

Hypothermia in newborn calves

Review Article

Volume : 2, Issue :1
April 2018
Pages: 30–37

Süleyman Kozat*

Yuzuncu Yil University, Faculty of Veterinary, Department of Internal Medicine, Zeve Campus
Van/Turkey

ABSTRACT

One of the most important losses in animal husbandry is yield loss of neonatal calves. The first hour of birth and life in newborn neonatal is very important for the survival of life. According to the results of the research, it is reported that the mortality rates of the calves are higher in the beginning of spring and in the winter season. Approximately 50 to 53% of calf defects in the neonatal period occur at birth or within two days of life. The most important cause of calf's losses is the formation of hypothermia in newborns because of the temperature of the environment is much lower than body temperature of calf, the change of air temperature (cold air and strong wind), the calf wetness and the lack of thermoregulation. In this review, detailed information about causes of hypothermia, treatment and prevention of neonatal calf defects will be provided.

Keywords: Calf, Newborn, Hypothermia

Article History

Received : 26.03.2018
Accepted : 25.04.2018
Available online : 30.04.2018

DOI: 10.30704/http-www-jivs-net.409147

To cite this article: Kozat, S. (2018). Hypothermia in newborn calves. *Journal of Istanbul Veterinary Sciences*, 2(5), 74-37. **Abbreviated Title:** *J Ist Vet Sci*.

Introduction

The neonatal period is one of the most critical stages in the development of farm animals because morbidity and mortality rates in this period are highest of all life stages (Hammon et al., 2012). There are lots of factors which can cause loss of life after birth in neonatal calves such as dystocia, inherited problems, infectious agents, and stressors of environment (Bellows, 1997). Surveys show that mortality in beef herds from birth to weaning ranges from 3 to 7%. Calf survivability also depends on cow feeding (Bull, 1983; Bellows, 1997; Lammoglia et al., 1999). Colostrum intake is another factor which is dividing to type and timing. These factors can dramatically influence calf life either alone or in combination with each other (Bull, 1983; Bellows 1997; Lammoglia et al., 1999; Godden, 2008). Most of newborn calf's deaths happen along the first day of life and leading causes of death during this period are dystocia which is defined slow and difficult births beside hypothermia which is known as cold stress correct and to the point care strategy beside proper

treatment of the hypothermic calf can reduce the rate of mortality (Odde, 1988; Kasari, 1994; Butler et al., 2006; Nagy, 2009). Late winter and early spring are the most calves born period and as normal in these periods of year and due to exposure to sever environmental situations, cold stressed and hypothermia can occurred (Martin et al., 1975; Stott et al., 1976; Waltner-Toews et al., 1986; Holland and Odde, 1992). Newborn calves can face up with a dramatically temperature as they leave the comfortable warm zone of the uterus throughout the cold zone (Bellows, 1993). Soaked newborn calves can lost most amount of body heat due to surface area exposed is large and the vaporization of birth fluids from the respiratory tract and skin. Hypothermia in newborn calves is related with a prolonged time to standing, a holdup in suckling which may due to frostbite, elevated range of calf's death and weak soaking up of colostrum in this case hypothermia is leader percent of all neonatal calf fatality (Wiltbank et al., 1961; Bellows, 1993). Normal rectal temperature in term and preterm calves is at 38.6 - 39.4°C. Body temperature of 35 to 38°C is mildly hypothermic and

*Corresponding Author: Süleyman Kozat.
Department of Internal Diseases, Faculty of Veterinary
Medicine, University of Yuzuncu Yil, 65080 Van, Turkey.
E mail: skozat@hotmail.com

will usually respond to tubing with warm colostrum and being placed in a sheltered or warm room (Wiltbank et al., 1961; Lammoglia et al., 1999; Godden, 2008). Calves with a temperature lower than 35 °C are considering as hypothermic and importance of urgent treatment is required (Wiltbank et al., 1961; Bellows, 1993; Howard, 1993). In premature calves known as hypothermia which is elevate fatality rate and it may be totally environmental or represent interaction diseases such as sepsis (Howard, 1993). Holding a proper environmental temperature in the operating room and delivery room is vital in limiting hypothermia. This kind of calves should be warmed again and any predisposing factors must be identified and treated (Wiltbank et al., 1961; Howard, 1993; Lammoglia et al., 1999; Godden, 2008).

