farms. This includes quantifying potential financial losses, assessing the impact on milk production and animal health, and evaluating the broader implications for community livelihoods and local economies (Ward *et al.*, 2016). An impact assessment provides a comprehensive understanding of the potential costs of flooding, informing more effective planning and resource allocation.

Developing an emergency response plan is crucial for minimizing the impact of flooding on dairy farms. This plan should outline procedures for evacuating livestock, protecting feed and equipment, and ensuring the safety of farm personnel (Cutter *et al.*, 2017). Emergency response plans should be regularly updated and practiced through drills to ensure all farm workers are familiar with their roles and responsibilities during a flood event. Business continuity planning helps dairy farms prepare for the financial and operational disruptions caused by flooding. This involves creating strategies to maintain critical farm operations during and after flood events, such as securing alternative feed supplies, arranging temporary shelter for livestock, and identifying backup power sources (Bubeck *et al.*, 2013). Business continuity plans should also include contingencies for accessing emergency funding and insurance claims to support recovery efforts.

Engaging with local communities, government agencies, and other stakeholders is essential for effective flood risk assessment and planning. Collaborative efforts can enhance the sharing of information, resources, and expertise, leading to more robust flood preparedness strategies (Mees *et al.*, 2016). Farmers can participate in community-based flood management initiatives, contribute to local emergency response planning, and advocate for regional infrastructure improvements to reduce flood risks. Risk assessment and planning are ongoing processes that require regular monitoring and updating to remain effective. Farmers should periodically review and revise their risk assessments, emergency response plans, and business continuity strategies to reflect changes in flood risk, farm operations, and technological advancements. Continuous improvement ensures that mitigation measures remain relevant and effective in the face of evolving flood threats.

3.7.3. Diversification of Income Streams

Diversifying income streams is an effective strategy for reducing the economic vulnerability of dairy farms to flooding. Farmers can explore alternative revenue sources such as agritourism, value-added dairy products, or off-farm employment to supplement income from milk production. Diversification provides financial resilience during periods of low milk prices or production disruptions caused by flooding, helping farmers maintain economic stability. Agritourism offers dairy farmers an opportunity to generate additional income by opening their farms to visitors. Activities such as farm tours, dairy product tastings, and interactive experiences like milking cows or cheese-making workshops can attract tourists and provide a steady revenue stream (Barbieri & Mahoney, 2009). By diversifying through agritourism, farmers can buffer their income against the losses incurred during flood events and increase public awareness of agricultural practices.

Investing in renewable energy projects, such as installing solar panels or wind turbines, can provide dairy farms with a supplementary income source. These projects not only generate electricity for farm operations but also allow farmers to sell excess energy back to the grid (Raghuvanshi *et al.*, 2017). Renewable energy projects can help stabilize farm income by reducing energy costs and providing a new revenue stream, making farms more resilient to financial fluctuations caused by flooding. Producing value-added dairy products, such as cheese, yogurt, or ice cream, allows farmers to capture a larger share of the consumer market and increase their profit margins. This diversification reduces reliance on raw milk sales, which can be vulnerable to price volatility and production disruptions caused by flooding (Wolfe & Stubbs, 2016). Developing a range of dairy products can also open new markets and create brand loyalty, providing a more stable income source.

Pursuing off-farm employment is another way for dairy farmers to diversify their income streams. This can include part-time work in related industries such as agricultural consulting, machinery repair, or agribusiness management. Off-farm employment provides a steady income that can help cushion the financial impact of flood events on farm operations (Mishra et al., 2011). Additionally, skills and networks gained through off-farm employment can enhance farm management and business resilience. Leasing farmland for alternative uses, such as recreational activities, hunting, or conservation projects, can provide dairy farmers with an additional income source. This strategy not only generates rental income but can also contribute to land conservation and biodiversity (Gosnell & Travis, 2005). Leasing land for non-agricultural purposes can be particularly beneficial during periods of low dairy production due to flooding, offering financial stability and land use diversification. Entering niche markets, such as organic dairy production or specialty dairy breeds, can help farmers diversify their income streams. Organic and specialty products often command higher prices due to consumer demand for sustainably produced and unique products (Smith et al., 2013). Transitioning to organic or niche markets can provide a premium price for dairy products, making farms less susceptible to financial losses during adverse events like flooding.

