

1 **Title**

2 Sustainable lamb production: Evaluation of factors affecting lamb growth using hierarchical,
3 cross classified and multiple memberships models

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19 **Highlights**

- 20 • Acute ewe lameness cases at pregnancy had a short, negative impact on lamb growth
- 21 • Pneumonia and bacterial arthritis cases had a long-lasting impact on lamb weight
- 22 • Lambs tended to be heavier prior to a disease case compared to unaffected lambs
- 23 • Results suggest a possible trade-off between growth and immune system
- 24 • Multiple membership provided better estimates than other mixed model structures

25

26

27 **Abstract**

28 In light of current concerns about the sustainability of red meat production in a world with
29 increasing global demand for food from animal origin there is a need for a better understanding
30 of factors that influence the growth rate and feed conversion efficiency of animals on
31 commercial farms. The primary objective of this observational study was to use longitudinal
32 data to quantify the simultaneous effects of multiple ewe and lamb factors on lamb growth rate.
33 A secondary aim was to evaluate model structures that specifically account for lamb grouping
34 effects during the growth period and compare these to classical hierarchical growth rate
35 models.

36 A total of 4172 weight recordings from 805 lambs and data on disease events were collected
37 over a 6-month period from a commercial pedigree sheep flock. Three mixed model structures
38 were compared, hierarchical, cross classified and multiple membership, and final estimates
39 determined within a Bayesian framework. The multiple membership structure provided the
40 best model fit and was used for final inference; taking account of the effect of lamb grouping
41 over time provided the best estimates of lamb growth rate.

42 Ewe lameness and mastitis cases had a deleterious impact on lamb growth. Lambs from ewes
43 identified with mastitis during lactation were on average 3.0 (standard error (SE) 1.6) kg lighter
44 during the four month growth period than lambs from unaffected ewes. Lambs from ewes that
45 were not lame during pregnancy were 3.0 (SE 1.2) kg heavier at eight weeks of age than lambs
46 from ewes with a least one lameness case during the same period. Lambs from ewes lame either
47 during the first 4 weeks or between 4-8 weeks of a lamb's life (but not lame during pregnancy)
48 were also significantly heavier at 56 days of age, than lambs reared by ewes that were lame
49 during pregnancy (2.8 (SE 1.2) and 3.4 (SE 1.2) kg respectively).

50 Cases of pneumonia and bacterial arthritis in lambs had a significant negative impact on lamb
51 growth with affected lambs being on average 5.5 (SE 1.1) kg and 2.2 (SE 1.2) kg less than non-
52 affected lambs respectively after the disease event. Prior to a case of lameness or pneumonia,
53 lambs were significantly heavier than unaffected lambs suggesting a possible trade-off between
54 growth and immune function.

55 Overall, the study provides evidence that that a combination of ewe and lamb characteristics
56 and disease events play an important role in determining lamb growth rate and that heavier
57 lambs may be more susceptible to disease.

58

59 **Keywords**

60 sheep; growth rate; lameness; pneumonia; multiple membership model; mixed model

61

62 **1. Introduction**

63 The underlying aim of sustainable agriculture is to provide agricultural systems that meet the
64 needs and demands of today's society without jeopardising those of tomorrow. The three key
65 elements of sustainability are 'environment', 'society' and 'economy' (Giddings et al., 2002) and
66 in terms of the food supply chain, producers, processors, distributors, retailers, consumers, and
67 waste handlers all have a role to play.

68 In light of current concerns about the sustainability of red meat production in a world with
69 increasing global demand for food from animal origin (Chaudhary et al., 2018; Cobiac and
70 Scarborough, 2019; Delgado et al., 1999; Tilman et al., 2002), there is a need for a better
71 understanding of factors that influence the growth rate and feed conversion efficiency of
72 animals on commercial farms. In terms of lamb production, growth rate is influenced by
73 genotype, with a heritability of approximately 10-15% (Lôbo et al., 2009), but non-genetic
74 factors account the majority of variability in growth rate. Therefore, understanding and
75 optimising environmental effects will be vital to maximise the efficiency and sustainability of
76 lamb production.

77 Previous research has identified a variety of non-genetic factors associated with lamb growth.
78 Individual factors reported to be positively associated with lamb growth include greater litter
79 size, (single lambs in contrast to twins or triplets) (Dimsoski et al., 1999), gender (Arnold and
80 Meyer, 1988), greater ewe milk production (Snowder and Glimp, 1991) and diets with higher
81 concentration of protein (Kellaway, 1973). In contrast, presence of disease (Coop et al., 1982;

82 Grant et al., 2016; Green et al., 1998) and dam age (Dickerson and Laster, 1975) were associated
83 with lower growth rates.

84 There remain substantial uncertainties, however, around these non-genetic influences on lamb
85 growth rate. Many previous studies have examined one environmental factor at a time, despite
86 the fact that these effects tend to occur simultaneously, meaning that inevitable complex and
87 confounding relationships can be missed. The few studies that have integrated limited
88 information on more than one factor have reported that there can be multiple simultaneous
89 influences on lamb growth (Green et al., 1998; Huntley et al., 2012; Juengel et al., 2018).
90 Moreover, while several studies have looked at the effects of lamb-related factors on lamb
91 growth, few have concurrently evaluated ewe health-related information, such as disease cases
92 during pregnancy and lactation. The effect of mastitis on lamb growth was estimated by Huntley
93 et al. (2012) and Grant et al. (2016) but no studies have yet evaluated the effect of lameness
94 cases in the ewe on lamb growth, despite this being a common condition in sheep flocks (Kaler
95 and Green, 2008; Winter et al., 2015)

96
97 In current literature, there is also very sparse information of the temporal effects of factors that
98 impact on individual lamb growth rate. Previous research include case-control studies and a
99 randomised clinical trial that assessed the impact of disease in groups of lambs, however
100 longitudinal studies are necessary to capture changes in growth curves over time and are
101 generally recommended for inference on between-subject predictors (Dohoo et al., 2003). For
102 instance, with regards to impact of disease in lambs, previous studies have assessed the average
103 differences in weights/growth rates of groups of lambs affected and unaffected with pneumonia
104 (Alley, 1987; Jones et al., 1982), lameness (Marshall et al., 1991; Wassink et al., 2010), orf
105 (Lovatt et al., 2012) and endoparasites (Coop et al., 1982). In contrast, only a few studies have
106 followed up individual lambs in order to quantify the impact of disease cases on lamb growth
107 e.g. diarrhoea (Green et al., 1998; Huntley et al., 2012), endoparasites (Broughan and Wall,

108 2007) and ewe mastitis (Grant et al., 2016). Therefore, there is limited robust evidence on the
109 impact of endemic diseases on individual lamb growth rates.
110 Previous studies have modelled lamb growth using hierarchical, multilevel structures to
111 account for repeated weight observations clustered at lamb, ewe and farm level (Grant et al.,
112 2016; Green et al., 1998; Huntley et al., 2012) and this approach has been widely used for
113 general livestock growth rate models (Aggrey, 2009; Bahreini Behzadi et al., 2014; Strathe et al.,
114 2010). However, one challenge in studying growth rates on farms is the added complexity of
115 animals changing groups over time. Previous studies on animal growth have not accounted for
116 time-dependent grouping effects resulting from animals being moved to different locations
117 within a farm and hence being exposed to different environments and planes of nutrition. In
118 commercial sheep farms, lambs tend to be managed in groups and each group allocated to
119 paddocks/fields until finishing for slaughter. Ignoring these differences is a significant
120 limitation because group location could be an important confounding or effect-modifying factor
121 when estimating influencers of growth rate. There have been various modelling approaches
122 developed such as Cross-classified and Multiple Membership mixed models in educational and
123 social science research that account for grouping effects (Goldstein et al., 2007; Grady and
124 Beretvas, 2010). Such methods however, are yet to be employed in animal growth modelling.
125 Exploration of alternative model structures that account for the effects of animal grouping
126 would be beneficial to evaluate the extent to which hierarchical models can be improved upon.
127 The primary objective of this study was to use longitudinal data to quantify the simultaneous
128 effects of multiple ewe and lamb factors on lamb growth rate, while accounting for correlation
129 structures within the data. A secondary aim was to evaluate model structures that specifically
130 account for lamb grouping effects during the growth period and compare these to a classical
131 hierarchical growth rate model.

132

133 2. Materials and methods

134 The study was carried out in accordance with the STROBE-Vet recommendations (Sargeant et
135 al., 2016), and methodological details are provided on study design, setting, participants,
136 variables, data sources, bias, study size, and statistical methods.