Mechanisms of thermogenesis

Process of heat production neonatal calves is in a relationship with several factors: physical activity the metabolism of brown adipose tissue, heat increment of feeding, the metabolic rate of body tissues, trembling (Alexander et al., 1975; Vermorel et al., 1989; Carstens 1994).

Non-trembling thermogenesis

According to data's neonatal calves have brown adipose tissue which is amounted about 2 % of body weight (Alexander et al., 1975; Carstens, 1994). It is situated in the prescapular, inguinal, prerenal regions (Cannon and Nedergaard, 2004; Mattson, 2010). Administration of noradrenaline elevates production of heat in 30 minutes more than 70% (Carstens, 1994). In another research more than to 200% and as a result an elevate in rectal temperature of 1 or 2 °C (Alexander et al., 1975). Non-trembling thermogenesis is a responsible of a huge part of whole heat producing of neonatal calves in the cold weather. But by the aging of neonatal calf noradrenaline administration reacts less and less due to brown adipose tissue is quickly changed to white adipose tissue during the first month of life (Alexander et al., 1975; Carstens, 1994).

Trembling thermogenesis

Trembling emerges a bit after birth in calves held at 10 °C and ceases when the hair coat is approximately dry. It affects first muscles of skin and quickly skeletal muscles. In 12 h old calves lying in a 37 °C water bath, trembling begins when water degree falls to 32 °C. In despite of large between animal variations, the lower the water temperature, the more the calf trembles. Trembling is rapidly followed by an elevate in heat

production changing from 30% to more than 100 % (Vermorel et al., 1989).

Physical activity

Consuming of energy corresponding to physical activity participates also elevate thermogenesis. Neonatal calf attempts to stand up, its heat production elevates by 30 to 100% and after 10 min standing, its energy consuming is also elevated by 100% and by the passing time nearly 30 minutes, heat production is elevated by 40% on average over this period (Vermorel et al., 1989).

Energy sources available for thermogenesis

Body reserves are known as available Energy sources at birth: labile proteins, lipids, hepatic and muscular glycogen. Fasting is a cause of rapid mobilization and breaking down of glycogen stores. As shown by the increase in respiratory quotient from 5% when the calf is struggling to stand up, Glucose is used for thermogenesis and for physical activity. Corticoids are responsible for high level of mobilization of protein after birth (Olson et al., 1981). In newborn held at 10°C the respiratory quotient is close to 0.80 so glucose is probably not the major energy source. Moreover, it reduces by 5 to 13% in 12 h old calves held in a water bath when water temperature drops from 37 to 30 °C (Vermorel et al., 1989). Non esterified fatty acids (NEFA) are one of plasma parameters which is increased due to body lipids mobilization. The latter are broken down in the brown and in the white adipose tissues and in the muscles. Colostrum is a nutrition which is constitutes an excellent energy source in calves for head production. It provides huge amounts of fatty acids, glucose and amino acids to the body. Rapid absorption of nutrients cause immunoglobulins emerge in the blood less than one hour after colostrum consumption (Olson et al., 1980). In 24 Friesian calves held at 10 °C, during the first and the second hour following colostrum consumption at 12 h of age thermogenesis was elevated on average by 18% and 9% (Vermorel et al., 1989). As a result, 2 kg fed of colostrum is providing energy requirement of a 40 kg neonatal calf held at 10 °C for 24 hours. So the importance of early colostrum intake for thermoregulation as it is for passive immunity is clears (Warnes et al., 1977; Vermorel et al., 1989).

Regulation of thermogenesis

Thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) secretion and thyroxine (T4) cause an increasing of plasma tri-iodothyronine (T3) and T4 amounts at birth and high

during the first hours of life (Davicco et al., 1982). In hypothermic neonatal calves level of cortisol, adrenaline and noradrenaline secretions are increased and up to the end of the stress Plasma levels remain so high (Olson et al., 1981; Cannon and Nedergaard, 2004). This increases process of thermogenesis considerably. On the other hand, high vitality calves shake or struggle before trembling begins, at the first sense of cold (Vermorel et al., 1989). Nervous thermoregulatory and hormonal processes (except peripheral vasoconstriction) are therefore well expanded in the neonatal calves and operative to maximum, supplied good calving conditions (Warnes et al., 1977; Davicco et al., 1982; Vermorel et al., 1989).