3.7.4. Insurance and Risk Management

Obtaining comprehensive insurance coverage and implementing risk management strategies are essential for mitigating the financial impact of flooding on dairy farms. Farmers can purchase flood insurance policies that cover property damage, livestock losses, and business interruption expenses (see in https://www.ifrc.org/Global/Documents/Secretariat/201804/Flood%20Resilience%20A%20 Basic%20Guidebook.pdf). Additionally, implementing risk management practices such as maintaining accurate records, investing in emergency savings, and participating in

government disaster assistance programs can help farmers recover more quickly from floodrelated losses. Securing comprehensive insurance coverage is a fundamental aspect of risk management for dairy farms. This includes obtaining policies that cover property damage, livestock losses, crop failures, and business interruption due to flooding. Comprehensive coverage ensures that farmers can recover financial losses and rebuild their operations after a flood event. Tailored insurance policies can also provide specific protections for unique farm assets and activities, enhancing overall resilience.

Parametric insurance is an innovative risk management tool that can provide swift financial support to dairy farmers in the aftermath of a flood. Unlike traditional insurance, parametric insurance pays out based on predefined parameters, such as rainfall levels or river heights, rather than actual losses. This allows for quicker disbursement of funds, enabling farmers to address immediate needs and begin recovery efforts more rapidly. Parametric insurance can be particularly useful in regions prone to frequent flooding. Regular risk assessments and evaluations are crucial for identifying potential vulnerabilities and improving flood preparedness on dairy farms. By conducting detailed assessments of their infrastructure, operations, and geographical location, farmers can understand their exposure to flood risks and implement appropriate mitigation measures (McCarthy *et al.*, 2018). Continuous monitoring and evaluation help ensure that risk management strategies remain effective and relevant.

Diversifying risk management strategies helps dairy farms become more resilient to the multifaceted impacts of flooding. This includes combining insurance with other financial instruments, such as savings accounts, emergency funds, and lines of credit. Diversified risk management ensures that farmers have multiple layers of protection and resources to draw upon during flood events, reducing dependency on any single solution. Engaging with financial services and institutions is essential for effective risk management on dairy farms. Financial institutions can offer tailored products, such as low-interest loans and credit lines, to support flood mitigation investments and recovery efforts. Establishing strong relationships with banks and financial advisors enables farmers to access necessary funds promptly and manage their financial health during and after flood events.

Participating in government and community risk management programs can provide additional support and resources for dairy farmers facing flood risks. These programs often offer subsidies for insurance premiums, grants for flood mitigation projects, and technical assistance for emergency planning (Botzen & van den Bergh, 2008). Collaboration with local government and community organizations can enhance the overall effectiveness of risk management strategies. Investing in training and capacity building for farm managers and workers is essential for effective risk management. Education programs focused on flood risk awareness, emergency response procedures, and insurance options can empower farmers to make informed decisions and take proactive steps to protect their operations. Continuous training ensures that all farm personnel are prepared to respond effectively to flood events.

3.7.5. Sustainable Land Management

Adopting sustainable land management practices can mitigate the long-term economic impact of flooding on dairy farms by enhancing soil health and resilience. Practices such as conservation tillage, cover cropping, and rotational grazing improve soil structure, increase water infiltration rates, and reduce erosion. Healthy soils are better able to absorb and retain water during flood events, reducing the risk of soil degradation and crop loss. Implementing conservation tillage practices, such as no-till or reduced tillage, helps to minimize soil disturbance and erosion, promoting soil health and resilience to flooding. By leaving crop residues on the soil surface, conservation tillage increases water infiltration rates, reduces runoff, and enhances soil structure, thereby mitigating the impacts of heavy rainfall and flooding on agricultural land. Integrating cover crops into crop rotations provides multiple benefits for sustainable land management, including improved soil structure, increased organic matter content, and enhanced water retention capacity (Mischler *et al.*, 2010). Cover crops protect bare soil from erosion during heavy rainfall events, reduce sediment runoff, and contribute to flood risk reduction by stabilizing soil aggregates and reducing surface water flow velocities.

Establishing riparian buffer zones along watercourses and drainage channels helps to protect water quality, reduce sedimentation, and mitigate the impacts of flooding on agricultural land (Kreutzwiser *et al.*, 2010). Vegetated buffer strips absorb excess nutrients and pollutants from surface runoff, preventing contamination of water bodies and reducing the risk of agricultural runoff-related flooding downstream. Integrating trees and shrubs into agricultural landscapes through agroforestry systems offers numerous benefits for sustainable land management and flood risk reduction (Jose, 2009). Agroforestry practices, such as alley cropping and silvopasture, improve soil structure, enhance biodiversity, and increase water infiltration rates, thereby reducing the susceptibility of agricultural land to flooding and soil erosion. Restoring degraded wetlands and creating new wetland habitats can help mitigate the impacts of flooding on agricultural land by providing natural flood attenuation and water storage functions. Wetlands act as sponges during heavy rainfall events, absorbing excess water and reducing peak flows, thereby lowering flood risk downstream and protecting adjacent agricultural areas from inundation.