137 **2.1. Flock information**

138 The data for this study originated from a 1400 ewe flock located in west Wales (UK) at an
139 altitude between 60 and 360 metres, specialised in the production of high quality breeding
140 animals. The breeding flock comprised several pure and stabilised composite breeds (Aberfield,
141 Abermax, Charollais, Primera, Highlander, Texel) and F1 hybrids (Texel X Primera, Primera X
142 Abermax, Texel X Charollais, Texel X Bluefaced Leicester and Texel X Hartline). The ewes were
143 managed on a rotational grass-based system with minimal supplementary feeding in 2016 and
144 2017. An ultrasound scan to determine lamb numbers was carried out in all ewes in January
145 2017. The study period was January to October 2017 following an outdoor lambing between
146 mid-April and mid-May 2017 with lambs weaned at around 12 weeks of age. From May to
147 September lambs were kept in grass paddocks with no supplementary feeding.
148 The lambs and ewes in this flock were a convenience sample known to have the necessary
149 detailed recording of health and production information for the intended analysis. Therefore,
150 this flock represented both the target and source population for the study.

151

152 **2.2. Sample size calculation**

153 Since the approximate size of the available study population was known (800 lambs), the effect
154 sizes likely to be detectable were estimated. Assumptions used to make the estimates were;
155 power of 0.8, significance probability of 0.05, mean lamb weight in an unexposed group of 30 kg,
156 age-specific variance in lamb weight of 20 kg. Given that the final model structure was not
157 known in advance and that power analyses for complex mixed effect models involves
158 assumptions around random effect variances that can be difficult to make (Johnson et al., 2015),
159 estimates were made using a conservative assumption of only one weight recording being
160 available per lamb. On this basis, for a sample size of 800 lambs and a balanced covariate (with

161 an event that occurred equally in two groups), it was estimated that a difference in weight of \geq
162 0.9 kg would be detectable. For a condition that occurred in 1 in 10 lambs, a difference of \geq 1.5
163 kg would be detectable and for a condition that occurred in 1 in 20 lambs, \geq 2.1 kg would be
164 detectable. These effect sizes were deemed plausible and of biological importance and
165 therefore a sample size of 800 lambs was considered sufficient for this study.

166

167 **2.3. Weight recording and lamb grouping**

168 Lambs were weighed for the first time when they reached approximately eight weeks of age.
169 Since the birth date of lambs varied, the first weighing (T1) took place either on the 13th of June
170 or 12th of July 2017 (T1). The second weighing (T2) occurred at the time of weaning and took
171 place either on the 13th or 31st of July (T2). The third weighing occasion (T3) took place on the
172 24th of July, the fourth (T4) on the 7th of August, the fifth (T5) either on the 18th, 22nd, 25th or 29th
173 of August, and finally the sixth (T6) and the seventh (T7) occurred on 4th and 18th September
174 respectively. Not all lambs were weighed on all occasions. Weighing of lambs was carried out by
175 the farm staff using an IAE Lamb Weigh Crate True Test ® electronic weight scale and recorded
176 in kilograms to one decimal place. Lamb weight (kg) and weighing date (DD/MM/YYYY) were
177 recorded in an excel spreadsheet.

178 After each weighing, lambs were reallocated to a group. Since the flock management strategy at
179 regrouping was to maximise lamb growth by homogenising the characteristics of each lamb
180 group, the group allocation decision was based on a combination of lamb characteristics (birth
181 date, ewe breed, litter size or sex) and weight. Lambs were allocated to one of five groups
182 between birth and time T1, one of four groups between T1 and T2 (weaning), one of three
183 groups between T3 and T4, one of four groups between T4 and T5, one of three groups between
184 T5 and T6 and one of two groups between T6 and T7. Group allocation was recorded in an excel
185 spreadsheet with weighing information. Additional information on grazing quality or stocking
186 rates was not available.

187

188 2.4. **Management of flock health and recording of treatments**

189 Breeding ewes had been vaccinated against toxoplasma and enzootic abortion prior to their first
190 pregnancy. Lambs and ewes were vaccinated against clostridial diseases and pasteurellosis.

191 Ewes were vaccinated 4 weeks prior to the start of the lambing period and lambs were
192 vaccinated at 3 and 8 weeks of age. Severely lame sheep were culled following an annual
193 inspection of all ewe feet and no vaccine for footrot was used. Anthelmintic treatment
194 (Albendazole) was administered to all lambs in May 2017 for *Nematodirus battus* control and
195 from July 2017 it was administered to lambs based on Faecal Egg Count group results
196 (according to the “Sustainable Control of Parasites in Sheep” (SCOPS) protocol (Abbott et al.,
197 2012).

198 Shepherds were trained by veterinary surgeon members of the research team (Peers Davies and
199 Isobel Lees) on the correct identification, recording and treatment of common diseases in sheep
200 (e.g. mastitis, pneumonia, bacterial arthritis, lameness). All stock were inspected daily for the
201 presence of signs compatible with disease by the shepherds with an additional visual
202 assessment approximately every three days when the lambs were moved between fields.
203 Lameness cases were identified based on clinical signs by the farm shepherd. The animal
204 identification number, treatment date, reason for treatment and active substance used were
205 recorded with a mobile phone application (Shearwell®). Treatment data were collated in an
206 excel spreadsheet at the end of the study period (September 2017).

207

208 2.5. **Data processing**

209 Lamb growth data and ewe and lamb treatment records were linked using Access® software
210 (Microsoft Corp, 2013) and comprised information on lamb ID, ewe ID, ewe breed, ewe age, date
211 of birth, lamb breed, lamb sex, estimated litter size at ultrasound scanning, actual litter size at
212 birth, weighing dates, lamb weight at each weighing occasion, lamb group allocation and ewe
213 and lamb health events.

214 Stata software (StataCorp, 2017) was used for data cleaning, preliminary data analysis and to
215 explore frequency distributions of the variables.
216 Observations with missing data in any of the relevant variables (n=45) were excluded from the
217 dataset. A total of 4217 weight observations were recorded but data were not present for all
218 relevant variables (ewe ID, lamb rearing type, lamb sex or management groups) resulting in
219 4172 weight observations within the final dataset.

220

221 2.6. Categorisation of ewe and lamb variables

222 Ewe breeds were grouped into “maternal” (Aberfield and Highlander), “terminal” (Abermax,
223 Primera, Charollais and Texel), and “hybrid” (Texel X Primera, Primera X Abermax, Texel X
224 Charollais, Texel X Bluefaced Leicester, and Texel X Hartline). Seven and 8-year old ewes were
225 merged into a single age category due the low number of observations (n=13) within the latter
226 category. “Litter size during pregnancy” reflected the number of lambs present during
227 pregnancy as identified at scanning. Litter sizes at scanning of three and four lambs were
228 merged into a single category due to the low number of quadruplet lambs identified (n= 12
229 lambs). “Rearing type” was defined in the context of this study as the number of lambs alive
230 immediately after lambing and was categorised as “single”, “twin” or “triplet” (none of the
231 quadruplets identified at scanning were alive after lambing). All types of ewe lameness (e.g.
232 CODD, footrot and scald)(Aitken, 2007) were grouped into a single category due to the low total
233 number of lameness cases (n=15).

234 Preliminary phenotypic lamb classification decisions were made by the farm management team
235 according to lamb suitability for breeding purposes. Criteria were bodyweight, foot
236 conformation and breed-specific phenotypic characteristics when lambs reached approximately
237 twelve weeks. In the context of this study, this categorisation was defined as “high quality
238 pedigree females”, “high quality pedigree males”, “low quality pedigree females” and “low
239 quality pedigree males”. This classification influenced subsequent lamb management and was
240 therefore taken into account as a potential confounder during the statistical modelling.

241

242 2.7. Coding of disease events

243 The dates of occurrence of bacterial arthritis, pneumonia and lameness cases in lambs were
244 taken into account when coding new variables representing disease events. To capture the
245 possible effect of disease occurrence on lamb growth rates over time, categorical disease
246 variables were created such that lamb weights recorded before a disease event were
247 differentiated from those recorded afterwards. Disease events corresponding to lamb weight
248 recordings taken before a specified disease event were classified as “1”, those corresponding to
249 weight recordings taken after the disease event were classified as “2” and those corresponding
250 to weight recordings from lambs never affected by the disease were classified as “0”.

251 For ewes, only disease events occurring before the date of weaning were included in analysis
252 because from this point onwards ewes were separated from lambs and it was considered that
253 further ewe disease cases would not affect lamb growth.