Pathophysiology

Thermal balance is in a relationship with direct contact, ambient air temperature, air flow with cool surface, humidity and proximity to cool objects. Neonatal calves are susceptible hypothermia due to a large surface area to volume ratio, which is even greater in low-weight neonatal calves (Butler et al., 2006; Godden, 2008)

There are several factors for hypothermia: Neonatal calves are wet with amniotic fluid which can cause evaporative heat loss. Neonatal calves are placed in contact with a cool surface or object which can cause Conductive heat loss. Heat loss due to environment containing objects of cold conditions. A flow of cooler environmental air carries heat away from the neonate which can bring about Convective heat loss. Thermolysis, thermogenesis and variations of rectal temperature

Rectal temperatures at birth is about 0.8°C above that of the cow and nearly 39.5 °C (Thompson and Clough, 1970, Rawson et al., 1989) decrease to 38.6 °C during the initial hour of life and then remain at around 38.8 °C 6 hour after (Vermorel et al., 1989). In cold exposed calves during the second day of life rectal temperatures elevate to about 39.2 °C (Webster et al., 1970). In neonatal calves held at 20 °C, thermogenesis is at its best 15 minutes after birth. And continue for 3 hour, then decline slowly by 30% from the 3 to 6 hour of life (Thompson and Clough, 1970) evaporation of amniotic fluid and drying of the coat are occurred in this period which is become more and more insulating. The process of calf thermogenesis increases in 5 day and decreases after one week of age (Roy et al., 1957). This event is in a relation with functioning of the liver, hematopoietic organs and digestive tract (Borderas et al., 2009).

Effects of climatic conditions

Climatic conditions are important in the process of

thermolysis and thermogenesis and specifically on ambient temperature windy and rainy affect process of heat production and consequently energy requirement for thermogenesis. In 3 to 5 to week-old Friesian neonatal calves, respectively thermogenesis was elevated by 25%, 45% and 65% at ambient temperatures of 10 °C, 5 °C and 0 °C (Holmes and McLean, 1975).

Types of hypothermia

Hypothermia could be divided in tree stage: 1. Mild hypothermia (exposure) which is the continuous loss of body heat in a cold ambient. This type affects all classes of livestock but particularly affects young, old and thin animals via evaporation, respiration and lack of adequate hair coat, body flesh or weather protection (Laster and Gregory, 1973; Holland and Odde, 1992; Lammoglia et al., 1999). Mild hypothermia happens as the body's temperature decreases under nearly 38.6 °C for dairy calves and 37.7 °C for beef calves (Laster and Gregory, 1973; Odde, 1988; Holland and Odde, 1992; Lammoglia et al., 1999). 2. Acute to sever hypothermia (immersion) which is the quick loss of body heat due to covered hair coat in a cold ambient. Acute heat loss is often happened on during birth when the calf is born covered with birthing liquids. Other possibilities may consist being born in wet ground or snow, falling into a stream or being covered from rains followed by coldly winds (Laster and Gregory, 1973; Holland and Odde, 1992; Lammoglia et al., 1999). 3. Severe hypothermia results as decrease body temperature less than 34.5 °C which in this condition the vital organs are beginning to get cold. Below 30°C, signs of life are very difficult to detect and the calf may be mistaken for dead (Laster and Gregory, 1973; Odde, 1988; Holland and Odde, 1992; Lammoglia et al., 1999). The usage of the thermometer is crucial to diagnose the level of hypothermia. Sometimes appearance of calf does not represent hypothermia, but use of temperature show that the calf's body temperature is under normal. This is occurring in a situation such as dystocia, which lead calf to hypoxic (lack of oxygen). The calf being hypoxic, is slow to dry off, allows hypothermia to set in (Bruning -Fann and Kaneene, 1992; Lammoglia et al., 1999; Butler et al., 2006; Godden, 2008). Unrecognized, long term cold stress may leads calories to produce heat, and have negative effect on growth. Neonatal calves have a metabolic response to cooling that involves chemical (no trembling) heat production by norepinephrine which is produced by sympathetic nerve in the brown fat. This specialized tissue of the neonatal calf responds by lipolysis and emerges of fatty