Installing grass waterways in agricultural fields helps to channel excess surface water away from vulnerable areas, reducing soil erosion and flood risk (Smith *et al.*, 2015). Grass waterways function as natural drainage channels, allowing water to flow across fields without causing damage to crop or soil structure, thereby minimizing the impacts of heavy rainfall and flooding on agricultural land. Adopting soil conservation practices, such as terracing, contour farming, and grassed waterways, helps to prevent soil erosion, improve water retention, and enhance the resilience of agricultural land to flooding (Montgomery, 2007). By reducing soil erosion rates and maintaining soil structure, soil conservation practices protect valuable topsoil and ensure the long-term productivity and sustainability of agricultural landscapes.

3.7.6. Community Collaboration

Collaborating with local communities, government agencies, and non-profit organizations is essential for implementing effective flood mitigation strategies on dairy farms. Farmers can participate in watershed management initiatives, community-based flood mapping projects, and cooperative disaster preparedness efforts. By working together, stakeholders can leverage resources, share expertise, and coordinate response efforts to mitigate the economic impact of flooding on dairy farms and surrounding areas. Community collaboration enables dairy farmers to pool resources and expertise to tackle flood-related challenges more effectively. By working together, farmers can share equipment, such as pumps and sandbags, and knowledge about best practices for flood mitigation and recovery (Nguyen *et al.*, 2021). This collective approach reduces individual costs and ensures that resources are used more efficiently, enhancing the overall resilience of the farming community.

Developing cooperative emergency response plans within the community ensures a coordinated approach to managing flood events. These plans outline shared responsibilities, communication strategies, and resource allocation, helping to streamline efforts during a

crisis (Cutter *et al.*, 2014). Regular joint training exercises and simulations can improve preparedness and ensure that all community members know their roles and responsibilities in the event of a flood. Farmers can benefit from collective bargaining and advocacy through community collaboration. By forming cooperatives or alliances, they can negotiate better terms for insurance, access to government aid, and funding for flood mitigation projects. Unified advocacy efforts can also influence policy changes at the local, state, and national levels, promoting more favorable conditions and support for flood-prone agricultural areas.

Community collaboration facilitates knowledge exchange and training opportunities. Farmers can learn from each other's experiences and successes in flood management, adopting effective practices and avoiding common pitfalls (Ingram *et al.*, 2016). Local workshops, seminars, and field days organized by community groups provide platforms for sharing information on topics such as sustainable land management, flood-resistant infrastructure, and emergency preparedness. Implementing community-based monitoring and early warning systems enhances flood preparedness and response. Local networks can monitor rainfall, river levels, and weather forecasts, providing timely information to farmers (Tall *et al.*, 2018). Early warning systems enable farmers to take proactive measures, such as moving livestock to higher ground and securing feed and equipment, reducing the impact of floods on their operations.

Mutual aid agreements between farmers and neighboring communities ensure support during flood events. These agreements formalize the sharing of resources, labor, and assistance, providing a safety net for farmers facing severe impacts (Opdyke *et al.*, 2019). Mutual aid can include temporary relocation of livestock, access to alternative grazing land, and shared labor for recovery and rebuilding efforts. Engaging in community-led flood mitigation projects, such as constructing communal levees, drainage systems, and retention ponds, can significantly reduce flood risks for individual farms. Collaborative efforts ensure that projects are designed and implemented to benefit the entire community, maximizing the impact of flood defenses (Scolobig *et al.*, 2015). Participation in these projects fosters a sense of ownership and responsibility, enhancing community resilience. Community collaboration also provides essential support networks that address the psychological impact of flooding. Social support from fellow farmers and community members can alleviate stress, reduce feelings of isolation, and promote mental health and well-being (Berry *et al.*, 2011). Support networks offer emotional and practical assistance, helping farmers to cope with the challenges of flood recovery and maintain their livelihoods.

3.7.7. Policy Interventions

Governments should develop and implement comprehensive flood management plans that include risk assessment, floodplain zoning, and early warning systems (Figure 2). These plans should be tailored to local conditions and regularly updated based on the latest climate data and hydrological models (see in https://www.fema.gov/sites/default/files/documents/fema_nfip_program_description.pdf). Effective flood management plans can mitigate the impact of flooding on dairy farms by minimizing property damage, ensuring timely evacuations, and protecting critical infrastructure. Policymakers should establish financial assistance and insurance programs specifically designed for agricultural sectors vulnerable to flooding. Subsidized flood insurance can help dairy farmers recover from flood-related losses and rebuild their operations (Botzen & van den Bergh, 2008). Additionally, government grants and low-interest loans can provide immediate relief and support long-term recovery efforts, reducing the economic burden on affected farmers.