254 Mastitis in sheep causes chronic structural damage to the mammary tissue of diseased ewes and
255 can cause a considerable reduction in milk yield (De Olives et al., 2013; Gonzalo et al., 2002)
256 which affects lamb growth (Grant et al., 2016). To capture the potential long-term impact of the
257 condition on lamb weight, a categorical variable for ewe mastitis was set as “1” against all lamb
258 weights in ewes that had a case of mastitis at any time before weaning and as “0” for weight
259 recordings of lambs from ewes unaffected by mastitis. The impact of ewe lameness on lamb
260 growth is less well understood and therefore we hypothesised that a short-term impact of the
261 condition on lamb weight could occur. A categorical indicator variable for lameness in ewes
262 was created to reflect the time that lameness occurred between mating and the weaning; the
263 indicator variable was aligned to lamb weight recordings taken at specific time points as
264 follows. The indicator variable aligned with lamb weight recordings at time T1 (8 weeks of age)
265 were classified as “0” if the ewe had not been affected by lameness between mating and 8 weeks
266 after lamb birth, as “1” if the ewe was lame during pregnancy, as “2” if a ewe had been lame
267 between lamb birth and 4 weeks of lamb age and as “3” if a ewe had been lame between 4 and 8

268 weeks of lamb age. At other weight recordings (T2- T7) the indicator variable was classified as
269 “4” if a ewe had ever been affected by lameness between mating and T1, and as “5” if a ewe had
270 not been affected by lameness between mating and T1.

271

272 2.8. Statistical models

273 For statistical modelling purposes the effects of lamb groupings over time were explored. Both
274 the combination of individual groups a lamb was allocated to during the study period and the
275 number of days spent in each group were determined for exploration using cross-classified and
276 multiple membership structures.

277 The outcome variable for all models was defined as lamb weight (kg) at each recording between
278 8 and 26 weeks of age and explanatory variables considered were ewe breed, ewe age at
279 lambing, litter size during pregnancy (at scanning), litter size after birth, lamb sex, and ewe and
280 lamb disease events. Due to the non-independence of observations a mixed modelling approach
281 was implemented using the software package MLwIN (version 3.0)(Charlton et al., 2017). In
282 order to facilitate interpretation of results, lamb age was rescaled to (age-56) such that the
283 model intercept corresponded to lamb weight at the first weighing occasion (i.e. 56 days) rather
284 than at birth.

285 Initial model exploration was carried out using iterative generalised least squares and final
286 estimates for all models parameters were made in a Bayesian framework using Markov chain
287 Monte Carlo (MCMC), appropriate for cross classified and multiple membership models
288 (Browne, 2017). Models were built using a forward stepwise approach and Bayesian p-values
289 (BPv) (the posterior probability of a true parameter value being either greater or less than zero)
290 were used to select the final model (BPv<0.05 was deemed “significant”). Non-linear effects of
291 continuous covariates were tested by adding polynomial terms (to power 4) and interactions
292 between final covariates were retained when BPv<0.05.

293 Three models were built and compared using the Deviance Information Criterion (Kuhn and
294 Johnson, 2013; Spiegelhalter et al., 2002) to evaluate best model fit. The first model, Model 1,

295 was a 3-level hierarchical model with repeated measures of lamb weight nested within lambs
 296 within ewes and represented a conventional growth curve model (Craig and Schinckel, 2001;
 297 Green et al., 1998; Leeden, 1998; Strenio et al., 1983) (Figure 1, A). This model contained a
 298 random slope term for “age” to allow between-lamb variation for the influence of age on
 299 growth; this improved model fit. Model 1 therefore took the form;

300

$$301 \quad Y_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ijk} + \beta_2 X_{jk} + \beta_3 X_k + u.age_{jk} + v_k + u_{jk} + e_{ijk} \quad (1)$$

302

303 Where Y_{ijk} was weight i of lamb j from ewe k , β_0 was the model intercept, $\beta_1 X_{ijk}$ represented
 304 weight measurement level covariates for weight i from lamb j from ewe k , (such as lamb age),
 305 $\beta_2 X_{jk}$ represented lamb level covariates from lamb j from ewe k , (such as litter size and lamb
 306 sex), $\beta_3 X_k$ represented ewe level covariates from ewe k , (such as ewe breed and ewe age),
 307 $u.age_{jk}$ represented a set of random variables one for each lamb, allowing between lamb
 308 variation for the effect of age on lamb weight, v_k was a random effect to reflect variation
 309 between ewes, u_{jk} was a random effect to reflect variation between lambs, and e_{ijk} reflected
 310 residual model error. Polynomial terms up to power four for the fixed effect “age” were tested in
 311 the model to account for possible non-linearity in lamb growth rate over time. The random
 312 effects and residual errors were assumed independent and normally distributed with 0 mean
 313 and variances σ^2 as follows:

314

315

316

$$v_k \sim N\left(0, \sigma_v^2\right)$$

317

318

$$u_{jk} \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2), \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{u_0}^2 & \\ \sigma_{u_{01}} & \sigma_{u_{02}}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

319

320
$$e_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$$

321

322

323 Two additional models were built to include parameters to account for the effect of lamb
324 grouping over time. Model 2 was specified as a cross-classified model with an additional
325 random effect representing the entire combination of groups a lamb belonged to over time.
326 Therefore, the model contained lamb repeated weight measurements nested within lambs
327 within ewes but lambs were also cross-classified at group level as illustrated in Figure 1, B. The
328 model accounted for the entire combination of groups to which a lamb was allocated over time
329 but not the time spent in each specific group. The same fixed effects were tested in the cross
330 classified and multiple membership models. A random slope term to model variation in the
331 effect of age between lambs was not included since model convergence did not occur because
332 the additional random effect for lamb grouping was closely correlated to the random slope term
333 for age. Model 2 (cross classified model) was defined as:

334

335
$$Y_{ijkh} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ijk} + \beta_2 X_{jk} + \beta_3 X_k + w_h + v_k + u_{jk} + e_{ijk} \quad (2)$$

336

337 Where Y_{ijkh} , represented the weight i of lamb j from ewe k in cross classified group h , β_0 ,
338 $\beta_1 X_{ijk} + \beta_2 X_{jk} + \beta_3 X_k$, and the random error terms v_k , u_{jk} and e_{ijk} were as defined in Model 1
339 and w_h represented a random effect at group level for lambs, in the h^{th} group, that were
340 assumed independent and normally distributed with 0 mean and variance σ_w^2 .

341 The third model was specified as a multiple membership model which accounted for the time
342 lambs spent in each management group. In the multiple membership structure, all lowest units
343 were not assigned to a single classification, as occurred in the cross classified model but it was
344 assumed that the effect of each grouping was a fraction of the total amount of time spent in each
345 group by each lamb (Rasbash et al., 2017) (Figure 1,C). A weighting factor representing the
346 number of days each lamb spent in each group was assigned to the appropriate lamb weight and

347 weighting factors were scaled such their sum equalled to 1 for each lamb. Lambs weights were
348 aligned to the last day a lamb had been in a membership group and therefore reflected the
349 impact of weight of a lamb having been present in that group.

350 Model 3 (multiple membership model) was defined as:

351

$$352 \quad Y_{ijkf} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ijk} + \beta_2 X_{jk} + \beta_3 X_k + \sum_{f=1}^f mm_{i,f} w + v_k + u_{jk} + e_{ijk} \quad (3)$$

353

354 Where Y_{ijkf} , represented the weight i of lamb j from ewe k in multiple membership group f , β_0 ,
355 $\beta_1 X_{ijk} + \beta_2 X_{jk} + \beta_3 X_k$, and the random error terms v_k , u_{jk} and e_{ijk} were as defined in Model 1,
356 $mm_{i,f}$ was a random effect representing the weight recording of the i th lamb in f th management
357 group and w was the weighing factor for group mm representing the time a lamb spent in that
358 group.

359 The higher level grouping residual errors mm were assumed independent and normally
360 distributed with 0 mean and variance, σ_{mm}^2 .