oxidation or re-esterification of the fatty acids is done. Result of this process is produce of local heat which is carried to the rest of the body by supply of blood to the brown fat (Martin et al., 1975; Bruning-Fann and Kaneene, 1992; Butler et al., 2006). This process elevates the metabolic level and oxygen consumption two to three fold. Thus, in neonatal calf's with respiratory problem (e.g. asphyxia), cold stress can cause neurologic damage and tissue hypoxia and hyperglycemia may appear as a result of Activation of glycogen. Prolonged hypothermia can bring about metabolic acidosis, hypoglycemia and enhances the risk of sepsis and fatality (Martin et al., 1975; Warnes et al., 1977; Olson et al., 1980; Vermorel et al., 1989; Bruning-Fann and Kaneene, 1992; Butler et al., 2006). Despite their compensatory mechanisms, neonatal calves, especially low birth weight calves, have finite capacity to thermoregulation and are inclined to reduce temperature level. Even before temperature decreases, cold stress occurs when heat loss requires an increase in metabolic heat production (Roy et al., 1957; Martin et al., 1975; Warnes et al., 1977; Olson et al., 1980; Vermorel et al., 1989; Bruning-Fann and Kaneene, 1992; Butler et al., 2006).

Etiology

The etiology of hypothermia in neonatal calves can divide in two sections which are described below: 1. Physiologic responses of well resistant neonatal calves (animals which respire immediately after birth, get up and suckle soon after). 2. The variations with breed and ambient situations and the thermoregulation failures of low resistant calves, mostly dystocial calves. Strong neonatal calves are able to face severe ambient conditions according to a quick elevate in thermogenesis through the process of brown adipose tissue, trembling, physical activity and colostrum fed (Alexander et al., 1975; Vermorel et al., 1989; Carstens, 1994). Conversely, low vitality calves, born under bad calving situations (dystocia, premature) are disabled by acidosis, hypoxia and hyperlactatemia and also limited mobilization of body lipids, which reduce thermogenesis. Moreover, their physical activity is reduced and they lost their standing ability, which elevates their heat losses. More than half of neonatal calf's death happens during 24 to 48 hours after birth. Fatality rates are elevated by hard birthing and sever ambient situations. But, processes of heat productions are operative at birth, consists the process of brown adipose tissue, trembling and physical ability (Martin et al., 1975). As in single calves also in twin, process of heat production is just as effectual provided that

calving situations are good. Blood pH at birth was very low in dystocial calves, in eutocial calves, lactatemia was 2 or 3 times higher than, plasma T3 and T4 amounts were also decrease and mobilization of body lipids was lowered. This explain the cause of decrease in rectal temperature and also explain thermolysis in this kind of calves (Uetake, 2013). Thermoregulation process of Friesian was higher than of Charolais and Salers calves which were due to less basal metabolism rate rather from a good thermic insulation the physiological responses of calves born by caesarean parturition depend on the delay incurred during surgical removal (Laster and Gregory, 1973; Carstens et al., 1987; Uetake, 2013). The neonatal calf has face up to severe thermolysis in a situation of low body physiological resistance, principally because of occurrence of hypoxia. This is one of the reasons why hypothermia often occurs and may cause death of low resistance neonatal calves (Martin et al., 1975).

Hypothermia and environmental factors

Environment stressors like cold or wet ambient can be harsh on neonatal calves in winter and early spring and these calves are more susceptible to hypothermia (cold stress) (Martin et al., 1975). Rainfall have negative role in neonatal calf life when temperatures decrease (Azzam et al., 1993). So it is significant to fight hypothermia (cold stress) in neonatal calves as mentioned before rectal temperature is done to finding if calves are facing up with cold stress (Torell et al., 1998) when body temperature decrease under 37.5 °C consider as mild hypothermia and decrease below 34.5°C consider severe hypothermia. To fight hypothermia, the calf trembles to elevate process of thermoregulation and shunt blood from peripheral area of body to the body core.