Investing in flood-resilient infrastructure is crucial for reducing the vulnerability of dairy farms to flood events. This includes constructing levees, floodwalls, and drainage systems to protect farmland and livestock facilities. Upgrading existing infrastructure to withstand extreme weather events and incorporating climate resilience into new projects can enhance the overall sustainability of dairy farming operations. Promoting sustainable agricultural practices can improve the resilience of dairy farms to flooding. Policies that incentivize conservation tillage, cover cropping, and buffer zones can help reduce soil erosion, enhance water retention, and protect water quality (Pretty *et al.*, 2018). Supporting agroforestry and the restoration of wetlands can also provide natural flood mitigation benefits and improve biodiversity.

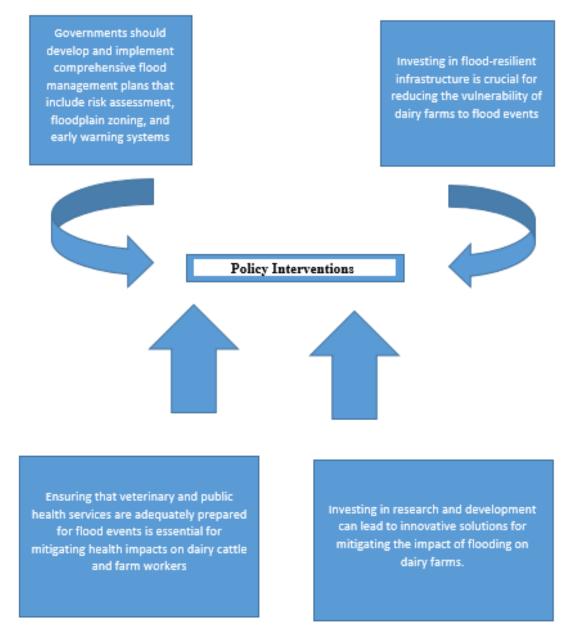


Figure 2. Policy Interventions Plans for flood management.

Ensuring that veterinary and public health services are adequately prepared for flood events is essential for mitigating health impacts on dairy cattle and farm workers. Policies should support training for veterinarians and healthcare providers in disaster response and disease management (Nabarro, 2005). Additionally, establishing mobile veterinary clinics and emergency health response teams can provide critical services during and after flood events. Engaging local communities and educating farmers about flood preparedness and response strategies can enhance resilience. Policymakers should support outreach programs that provide information on flood risks, emergency procedures, and best practices for protecting livestock and property. Empowering communities with knowledge and resources can improve their capacity to respond effectively to flood events.

Investing in research and development can lead to innovative solutions for mitigating the impact of flooding on dairy farms. Policies should support research on flood-resistant crops, improved livestock housing designs, and advanced forecasting technologies. Collaborating with academic institutions, industry stakeholders, and international organizations can accelerate the development and dissemination of new technologies and practices. Implementing and enforcing regulatory frameworks for environmental protection can help reduce the risk of flooding and its impacts. Policies should focus on protecting natural floodplains, regulating land use in flood-prone areas, and reducing deforestation and wetland degradation (Kundzewicz *et al.*, 2019). Environmental regulations can play a key role in maintaining ecosystem services that mitigate flood risks and enhance agricultural resilience. Fostering collaboration and international cooperation is essential for addressing the global challenge of flood risks. Policymakers should participate in international agreements and initiatives aimed at reducing disaster risk and adapting to climate change. Sharing knowledge, resources, and best practices with other countries can enhance global resilience to flooding and support sustainable agricultural development.

4. CONCLUSION

Flooding significantly impacts dairy cattle farms, leading to substantial economic losses, increased operational costs, long-term financial instability, and severe health risks for both livestock and farm workers. Immediate financial losses stem from livestock fatalities, damage to infrastructure, and spoilage of feed. Long-term impacts include disrupted markets and loss of livelihoods, while health risks encompass respiratory issues, vector-borne diseases, and stress-related conditions.

Effective mitigation requires a multifaceted approach. Comprehensive flood management plans and resilient infrastructure are vital for protecting farms from future floods. Sustainable agricultural practices and robust veterinary and public health services can mitigate health risks and ensure the well-being of livestock and farm workers. Policies that provide financial support and promote insurance programs are essential to help farmers recover from flood-induced damages and stabilize their operations.