361

362 *Figure 1. Schematic representation of the three hierarchical structures tested. The first figure (A)*
363 *represents a structure used in conventional growth models (repeated measures of weight nested*
364 *within lambs within ewes). Figure B represents a cross-classified structure of the data, with lambs*
365 *nested within a combination of groups. Figure C represents a multiple membership structure, with*
366 *repeated measures of weight nested within groups. The latter structure allows to account for the*
367 *effect of time spent in each group.*

368

369

370 2.9. MCMC specification

371 All models were set up within a Bayesian framework and used MCMC for parameter estimation
372 (Browne, 2017). Diffuse, flat priors were used for fixed and random effect terms and a Wishart
373 prior for the variance-covariance matrices, as described by Browne (2017). A burn-in of 1000

374 iterations was used, and all chains converged prior to the end of the burn-in. An additional
375 500,000 iterations were run for determination of final model parameter estimates. Model
376 convergence was evaluated based on the Raftery-Lewis diagnostic (Raftery and Lewis, 1992)
377 and a calculation of the chain effective sample size (Spiegelhalter et al., 2002) as well as a visual
378 assessment of the MCMC chains.

379

380 2.10. **Comparison between models and evaluation of model fit**

381 The Deviance Information Criterion (Spiegelhalter et al., 2002) was used to compare fit between
382 models and a full model assessment was conducted on the multiple membership model which
383 was identified as the best model and used for final inference.

384 Initially, model assumptions were checked visually using histograms and q-q plots of error
385 terms at each model level. To check the influence of outlying points, the final model was re-run
386 with the omission of points with residuals falling outside two standard deviations from the
387 mean; changes in coefficients and BPv evaluated.

388 To further assess model fit and explore possible overfitting, full additional model checks were
389 conducted using model posterior predictions, both with the full dataset (internal predictions)
390 and by implementing a 10-fold cross validation (cross validation predictions). Predictions were
391 made without the inclusion of random effects; they were based on the fixed effects only. For
392 both full internal and cross validation predictions, model predicted values were graphically
393 compared to observed values and the r-squared (R^2), root mean squared error (RMSE), and
394 mean absolute error (MAE) were computed and compared between internal and cross
395 validation predictions.

396

397 3. **Results**

398 3.1. Descriptive statistics

399 The final dataset comprised 4172 lamb weight recordings (median number recordings per lamb
400 = 6, interquartile range (IQR = 4- 6)) from 805 lambs. The median lamb weight across the 4

401 month study period was 30 kg (IQR 24.5 – 35), with a median weight of 22.5 kg (19 – 25.5) and
402 34.5 kg (31 – 38.5) in T1 and T7 respectively.
403 Out of 559 ewes, 40%, 29% and 31% were from maternal, terminal and hybrid ewes
404 respectively. Based on ultrasound scanning during pregnancy, it was estimated that in utero,
405 31% (252/808) of the lambs were singletons, 58% twins and 11% triplets or quadruplets. Due
406 to in utero losses, stillbirths or scanning error, 17% of the lambs scanned as twins were reared
407 as single lambs and 22% and 48% of the multiples were reared as singles and twins
408 respectively. Male and female lambs classified as poor quality (based on preliminary phenotypic
409 selection) and not suitable for breeding represented 12% and 3% of the lambs respectively.
410 Three per cent (15/559 ewes, corresponding to 123/4172 lamb weight recordings) of the ewes
411 were affected by lameness and <1% were affected by mastitis (4/559 ewes, corresponding to
412 32/4172 lamb weight recordings). Two per cent of the lambs were affected by lameness
413 (14/805 lambs, corresponding to 65/4172 weight recordings), 1% (10/805 lambs,
414 corresponding to 48 weight recordings) by bacterial arthritis and <1% (4/805 lambs,
415 corresponding to 14 weight recordings) by pneumonia.

416

417 3.2. Comparison between models

418 The final hierarchical, cross classified and multiple membership models all contained the same
419 fixed effects terms and had DIC of 19154.6, 19130.3 and 17756.4 respectively (Supplementary
420 materials - Table 1). The model with clearly the lowest DIC was the multiple membership model
421 (Model 3, Table 4), and hence final results and inferences were taken from this model. Final
422 estimates of the variance components of Models 1-3 are provided in Supplementary materials -
423 Table 1. These indicated that residual variation between lambs was the largest variance
424 component in the hierarchical and multiple membership models, whilst variation between
425 groups was responsible for most residual variation in the cross classified model. The variance
426 partitioning at each model level indicates that the levels with the greatest and smallest amount

427 of unexplained variability were respectively at the lamb and multiple membership levels
428 (Supplementary materials - Table 1).

429

430

431 3.3. Final multiple membership model – posterior estimates

432 Parameter estimates from the final multiple membership model are provided in Table 4.

433 In terms of the impact of ewe disease on lamb growth, both mastitis and lameness during

434 pregnancy were found to have a deleterious effect. Lambs from ewes that were identified with

435 mastitis during lactation were on average 3.0 (SE 1.6) kg lighter at each weighing than lambs

436 from unaffected ewes. The relationship between ewe lameness and lamb growth was more

437 complicated and is illustrated in Figure 2. Lambs from ewes that were not lame during

438 pregnancy were on average 3.0 (SE 1.2) kg heavier at T1 (median age 56 days) compared to

439 lambs from ewes with a least one lameness case during the same period. Lambs from ewes lame

440 during either the first 4 weeks or between 4-8 weeks of a lamb's life (but not lame during

441 pregnancy) were also significantly heavier at T1 than lambs reared by ewes that were lame

442 during pregnancy (2.8 (SE 1.2) and 3.4 (SE 1.2) kg respectively). No difference was identified in

443 lamb weight from T2-T7 between lambs that were the offspring of lame or non-lame ewes.

444 Cases of bacterial arthritis, pneumonia and lameness had a negative impact on lamb growth.

445 Lambs affected by bacterial arthritis were on average 2.2 (SE 1.2) kg lighter at each weighing

446 after the disease event than lambs that did not suffer from the disease. After a lameness case,

447 lambs had a mean weight reduction of 1.3 (SE 0.8) kg. Despite this loss, lame lambs remained

448 heavier, on average, than non-lame lambs, although this difference was non-significant (Figure

449 3). Following a pneumonia case, lambs were on average 5.5 (SE 1.1) kg lighter at each weighing

450 than lambs unaffected with pneumonia. Lambs affected by pneumonia or lameness during the

451 study period were heavier prior to the disease event than unaffected lambs. Specifically, prior to

452 a pneumonia case lambs were on average 3.5 (SE 1.9) kg heavier at each weighing than

453 unaffected lambs, and 3.1 (SE 1.0) kg heavier prior to a lameness case than non-lame lambs.

454 Ewe age at lambing, ewe breed and litter size also influenced lamb growth. While hybrid-breed
 455 ewes produced lambs 1.7 (SE 0.4) kg heavier on average at each weighing than ewes from
 456 maternal breeds, there was no significant difference between terminal and maternal ewe breeds
 457 with regards to lamb weight. Lambs from four-year old ewes were on average 3.1 (SE 0.4) kg
 458 heavier than lambs from compared to 2-year old ewes but no significant differences were
 459 observed between two-year old and six or seven year old ewes in terms of lamb weight.
 460 Both “litter size” at pregnancy (assessed through ultra sound scanning) and “rearing litter size”
 461 (i.e., actual number of lambs reared per litter, after accounting for abortion cases and mortality
 462 during lambing) had a significant effect on lamb growth. Lambs from litter sizes during
 463 pregnancy of 2 and 3 lambs were on average 3.1 (SE 0.5) and 3.3 (SE 0.7) kg lighter at each
 464 weighing than single lambs. Lambs reared as singles post-birth were on average 2.1 (SE 0.4) and
 465 3.7 (SE 1.0) kg heavier at each weighing than twins or multiples respectively (after accounting
 466 for the effect of litter size during pregnancy). Sex also influenced growth, with male lambs
 467 (“high-quality” pedigree category”) being on average 2.3 (SE 0.3) kg heavier at each weighing
 468 than females. There were no significant terms identified in the final model.