Symptoms

Faced with a cold ambient, the body tries to resist in two ways: trembling, to elevate muscle thermoregulation, and blood flowing, to decrease heat loss by limiting blood flow from the body extremities and delivering blood flow to the body core (Torell et al., 1998). A decreasing in body temperature, impair teat seeking activity, malfunction of gastric mechanisms and lack of absorption of immunoglobulins and nutrients. Mild hypothermia happens as the body's core temperature decreases under normal (nearly 37.5 °C for beef calves). Vigorous trembling is usually come along with elevated pulse and breathing rates as a first symptom and sign. A cold nostril and pale cold hooves and ears are happened as a result of limiting of blood flow from the body's extremities. In the case of a

neonatal calves, intense trembling may follow with their disability to get up and suckle this signs can lead calves for intense hypothermic situation. Unsteady behavior, stupor and slowness are all symptoms of dummy calf, which is happens in mild hypothermia. Severe hypothermia results as the body temperature decreases less than 34.5 °C. Continues blood shunting bring about poor oxygenation of the tissues near the body surface which is responsible of appearing cold and pale nostril, ears and hooves. Decreased circulation also results in a buildup of acid metabolites (waste products) in the muscles of extremities. After the shivering stops, it is replaced by muscle rigidity. The pulse and respiration begin to slow as the body core cools to 31 °C (Azzam et al. 1993, Torell et al. 1998). As continues body temperature falling to decrease, the body continues to lead blood flow to body core and the negative aspect of this event is acid metabolic acidosis which is due to accumulation of acid metabolites in the extremities muscle of the body. Coldness of vital organs and impaired brain function are significant signs at 34.5 °C of body temperature and as decreases below 30 °C. Pupils are fixed and dilated and the pulse may be undetectable and signs of life are hard to identify (Odde, 1988). Irregular gasps for air may be the only signs of life disorders that impair thermoregulation such as sepsis, hemorrhage, cold stress due to environmental factors, problems that impair thermoregulation or a mixture of them (Torell et al., 1998). Risk factors for hypothermia include giving birth in an cold ambient area temperature below than recommended levels, maternal hypertension, cesarean, and low Apgar scores or a mixture of them (Bruning-Fann and Kaneene, 1992; Butler et al., 2006; Godden, 2008). All these factors during the first day of life contribute to the high fatality rate of neonatal calves. Giving birth during late winter and early spring, are often cold stressed and may become hypothermic because of exposure to harsh ambient conditions (Martin et al., 1975; Waltner-Toews et al., 1986; Holland and Odde, 1992). Neonatal calves were predisposed to cold stress and made hypothermic by immersion in water at 15 to 17 °C. Cold stress delayed the start and notably declined the amount of immunoglobulins absorption up to 12 hours after first feeding colostrum. But, this wasn't impressed the net sorption of immunoglobulins. The feasible disadvantageous effect of cold stress on sorption of immunoglobulins by neonatal calves under range situations is discussed. Hence, it seems possible hypothermia has a negative effect on sorption of immunoglobulins by neonatal calves which can bring

about further problems such as weak calf imperfect grows, bad body condition and easily get sick which are some of the effects of cold stress on the lack of sorption of immunoglobulins in neonatal calves (Torell et al., 1998).

Treatment

The metabolic reactions of the less strong calves and the hypotheses advanced to clarify the phenomena open a fascinating field of research with respect to medicines bound to guarantee the survival and a quick recovery of less strong calves (Lombard et al., 2007). The emergency medicine idea of the 'golden hour' can be performed to in danger neonatal calves. This term alludes to the principle of rapid intervention to avert ensuing sequelae. High hazard calves can be recognized (a) preceding birth by the anticipated probability of agony from dystocia; (b) amid birth by huge forelimbs, cyanosed muzzle and gums, swollen tongue; or (c) after birth by apnea or dyspnea, lateral recumbence, flabby musculature and poor pedal and suck reflex (Torell et al., 1998). Strategies for rewarming are changed and incorporate warm water shower, warm air or warmth lights (hot box), and warm covers.