The study highlights the importance of community engagement and education in building resilience against floods. Empowering farmers with knowledge and resources enables them to implement best practices and respond effectively to flood events. Collaborative efforts at local, national, and international levels are crucial for sharing knowledge, resources, and best practices, ultimately enhancing the resilience and sustainability of dairy farms in the face of climate change, and increasing flood risks.

In conclusion, addressing the impacts of flooding on dairy cattle farms requires comprehensive strategies that integrate flood management, infrastructure investment, sustainable practices, health interventions, and policy support. By adopting these measures, dairy farms can improve their resilience, safeguard their economic stability, and ensure the health and welfare of their livestock and communities.

5. AUTHORS' NOTE

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this article. Authors confirmed that the paper was free of plagiarism.

6. REFERENCES

- Abbas, Q., Han, J., Adeel, A., and Ullah, R. (2019). Dairy production under climatic risks: perception, perceived impacts and adaptations in Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *16*(20), 4036.
- Acharya, B. (2020). Post-flood agricultural management: Practices to ensure feed quality and safety. *Journal of Agricultural Research*, 12(1), 45-56.
- Adler, B., and de la Peña Moctezuma, A. (2010). Leptospira and leptospirosis. *Veterinary Microbiology*, 140(3-4), 287-296.
- Aerts, J. C. J. H., Botzen, W. J. W., Emanuel, K., Lin, N., De Moel, H., and Michel-Kerjan, E. O. (2014). Evaluating flood resilience strategies for coastal megacities. *Science*, 344(6183), 473-475.
- Bachmair, S., Wechsung, F., and Engel, H. (2016). How well do meteorological indicators and crop models reflect the agricultural drought impact on crop yields? An empirical evaluation in Germany. *Environmental Research Letters*, *11*(3), 035001.
- Barbieri, C., and Mahoney, E. (2009). Why is diversification an attractive farm adjustment strategy? Insights from Texas farmers and ranchers. *Journal of Rural Studies, 25*(1), 58-66.
- Becirovic A, Trnacevic A, Dubinovic-Rekic A, Dzafic F. (2022). Floods associated with environmental factors and leptospirosis: our experience at Tuzla canton, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. *Mater Sociomed.* 34(3):193-196.
- Berry, H. L., Hogan, A., Owen, J., Rickwood, D., and Fragar, L. (2011). Climate change and farmers' mental health: Risks and responses. *Asia Pacific Journal of Public Health, 23*(2_suppl), 119S-132S.
- Binder, S., Aviles, G., and Griebler, U. (2017). Implementing participatory action research in disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation at the community level: A synthesis of the empirical evidence. *Disaster Prevention and Management, 26*(3), 252-270.

- Botzen, W. J. W., and van den Bergh, J. C. J. M. (2008). Insurance against climate change and flooding in the Netherlands: Present, future, and comparison with other countries. *Risk Analysis*, *28*(2), 413-426.
- Bradley, A. J. (2002). Bovine mastitis: An evolving disease. *The Veterinary Journal, 164*(2), 116-128.
- Brouček, J. (2014). Effects of noise on performance, stress, and behaviour of animals. *Slovak Journal of Animal Science*, 47(2), 111-123.
- Bubeck, P., Botzen, W. J. W., Kreibich, H., and Aerts, J. C. J. H. (2013). Detailed insights into the influence of flood-coping appraisals on mitigation behaviour. *Global Environmental Change*, *23*(5), 1327-1338.
- Burge, H. A. (2010). An overview of allergic fungal sinusitis. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, *118*(2), 185-191.
- Cook, N. B. (2006). Footbath design and management for prevention of lameness. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice, 22*(3), 519-543.
- Cutter, S. L., Ash, K. D., and Emrich, C. T. (2014). The geographies of community disaster resilience. *Global Environmental Change*, *29*, 65-77.
- Cutter, S. L., Ash, K. D., and Emrich, C. T. (2017). Urban–rural differences in disaster resilience. Annals of the American Association of Geographers, 106(6), 1236-1252.
- Davies, J. B. (2016). Economic analysis of the costs of flooding. *Canadian Water Resources* Journal / Revue Canadienne Des Ressources Hydriques, 41(1–2), 204–219.
- De Vries, J. R., Holterman, S., and Buma, J. (2017). Flood risk management and its effects on structural integrity of agricultural buildings. *Agricultural Systems*, *158*, 10-20.
- Dobson, H., and Smith, R. F. (2000). What is stress, and how does it affect reproduction? *Animal Reproduction Science*, 60-61, 743-752.
- Fink-Gremmels, J. (2008). The role of mycotoxins in the health and performance of dairy cows. *Veterinary Journal*, *176*(1), 84-92.
- Fisk, W. J., Eliseeva, E. A., and Mendell, M. J. (2010). Association of residential dampness and mold with respiratory tract infections and bronchitis: A meta-analysis. *Environmental Health*, *9*, 72.
- Focks, D. A., Haile, D. G., Daniels, E., and Mount, G. A. (2000). Dynamic life table model for Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae): Analysis of the literature and model development. *Journal of Medical Entomology*, *37*(1), 77-88.
- Funari, E., and Testai, E. (2008). Human health risk assessment related to cyanotoxins exposure. *Critical Reviews in Toxicology*, *38*(2), 97-125.
- Gallo, A., Giuberti, G., Frisvad, J. C., Bertuzzi, T., and Nielsen, K. F. (2015). Review on mycotoxin issues in ruminants: Occurrence in forages, effects on health, and analytical aspects. *Animal Feed Science and Technology, 210*, 19-76.
- Gaviglio, A., Filippini, R., Molinari, D., Marescotti, M.E., and Damartini, E. (2019). Evaluating the flood damage on dairy farms: a methodological proposal. *AESTIMUM 75*, 183-205