469
470

471 *Table 4. Final posterior estimates for Model 3 (multiple membership model) for the outcome lamb*
 472 *weight (kg) between T1 (median age = 56 days) and T7 (median age = 162 days).*

		n	n	Coefficient	S.E.	Bayesian-
		(weight	(lambs)			p
		records)				
Ewe health	Weight records of lambs descendant from ewes <i>not</i> <i>treated for mastitis</i> during lactation	4140	798	<i>Reference</i>		

Weight records of lambs descendant from ewes <i>treated for mastitis</i> during lactation	32	7	-3.0	1.6	0.03
Weight records at T ₁ for lambs descendant from ewes <i>treated for lameness</i> during pregnancy	5	5	<i>Reference</i>		
Weight records at T ₁ for lambs descendant from ewes <i>not treated for lameness</i> during pregnancy or lactation	774	774	3.0	1.2	<0.01
Weight records at T ₁ for lambs descendant from ewes <i>treated for lameness</i> during the first 4 weeks of lamb life	8	8	2.8	1.2	0.01

	Weight records at T1 descendant from ewes <i>treated</i> <i>for lameness</i> <i>between 4 and 8</i> <i>weeks</i> of lamb life	11	11	3.4	1.2	<0.01
	Weight records between T2 ₃ and T7 ₄ for lambs descendant from <i>ewes not treated for</i> <i>lameness</i> during pregnancy or lactation	3281	764	2.3	1.6	0.08
	Weight records between T2 ₃ and T7 ₄ for lambs descendant from <i>ewes treated for</i> <i>lameness</i> during pregnancy or lactation	92	24	1.9	1.4	0.09
Lamb health	Weight records prior to a case of lamb lameness	52	10	<i>Reference</i>		

	Weight records for lambs not treated for lameness	4107	596	-3.1	1.0	<0.01
	Weight records for lambs after a case of lameness	13	4	-1.3	0.8	0.07
	Weight records for lambs prior to a case of pneumonia	7	3	<i>Reference</i>		
	Weight records for lambs not treated for pneumonia	4158	607	-3.5	1.9	0.04
	Weight records for lambs after a case for pneumonia	7	4	-5.5	1.1	<0.01
	Weight records for lambs not treated for bacterial arthritis	4124	598	<i>Reference</i>		
	Weight records for lambs after a case of bacterial arthritis	48	10	-2.2	1.2	0.02
Lamb characteristics	Litter size at pregnancy ⁴ - Single lamb	1334	255	<i>Reference</i>		

Litter size at pregnancy ⁴ - twin lamb	2375	463	-3.1	0.5	<0.01
Litter size at pregnancy ⁴ - triplet lamb	463	87	-3.3	0.7	<0.01
Rearing types ⁵ - single lamb	1810	341	<i>Reference</i>		
Rearing types ⁵ - twin lamb	2224	435	-2.1	0.4	<0.01
Rearing types ⁵ - triplet lamb	138	29	-3.7	1.0	<0.01
Sex - High quality pedigree female lambs	2197	366	<i>Reference</i>		
Sex - High quality pedigree male lambs	1510	281	2.3	0.3	<0.01
Sex - Poor quality female pedigree lambs ("slaughter" lambs)	159	66	-5.4	0.5	<0.01
Sex - Poor quality male pedigree lambs ("slaughter" lambs)	306	93	-3.5	0.4	<0.01

Ewe	Ewe breed type -	1704	319	<i>Reference</i>		
characteristics	Maternal					
	Ewe breed type -	1144	234	0.2	0.4	0.23
	Terminal					
	Ewe breed type -	1324	252	1.7	0.4	<0.01
	Hybrid					
	2-year old ewe	1185	247	<i>Reference</i>		
	1-year old ewe	57	15	-4.1	1.0	<0.01
	3-year old ewe	895	160	1.5	0.4	<0.01
	4-year old ewe	1072	201	3.1	0.4	<0.01
	5-year old ewe	410	79	1.0	0.5	0.02
	6-year old ewe	453	83	-0.2	0.5	0.33
	7-year old ewe	100	20	-0.4	0.9	0.31
	Lamb age	4172	805	0.1	<0.1	<0.01
	(centred at 56 days)					
	Lamb age	4172	805	<0.1	<0.1	0.02
	(centred at 56 days) ²					
	Cons	4172	805	27.5		

¹ Median age at T1 was 56 days.

² Median age at T2 was 92 days.

³ Median age at T7 was 162 days.

⁴ Litter size during pregnancy - number of lambs present during pregnancy as identified at scanning.

⁵ Rearing type- number of lambs alive immediately after lambing.

473 *Figure 2. Illustration of results from the multiple membership model (Model 3) for the difference*
474 *in lamb weights based on the timing of ewe lameness. Lambs from ewes that were lame during*
475 *pregnancy were significantly lighter at the time of first recording (~56 days of age) compared to*
476 *lambs descendant from non-lame ewes during pregnancy and also compared to ewes that were*
477 *lame between parturition and 56 days into lactation. There was no effect on lamb weight after*
478 *weaning (from T2 onwards) between offspring of ewes that were or were not lame.*

479

480 *Figure 3. Illustration of results from the multiple membership model (Model 3) for the difference in*
481 *lamb weight based on the timing on (A) lamb lameness, for an hypothetical lameness event that*
482 *occurred at 140 days of age, and (B) lamb pneumonia for an hypothetical event that occurred at*
483 *108 days of age (Plot B). Plot A - Lambs prior to a case of acute lameness were heavier than non-*
484 *lame lambs. Although there was a drop in weight after a lameness case, lame lambs remained*
485 *heavier, on average, than non-lame lambs. Plot B - Prior to a pneumonia case lambs were heavier*
486 *than unaffected lambs and lost weight after a case, becoming lighter, on average, than healthy*
487 *lambs.*

488

489

490 **3.4. Model fit**

491 Graphical observation of the residual plots at each level indicated that residuals were normally
492 distributed. All data points with standardized residuals <-2 and >2 were excluded from the
493 dataset, and the model re-run. There were no substantive differences in the model coefficients
494 ($<5\%$ of change) or BPv, indicating that the outliers did not have an important influence on final
495 model results. Assessment of the observed versus model full internal predicted values (Figure
496 4A), suggested a good model fit with $RMSE = 4.2$, $r^2 = 0.68$ and $MAE = 3.3$. The 10-fold cross

497 validation had very similar fit statistics (RMSE, r_2 , and MAE values 4.4, 0.67 and 3.5
498 respectively, Figure 4B), indicating that overfitting was not a feature of the final model.

499

500 *Figure 4. Model fit assessment for the final multiple membership model (Model 3). Observed and*
501 *model-predicted lamb weights: A – Predictions using all data available to the model (full internal*
502 *predictions) and B- Predictions using 10-fold cross validation. The r_2 were 0.68 (A) and 0.67 (B).*

503

504 3.5. MCMC diagnostics

505 Visual assessment of MCMC chains indicated good mixing and that chains had reached a
506 stationary distribution within 10,000 iterations. The Effective Sample Size (ESS) ranged from a
507 minimum of 3050 (ewe-level variance) to 49877 (lamb pneumonia). The Raftery-Lewis
508 diagnostic indicated that a minimum 28,101 iterations were required to estimate the upper
509 and lower 95% credible interval (CI) of all model parameters (± 0.005) with a probability of
510 95%. The number of iterations used (500,000) greatly exceeded this.

511

512 4. Discussion

513 The primary aim of this study was to quantify the effect of concurrent ewe and lamb disease
514 events on lamb growth, while accounting for correlation structures within the data. To the
515 authors' knowledge, this is the first longitudinal study to estimate the simultaneous effects of
516 both ewe and lamb health events on lamb growth and the first to account for the impact of lamb
517 grouping on growth rate.

518

519 Mastitis and lameness in ewes are relatively common conditions (Arsenault et al., 2008; Winter
520 et al., 2015) and in this study both were found to have an important impact on lamb growth.

521 Lambs that were offspring of ewes diagnosed with mastitis during the study period were on
522 average 3.0 (SE 1.6) kg lighter during the growth phase (56-162 days of age) than lambs from
523 ewes that did not have mastitis. These results are in broad agreement with previous studies

524 (Arsenault et al., 2008; Grant et al., 2016) that reported a negative impact of ewe mastitis cases
525 on lamb growth. One of these studies specifically looked at the relationship between lamb
526 growth and milk somatic cell count (SCC) (as an indicator of mastitis) and reported a less
527 pronounced effect of mastitis on growth compared to the current study (-1.3 kg) (Huntley et al.,
528 2012). Differences in the estimates may result from the use of different indicators of mastitis
529 (SCC as opposed to clinical presentation of the disease) and from the longer study period of the
530 current study. A reduced lamb growth rate is likely to result from a reduced milk production
531 observed in ewes with mastitis (De Olives et al., 2013; Gonzalo et al., 2002). Interestingly,
532 previous research reported the deleterious impact of mastitis was negated when lambs were
533 given supplementary feeding (Keisler et al., 1992) which suggests that provision of additional
534 sources of feed could have decreased the impact of mastitis on lamb growth in this study.
535 The impact of ewe lameness on lamb growth was explored in detail, in particular the extent to
536 which the timing of ewe lameness affected growth rates. It was notable that only ewe lameness
537 during pregnancy was associated with a reduction in lamb growth, and this was only for a
538 limited time period since from the second recording onwards there were no significant weight
539 differences between lambs descendant from lame and non-lame ewes during pregnancy.
540 Lambs from ewes that were lame during pregnancy were lighter at the first weight recording
541 (~56 days of age) compared to lambs from ewes that were never lame and also compared to
542 lambs from ewes that were lame between parturition and 56 days into lactation. Although
543 caution is needed because of the small numbers of observations of ewe lameness during
544 pregnancy, the pattern is worthy of note because biologically the pathway is plausible and of
545 potential importance. To the authors' knowledge no published studies have directly looked at
546 the effect of sheep clinical lameness on feed intake but a previous experimental study reported
547 that limb-induced pain led to a marked drop in feed intake in ewes (Colditz et al., 2011). It has
548 also been reported that a drop in maternal glucose concentrations during pregnancy (which
549 could result from a period of reduced intake) caused reduced placental growth and reduced
550 lamb growth rate (Mellor, 1983; Mellor and Murray, 1981). A reduced food intake by ewes

551 during pregnancy could explain why, in this study, cases of lameness during pregnancy had a
552 marked effect on early lamb growth.