Warming methods

Warm covers ought not to be hot to the point that they cause skin burns. Change the covers frequently to keep up a reliable temperature. As the calf turns out to be more dynamic, it might end up plainly hard keeping the cover on the calf yet keeping after it. It is basic not to give the calf a chance to chill out after being warmed. A warming or hot cover case is another instrument you cause to warm neonatal calves. There are commercial ones accessible. Think about temperature control strategy, condition and ventilation. Some hot box concerns are the same as for warming covers (Griffen et al., 1960; Bull, 1983). The temperature ought not to be high that it can cause injures. Keep the temperature at 40.5-42.2 °C (Griffen et al., 1960; Borderas et al., 2009). Some sort of venting is important to anticipate development of carbon monoxide and dampness. Dampness development could chill the calf back off. Ventilation, for example, from a fan, is essential to guarantee thorough warming of neonatal calves (Torell et al., 1998). It can likewise avert problem areas in the warming cover box. Thermostatic management will help keep up reliable temperatures in light of the fact that warmth will cycle on and off as required. Access to clean condition is critical to keep the spread of ailment between neonatal calves. Clean out the hot box between uses to reduce the spread of disease (Lombard et al., 2007). Heating box are a potential supply of calf

diarrhea organisms and may make the spread of scours inside a group easier if consideration isn't paid to thorough cleaning and purification among calves (Torell et al., 1998). It is important support the calf to prevent drowning when utilizing a warm water shower. The water ought to be step by step warmed to 37.5 °C. At that point noticed the thermometer; the water should be changed to keep it at 37.5 °C (Griffen et al., 1960; Lombard et al., 2007). Calves should be steady before returned to the cow. Notice it intently to screen its condition, now and later on. The calf might be more prone to illness difficulties, such as scours and pneumonia subsequent to having such a hard birth (Lombard et al., 2007).

Rewarming process

Hypothermia is treated by rewarming and the neonatal calf ought to be checked and treated as required for hypoglycemia, hypoxemia, and apnea. Hidden conditions, for example, drug withdrawal, sepsis or intracranial hemorrhage requires particular treatment (Butler et al., 2006).

Colostrum administration

The viability of the calf can be defined by its ability to live and grow with physical, mental energy and endurance (Murray and Leslie, 2013). Low calf viability can result from pain, injury, homeostasis, hypoxia, and inability to protect against acidosis (Besser et al., 1990; Kasari, 1994). These physiological responses may cause behavioral effects such as decreased motivation to achieve natural behaviors for survival, such as survival and postpartum colostrum absorption (Barrier et al., 2013). Not taking enough colostrum shortly after birth can affect the long-term health of the calf and put it at greater risk for disease and mortality (Bellows, 1997). To start thermogenesis in the calf, the colostrum is an excellent source of energy (6.7 Mj / kg). This supplies large amounts of glucose and amino acids and is absorbed from the intestines into the blood within one hour with possible immune globulins (Olson et al., 1980). For a 40 kg calf, 2 kg of colostrum is an ideal source of energy for 24 hours. Colostrum thermoregulation is crucial for passive immunity (Davico et al., 1982). It has been reported that hypothermia is usually caused by excessive heat loss due to wetness of newborn calves and heat production due to starvation, thus reducing the risk of hypothermia by taking enough colostrum in the first 2 hours after birth (Drost, 1980).

Glucose injection

Since hypothermia always accompanies hypoglycemia, glucose solutions are used for the treatment of

hypothermia. For this purpose, 5-10% glucose solutions at body temperature can be used orally, subcutaneously or intraperitoneally at a dose of 750 mg / kg. It has been reported that parenteral glucose injections would be a suitable method when clinically evaluating hypothermic frostbite heat when glucose measurements are not possible (Stanko et al., 1992).

Adjustment of Conditions of marriage

Dystocia in cows (Barrier et al., 2013), which can result in loss of calf, sometimes loss of cerebrospinal fluid and often late pregnancy, and which impairs thermoregulation ability of the calf (Murray and Leslie, 2013). In many studies conducted in this area, it has been reported that cold temperatures at 0 °C barriers in the ambient temperature fail to fight cold and a significant decrease in rectal temperature is reported (Vermorel et al., 1989; Barrier et al., 2013). It is important that neonatal calves survive and are not affected by diseases such as ambient temperature, conditions of marriage and care and feeding of calves. It has been reported that the hutches used in recent years have made a significant contribution to the prevention of calf losses. The hutches have a vital emphasis in that the placement is not directed at the cold winds and the bottom is often changed to prevent wetness (Torell et al., 1998). The idea that the animal will drink less water in cold weather conditions is very common. The animals of the growers do not drink water because the water they put in front of them is mostly frozen. The increase in consumption of the initial bait, which gives birth to the newborn calves, depends on water consumption. An animal that does not drink water cannot consume food. Studies have also shown that giving cold water 3-4 times a day increases cold water consumption and thus growth (Vermorel et al., 1989; Murray and Leslie, 2013).