- Gaworski M, and Boćkowski M. (2022). Comparison of cattle housing systems based on the criterion of damage to barn equipment and construction errors. *Animals (Basel), 12*(19), 25-30.
- Gosnell, H., and Travis, W. R. (2005). Ranchland ownership dynamics in the Rocky Mountain West. *Rangeland Ecology and Management*, *58*(2), 191-198.
- Gould, J., Flohr, J., and Richardson, C. (2016). Designing farm drainage systems to minimize flood damage. *Agricultural Water Management*, *178*, 127-135.
- Graham, C. (2013). The impact of natural disasters on livestock health: Flooding in Queensland, Australia. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice, 29*(2), 273-287.
- Grissett, G. P., White, B. J., and Larson, R. L. (2015). Structured literature review of responses of cattle to viral and bacterial pathogens causing bovine respiratory disease complex. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine*, *29*(3), 770-780.
- Grout L, Baker MG, French N, and Hales S. A (2020). Review of potential public health impacts associated with the global dairy sector. *Geohealth*, *4*(2), e2019GH000213.
- Hunter, P. R., MacDonald, A. M., and Carter, R. C. (2010). Water supply and health. *PLoS Medicine*, 7(11), e1000361.
- Ingram, J., Gaskell, P., Mills, J., and Short, C. (2016). Incorporating Agri-environment schemes into farm development pathways: A temporal analysis of farmer motivations. *Land Use Policy*, *52*, 267-280.
- Jose, S. (2009). Agroforestry for ecosystem services and environmental benefits: An overview. *Agroforestry Systems, 76*(1), 1-10.
- Keim, M. E. (2008). Building human resilience: The role of public health preparedness and response as an adaptation to climate change. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 35(5), 508-516.
- Keiser, J., and Utzinger, J. (2008). Efficacy of current drugs against soil-transmitted helminth infections: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 299*(16), 1937-1948.
- Khan, N. A., Hatfield, R. D., and Komarek, A. R. (2016). Potential impact of flood-damaged forage crops on dairy cattle nutrition. *Journal of Dairy Science*, *99*(6), 4422-4433.
- Knutson, C., Hayes, M., Phillips, T., and Glantz, M. (2018). How reliable are drought early warning systems in mitigating agricultural impacts? A comparative study. *Natural Hazards*, 92(2), 837-854.
- Kreutzwiser, R., De Loe, R., Imgrund, K., Conboy, M. J., and Simpson, H. (2010). Linking science and policy to address water quality concerns in intensively managed landscapes. *Water Resources Management*, 24(9), 2091-2115.
- Kundzewicz, Z. W., Huang, J., and Krysanova, V. (2019). Climate change and its impacts on water resources. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, *35*(4), 553-558.