553 Previous research reported that lame dairy ewes produced significantly lower milk compared to
554 a control group (approximately 47 kg less milk per ewe) (Gelasakis et al., 2010) but
555 interestingly in the current study there was no clear effect on lamb weight after weaning (>56
556 days of age) between offspring of ewes that were or were not lame after parturition. Therefore,
557 ewe lameness during lactation did not appear to have subsequent deleterious effects on lamb
558 growth. This could either be due to a negligible effect of lameness on milk production because
559 of prompt treatment of lameness cases, due to lambs obtaining an alternative additional
560 nutrient supply (e.g. from increased grazing) or be resultant from a compensatory growth effect
561 after an impact of lameness. Compensatory growth has been observed in sheep, with lambs fully
562 recovering their weight after an energy restriction period (Fan et al., 2018; Turgeon et al.,
563 1986). Despite there appearing to be no clear influence of ewe lameness during lactation on
564 lamb growth, undoubtedly prompt treatment of lameness in ewes remains essential (Kaler et
565 al., 2010).

566 In terms of the effect of lamb health on lamb growth rates, a deleterious impact was identified
567 from lameness, pneumonia and bacterial arthritis. For cases of pneumonia, a significant weight
568 reduction was observed after the disease event and this is in agreement with a recent study
569 investigating exposure to *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae*, which concluded that exposed lambs had
570 significantly lower daily weight gains than non-exposed lambs (Besser et al., 2019). In terms of
571 lamb lameness in the current study, a non-significant weight reduction was observed after the
572 disease event. A previous study examined differences between average weights of case (high
573 lameness prevalence) and control groups (very low lameness prevalence) of lambs over a two
574 year period and concluded that the group with untreated lameness cases had significantly lower
575 average body weights (Marshall et al., 1991). In a further randomised control clinical trial
576 comparing lameness treatment options, Wassink et al. (2010) observed that the group of lambs
577 promptly treated with parenteral antibiotics had a greater proportion of lambs finished

578 compared to the control group (Wassink et al., 2010). Nieuwhof et al. (2008) projected the
579 growth trajectories of non-lame lambs to estimate weight differences due to a lameness case
580 and concluded that a weight reduction between 0.5 and 2.5 kg could be expected. Although
581 previous work reported a negative impact of lameness, none of these studies has incorporated
582 the timing of lameness at the individual lamb level. Therefore this is the first study reporting
583 differences in growth rate before and after a lameness case and identifying weight changes with
584 respect to the timing of lameness. Differences in the average effect of lameness in this study
585 compared to previous research is possibly be due to differences in type of lameness, speed of
586 treatment and the length of the study period.

587 Of particular interest in this study was the finding that lambs in weight recordings prior to a
588 case of lameness or pneumonia were significantly heavier than healthy lambs. For lamb
589 pneumonia, our results are in broad agreement with previous research (McRae et al., 2016) that
590 reported that lambs with pneumonic lesions at slaughter grew faster from birth to weaning and
591 slower from weaning to slaughter compared to animals with no lesions. In this study lambs
592 remained heavier after a lameness event than lambs that had never been lame. Previous studies
593 also showed a similar important effect of lameness in dairy cows with respect to milk yield;
594 higher yield cows were more likely to be lame and produced more milk throughout lactation
595 than cows that were never lame, even though the amount of milk produced decreased after a
596 lameness case (Green et al., 2002). Although the underlying physiological mechanism behind
597 this effect has not yet been studied in sheep, previous research in other species suggests it may
598 result from a trade-off between performance and immune function. An inverse relationship
599 between growth and immune function has been observed in poultry (Van Der Most et al., 2011),
600 cattle (Foote et al., 2007; Frisch and Vercoe, 1984) and humans (McDade et al., 2016; Urlacher
601 et al., 2018). The high energy cost associated with the maintenance of immune cells (Mangel and
602 Stamps, 2001) suggests that high performing animals might benefit from additional nutrient
603 sources. It is possible that a negative relationship between immunity and growth could be more
604 pronounced in this sheep flock, where heavier, high performing animals have been selected for

605 breeding. The results of this study pose important questions regarding breeding strategies in
606 sheep. From the perspective of sustainable production, animal welfare and medicines usage, the
607 selection of livestock for breeding should take into account resistance to disease and not focus
608 solely in high growth rates which itself might lead to a predisposition to disease. Use of
609 breedlines of poultry with slower growth rates but greater resistance to disease are currently
610 being tested by the Dutch broiler industry as part of a strategy to reduce medicines usage
611 (Avined, 2018). To the authors' knowledge such selection strategies are not currently used in
612 sheep or beef production.

613 In contrast to lameness and pneumonia, there are no published studies that have evaluated the
614 impact of bacterial polyarthritis ("bacterial arthritis") in live lambs. It has been reported that
615 most causes of polyarthritis in sheep are of bacterial origin (Watkins and Sharp, 1998). The size
616 of the effect of a case on lamb weight (2.2 kg weight reduction,) was comparable to the estimate
617 of a recent abattoir study (2.7 kg weight difference) that evaluated deadweight of carcasses with
618 and without lesions of bacterial polyarthritis (Lloyd et al., 2019). Results of the current study
619 indicated that after a case, lambs did not recover their weight and remained lighter than healthy
620 lambs. This also aligns with previous research that reported that age at slaughter increased in
621 lambs affected by arthritis (Green et al., 1995). The relative economic importance of the
622 condition in the UK is unknown (Watkins and Sharp, 1998), but these results confirm that it has
623 a long-lasting impact on lamb growth as well as being an important welfare concern.

624 The estimate of scanning percentage information in this study allowed an estimate of the
625 number of lambs carried by the ewe during pregnancy to be included as a predictor of lamb
626 growth as well as the number actually born alive. Inclusion of this parameter provided a novel
627 insight into the influence of pregnancy as opposed to lactation on subsequent lamb growth; both
628 effects (pre-natal litter size and number of suckling lambs) had an important and separate
629 relationship with growth. For instance, a lamb reared as a singleton was on average 3.1 kg (SE
630 0.5) lighter at each recording if it was scanned as a twin, compared to a lamb both scanned and
631 reared as a singleton. Similarly, of lambs scanned as a twin, those then reared as a singleton

632 were on average 2.1 (SE 0.4) kg heavier at each recording than those reared as twins. Previous
633 studies that evaluated in-utero growth in multiple-size litter gestations, reported that lamb
634 growth is regulated by restriction of placental size (Gootwine et al., 2007; Horton et al., 2016))
635 resulting in heavier singletons compared to twins and triplets. Additional research showed that
636 after birth lamb growth rate was less closely correlated with milk production in twins compared
637 to singles possibly because ewes with twins produced only 13 to 17% more milk compared to
638 ewes with a single suckling lamb (Snowder and Glimp, 1991). Variations in placental space and
639 quantities of milk available per lamb after birth may explain why in this study both postnatal
640 and prenatal factors had an important effect on lamb growth.

641 Results of this study confirm previously reported non-disease related factors associated with
642 lamb growth, such as ewe breed (hybrid breed individuals were associated with greater weights
643 than animals from pure breeds (Sidwell et al., 1964)), ewe age (ewes aged between 3 and 6
644 years produced significant heavier lambs than yearlings (Dickerson and Laster, 1975)), and sex
645 (males lambs grew faster than females (Fourie et al., 1970)).