- Lay, D. C., Randel, R. D., Friend, T. H., Bowers, C. L., Grissom, K. K., Jenkins, O. C., and Neuendorff, D. A. (1992). Effects of prenatal stress on the fetal calf. *Physiology and Behavior*, 52(3), 501-506.
- LeJeune, J. T., and Wetzel, A. N. (2007). Preharvest control of Escherichia coli O157 in cattle. *Journal of Animal Science*, 85(13_suppl), E73-E80.
- Lloyd, J. S., Bell, V. A., and Jones, D. A. (2017). Assessing the resilience of farm power systems to flooding. *Energy Policy*, *107*, 105-114.
- Maher, P.J., Egan, M., Murphy, M.D., and Tuohy, P. (2023). Assessment of the current performance of grazing infrastructure across Irish dairy farms. *Journal of Dairy Science*, *106*(7), 759-4772.
- Mason, G. J. (2010). Species differences in responses to captivity: Stress, welfare, and the comparative method. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, *25*(12), 713-721.
- McCarthy, S., Tunstall, S., Faulkner, H., and Penning-Rowsell, E. (2018). Risk perception, precautionary behaviour and flood risk management in England and Wales. *Environmental Hazards*, *17*(2), 97-119.
- McGarry, J. W., and Williams, D. J. L. (2003). An outbreak of acute fasciolosis in cattle. *Veterinary Record*, 153(26), 828-829.
- McNally, S., Warrick, R. A., and Ashley, R. M. (2018). Elevating structures as a flood resilience measure on dairy farms. *Journal of Flood Risk Management*, *11*(4), 354-367.
- Mees, H. L. P., Driessen, P. P. J., and Runhaar, H. A. C. (2016). "Cool" governance of a "hot" climate issue: Public and private responsibilities for the protection of vulnerable citizens against extreme heat. *Regional Environmental Change*, *16*(4), 1049-1061.
- Mellor, D. J. (2012). Animal emotions, behaviour and the promotion of positive welfare states. *New Zealand Veterinary Journal, 60*(1), 1-8.
- Mendell, M. J., Mirer, A. G., Cheung, K., Tong, M., and Douwes, J. (2011). Respiratory and allergic health effects of dampness, mold, and dampness-related agents: A review of the epidemiologic evidence. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 119(6), 748-756.
- Merz, B., Elmer, F., and Thieken, A. H. (2009). Significance of "high probability/low damage" versus "low probability/high damage" flood events. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, 9(3), 1033-1046.
- Mischler, R. A., Wortmann, C. S., Franti, T. G., and Rees, J. D. (2010). Cover crop effects on soil water relationships in a corn–soybean rotation. *Agronomy Journal*, *102*(5), 1480-1487.
- Mishra, A. K., El-Osta, H. S., and Shaik, S. (2011). Succession decisions in U.S. family farm businesses. *Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics*, *36*(1), 133-152.
- Montgomery, D. R. (2007). Soil erosion and agricultural sustainability. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 104*(33), 13268-13272.
- Moss, A., Green, R., and Harrison, S. (2019). Design and implementation of water diversion systems for agricultural flood management. *Water Resources Management, 33*(10), 3489-3502.

- Nabarro, D. (2005). The role of veterinarians in the international response to natural and man-made disasters. *Rev. Sci. Tech. Off. Int. Epiz.*, 24(2), 597-606.
- Nettles, J. (2018). The impact of flooding on rural road infrastructure and agricultural logistics. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment, 63*, 333-345.
- Nguyen, V. P., Ngo, T. H., and Dang, Q. L. (2021). Flood risk management and adaptation measures in agricultural production: A case study of a flood-prone region in Vietnam. *Agricultural Water Management, 255*, 106964.
- Norris, F. H., Stevens, S. P., Pfefferbaum, B., Wyche, K. F., and Pfefferbaum, R. L. (2002). Community resilience as a metaphor, theory, set of capacities, and strategy for disaster readiness. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *41*(1-2), 127-150.
- Oliver, S. P., Jayarao, B. M., and Almeida, R. A. (2005). Foodborne pathogens in milk and the dairy farm environment: Food safety and public health implications. *Foodborne Pathogens and Disease*, 2(2), 115-129.
- Opdyke, A., Javernick-Will, A., and Koschmann, M. (2019). Infrastructure hazard resilience trends: An analysis of 25 years of research. *Natural Hazards*, *98*(1), 577-599.
- Pan, X., and Qiu, B. (2022). The impact of flooding on firm performance and economic growth. *PLoS One*, *17*(7), e0271309.
- Plough, A., Fielding, J.E., Chandra, A., Williams, M., Eisenman, D., Wells, K.B., Law, G.Y., Fogleman, S. and Magaña, A. (2018). Building community disaster resilience: Perspectives from a large urban county department of public health. *American Journal* of Public Health, 103(7), 1190-1197.
- Pretty, J., Benton, T.G., Bharucha, Z.P., Dicks, L.V., Flora, C.B., Godfray, H.C.J., Goulson, D., Hartley, S., Lampkin, N., Morris, C. and Pierzynski, G. (2018). Global assessment of agricultural system redesign for sustainable intensification. *Nature Sustainability*, 1(8), 441-446.
- Raghuvanshi, J., Singh, R. K., and Chauhan, R. (2017). Renewable energy: The future for sustainable farming in India. *Renewable Energy*, *108*, 521-528.
- Reisen, W. K. (2010). Landscape epidemiology of vector-borne diseases. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 55, 461-483.
- Sadiq, R., Tesfamariam, S., and Al-Zahrani, M. (2017). Seismic and flood resilience assessment of agricultural buildings using a fuzzy-based approach. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, *21*, 155-166.
- Sanchez-Vazquez, M. J., and Lewis, F. I. (2013). Investigating the impact of fasciolosis on cattle productivity in England and Wales. *Preventive Veterinary Medicine*, *109*(3-4), 146-154.
- Scolobig, A., Prior, T., Schröter, D., Jörin, J., and Patt, A. (2015). Towards people-centred approaches for effective disaster risk management: Balancing rhetoric with reality. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, *12*, 202-212.
- Smith, B., Pritchard, B., and McManus, P. (2013). Agri-food system dynamics: Pathways to sustainability in an era of uncertainty. *Journal of Rural Studies, 29*, 40-49.