646

647 A secondary aim of this research was to compare and evaluate statistical models with different
648 random effect structures (hierarchical, cross classified and multiple membership) for modelling
649 growth curves. The results demonstrated that the multiple membership model structure
650 provided a better model fit than the competing structures (Supplementary materials - Table 1A)
651 and hence should provide most reliable parameter estimates. The multiple membership model
652 performed better than the classical, hierarchical alternative that included a random slope term in
653 the *age* term. Traditional animal growth models commonly include a random slope for the time
654 variable (Mølbak et al., 1997; Suzuki et al., 2012) to allow the relationship between age and
655 growth to vary between individuals (Leeden, 1998), generally improving model fit. In this study,
656 the multiple membership groups effectively incorporated the growth trajectories of individual
657 lambs over time allowing weighing of the time spent in a group and hence accounted for
658 variation in lamb growth at different ages. Interestingly, the multiple membership model

659 provided a better model fit than the hierarchical alternative which suggests the grouping
660 variable provided a better representation of variation between lambs over time than a random
661 effect for the interaction between lamb and age. This may be because the multiple membership
662 model accounted for an effect of time spent in each group, and that growth rate differences
663 between lambs were highly dependent on the environmental circumstances within these groups.
664 Multiple membership structures have previously been shown to be important to optimise model
665 fit (Grady, 2010), and since animals are commonly grouped within agricultural systems, such
666 model structures should perhaps be investigated more commonly. One limitation of these
667 models is that despite allowing for the effects of re-grouping over time, there is no additional
668 historic effect captured. For example, if presence in new group resulted in a prolonged
669 reduction in growth rate, whilst lambs entered different groups, the effect will not be identified.
670 Whilst further modelling approaches could explore such effect it appears from the study that
671 the inclusion of lamb group is worthwhile when estimating parameters in growth models.
672 In the current study the final model explained a considerable proportion of the total variability
673 in lamb weight observations (68%), but there was still some variation that remained
674 unexplained. Variation between lamb within ewe (which is not therefore a consequence of
675 genetic variation) represented the greatest proportion of unexplained variability
676 (Supplementary materials - Table 1) and this could be due to a variety of differences including
677 colostrum intake, subclinical disease, and additional unrecorded disease events, such as
678 diarrhoea (Green et al., 1998; Huntley et al., 2012) or endoparasitism (Kyriazakis et al., 1996;
679 Mavrot et al., 2015). Collection of further data at the individual animal level could potentially
680 reduce the proportion of unexplained variance and identify other important factors associated
681 with lamb growth rates.

682 A limitation of this study was low incidence rate of some diseases and this is possibly explained
683 by the fact that the data were collected in an intensively-managed, pro-active commercial
684 breeding flock where disease management may be better than is typical farms in the UK. The
685 small number of disease cases in this study could lead to an increased uncertainty in the

686 estimation of the model parameters and result in model overfitting. In order to investigate
687 possible overfitting, a 10-fold cross validation was carried out. The cross validation results
688 indicated that the internal and CV model fit parameters were very similar thus suggesting that
689 the model had a good balance between model variance and bias with no overfitting (Kuhn and
690 Johnson, 2013). Despite the fact that this study only included data from one farm, the results
691 from the cross validation suggest that the model results may be generalizable to other similar
692 sheep flocks. However, the generalisability of these findings to other types of sheep flocks has
693 yet to be assessed and requires further research. Further research would also be useful to test
694 and validate the hypotheses generated in this study in particular the possibility that heavier
695 lambs are more susceptible to some diseases and that in sheep the trade-off between growth
696 and immune function exists as in other species.

697

698. **5. Conclusion**

699 This is the first longitudinal study to estimate the concurrent impact of ewe and lamb
700 characteristics and disease events on lamb growth rate and provides evidence that that a
701 combination of these factors play an important role in determining lamb growth rate. In
702 addition the data suggest that faster growing lambs may be more susceptible to disease. Use of a
703 multiple membership mixed model structure better model fit than hierarchical and cross
704 classified alternatives, suggesting that this type of model can be useful to model growth of
705 livestock where multiple regrouping occurs.

706

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 936 **Supplementary Materials**

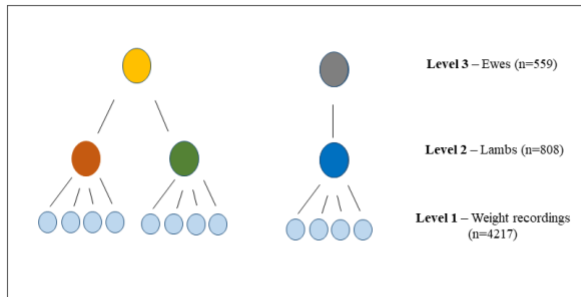
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 938 *Table 1. Variance partitioning and deviance Information Criterion of the three models compared in*
 939 *this study (hierarchical, cross classified and multiple membership models). The multiple*
 940 *membership model showed the best fit (lowest DIC).*

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	
	Hierarchical structure	Cross classified structure	Multiple Membership structure	Proportion of total variance (%)
Variance level 4 (cross classification / multiple membership level)		9.0	2.4	12%
Variance level 3 (ewe-level)	3.9	2.7	4.0	21%
Variance level 2 (lamb-level)	9.2	5.8	8.7	49%
Variance level 1 (weight repeated measures-level)	4.8	4.8	3.4	18%
Deviance Information Criterion (DIC)	19154.6	19130.3	17756.4	

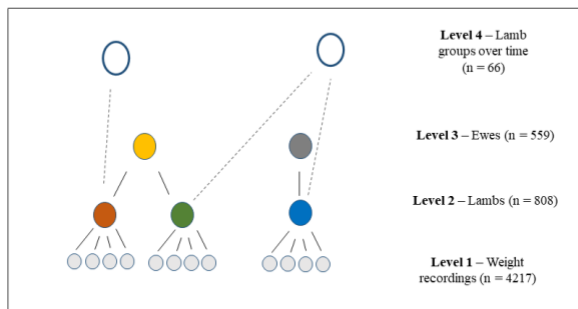
941 Figure 1

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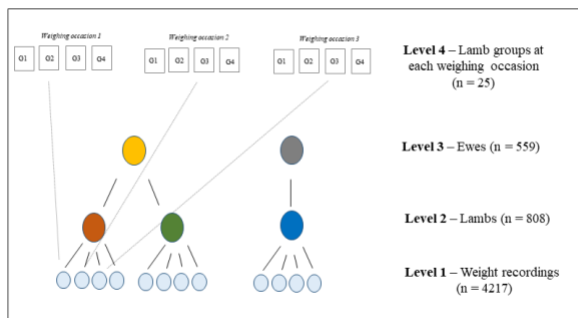
A. Hierarchical model



B. Cross-classified model



C. Multiple membership model



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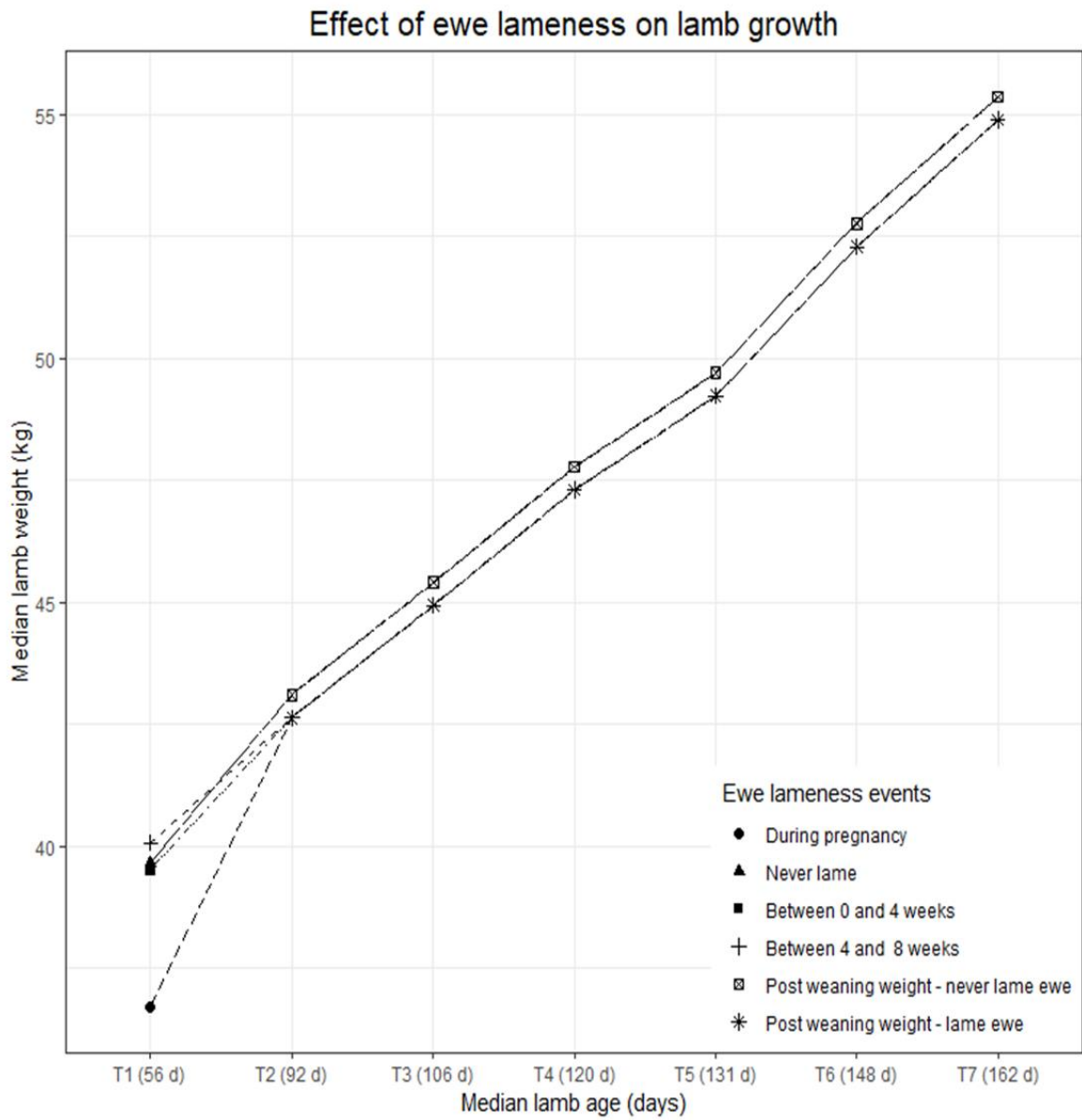
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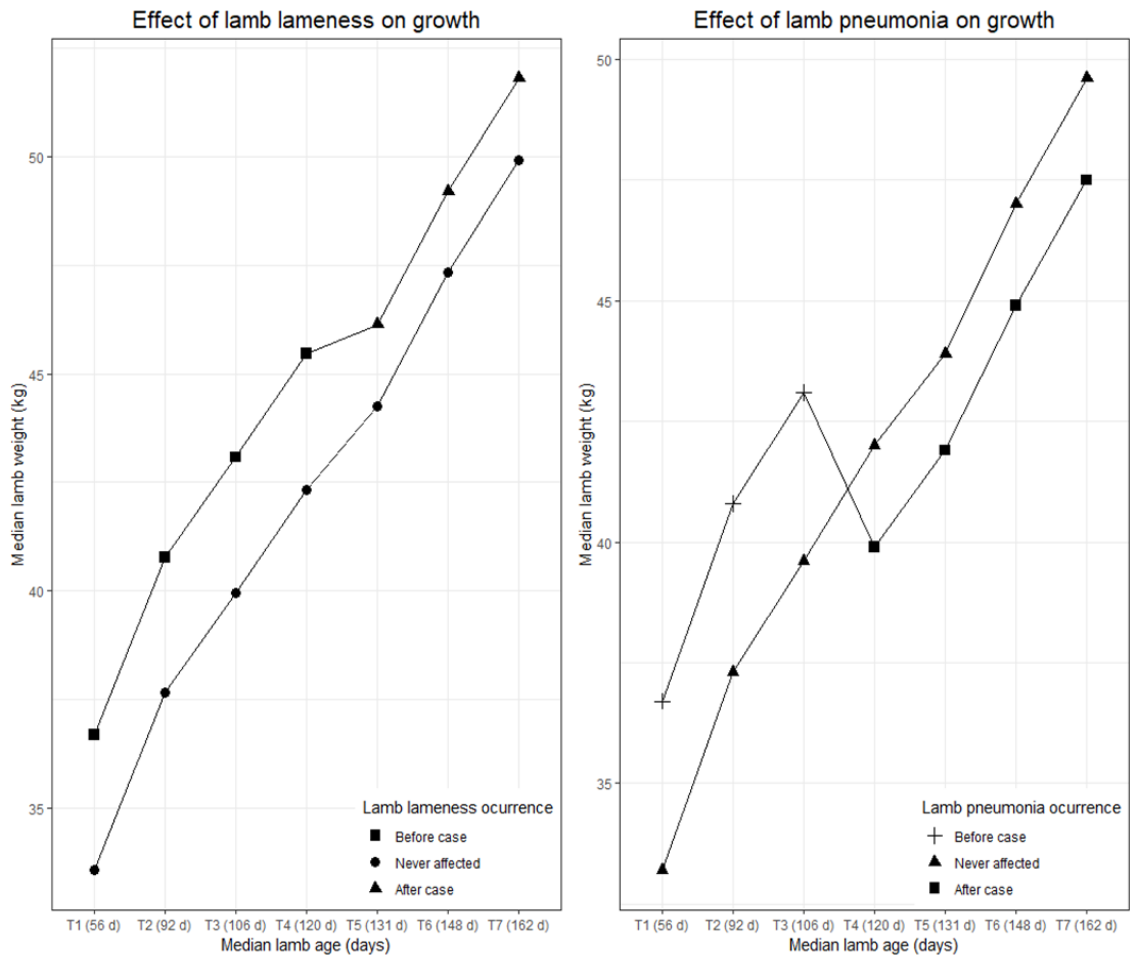
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953 Figure 2
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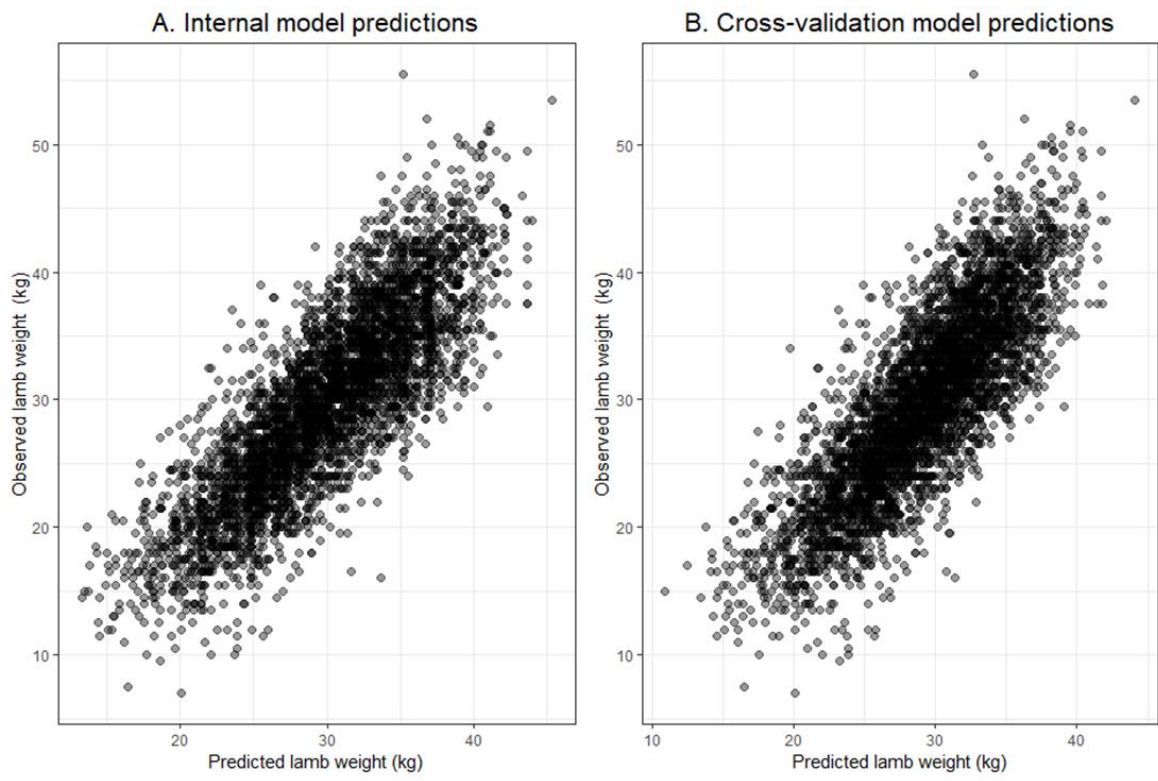
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973 Figure 3
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993 Figure 4
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