- Smith, D. R., King, K. W., Johnson, L. T., Francesconi, W., and Richards, P. (2015). Grassed waterways: What is the state of the science? *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*, 70(1), 25A-28A.
- Smith, K. A., Spaling, H., and Venema, H. D. (2020). Evaluating the effectiveness of levees and flood barriers in agricultural floodplain management. *Land Use Policy*, *99*, 104851.
- Soulibouth, L., Hwang, H.S., and Shin, D.H. (2021). The impact of flood damage on farmers, agricultural sector and food security in Laos: A regional case study of Champhone district, Savannakhet province. *Journal of International Development and Cooperation*, *16*(2),151-170.
- Tall, A., Jay, A., Hansen, J., Campbell, B. M., Kinyangi, J., and Aggarwal, P. K. (2018). Scaling up climate services for farmers: Mission possible. *Climate Services*, *11*, 87-91.
- Tucker, J.J., Hancock, D.S., Stewart, L., and Segers, J.R. (2019). Dealing with pasture, hay, feed, and livestock losses. After significant weather events. Circular 1165. University of Georgia, Extension
- Uddin, J., Moniruzzaman, M., and Alam, M. S. (2014). Effects of floods on dairy farming in Bangladesh: Implications for policy. *Bangladesh Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 37(2), 123-135.
- Van Amburgh, M. E., Galton, D. M., Bauman, D. E., Everett, R. W., and Fox, D. G. (1998). Effects of three prepubertal body growth rates on performance of Holstein heifers during first lactation. *Journal of Dairy Science*, *81*(2), 527-538.
- Van Saun, R. J. (2000). Metabolic profiling and health risk factors in transitional dairy cows. *Compendium on Continuing Education for the Practicing Veterinarian*, 22(3), S48-S53.
- Ward, M. H. (2009). Too much of a good thing? Nitrate from nitrogen fertilizers and cancer. *Reviews on Environmental Health*, 24(4), 357-363.
- Ward, P.J., Jongman, B., Weiland, F.S., Bouwman, A., van Beek, R., Bierkens, M.F., Ligtvoet, W. and Winsemius, H.C. (2016). Assessing flood risk at the global scale: Model setup, results, and sensitivity. *Environmental Research Letters*, 8(4), 044019.
- Warrington, P. D., Man, T. L., and Holmes, N. (2003). Drinking water quality: Waterborne pathogens and their treatment. *Environmental Science and Technology*, *37*(19), 383A-390A.
- Webster, A. J. F. (2002). Effects of housing practices on the development of foot and leg disorders in dairy cattle. *Veterinary Record*, 151(2), 23-25.
- Weiss, W. P. (2014). Use of a corn milling product in diets for dairy cows to replace forage and nonforage fiber sources. *Journal of Dairy Science*, *97*(6), 3464-3473.
- West, J. W. (2003). Effects of heat-stress on production in dairy cattle. *Journal of Dairy Science*, *86*(6), 2131-2144.
- Wildman, E. E., Jones, G. M., Wagner, P. E., Boman, R. L., Troutt, H. F., and Lesch, T. N. (1982). A dairy cow body condition scoring system and its relationship to selected production characteristics. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 65(3), 495-501.

- Wilson, G. A., Hart, K., and Holland, J. (2016). Multifunctional agriculture: Transitioning towards sustainability. Routledge.
- Wolfe, M. L., and Stubbs, T. L. (2016). The sustainable intensification of specialty crop production: Managing soil health and the power of integration. *HortScience*, *51*(11), 1331-1336.