Prevention

Keeping up a suitable natural temperature is the most vital advance in anticipating hypothermia in neonatal calves. Untimely neonatal calves that are hypothermic when admitted to the neonatal have expanded bleakness and fatality; elevating the temperature in the giving birth and operating rooms has been found to decrease the occurrence of hypothermia. Consequently, raising room temperature just when giving birth is anticipated may enable warm misfortune to cool surfaces and convective warmth misfortune caused by wind stream, the room ought to be kept up at the prescribed temperature persistently (Bellows, 1997; Butler et al., 2006; Lombard et al., 2007). At the time of birth, neonatal calves ought to be promptly dried and

then swaddled (consisting the head) in a warm cover to counteract evaporative, conductive, and convective misfortunes. For untimely neonatal calves, placement into a polyethylene bag instantly after giving birth has been found to help keep up the calves temperature; a few clinicians do not dry the calves before placing it into the bag because the elevated moistness might be advantageous (Bellows, 1997; Butler et al., 2006; Lombard et al., 2007). As a result, neonatal calves uncovered for resuscitation or observation ought to be

put under a warm box to prevent heat misfortunes. Sick neonatal calves should be kept up in a neutral warm ambient to minimize the metabolic rate. The correct incubator temperature varies relying upon the neonatal calf's birth weight and postnatal age, and humidity in the incubator. On the other hand, warming can be balanced with a servomechanism set to keep up skin temperature standard level (Bellows, 1997; Butler et al., 2006).

References

- Alexander, G., Bennett, J. W., & Gemmell, R. T. (1975). Brown adipose tissue in the new-born calf (*Bos taurus*). *Journal Physiology*, 800(1), 223-234.
- Azzam, S. M., Kinder, J. E., Nielsen, M. K., Werth, L. A., Gregory, K. E., Cundiff, L. V., & Koch, R. M. (1993). Environmental effects on neonatal mortality of beef calves. *Journal of Animal Science*, 71(2), 282-290.
- Barrier, A. C., Haskell, M. J., Birch, S., Bagnall, A., Bell, D. J., Dickinson, J., & Dwyer, C. M. (2013). The impact of dystocia on dairy calf health, welfare, performance and survival. *Veterinary Journal*, 751(1), 86-90.
- Bellows, R. A. (1993, 6-7 December). *Factors affecting calving difficulty*. Paper presented at the Range Beef Cow Symposium XIII, Cheyenne, US.
- Bellows, R.A. (1997, 9-11 December). *Factors affecting calf survival*. Paper presented at the Range Beef Cow Symposium XV, South Dakota, US.
- Besser, T. E., Szenci, O., & Gay, C. C. (1990). Decreased colostral immunoglobulin absorption in calves with postnatal respiratory acidosis. *Journal of American Veterinary Medical Association*, 196(8), 1239-1243.
- Borderas, F. T., De Passillé, A. M. B., & Rushen, J. (2009). Temperature preferences and feed level of the newborn dairy calf. *Applied Animal Behaviour Science*, 120(1), 56-61.
- Bruning-Fann, C., & Kaneene, J. B. (1992). Environmental and management risk factors associated with morbidity and mortality in perinatal and pre-weaning calves: a review from an epidemiological perspective. *Veterinary Bulletin*, 28(5), 399-413.
- Bull, R. C. (1983, 6-7 December). *Cow nutrition and calf survival*. Paper presented at the Range Beef Cow Symposium XIII, Cheyenne, US.
- Butler, L., Daly, R., & Wright, C. (2006). *Cold stress and newborn calves*. Retrieved from: http://openprairie.sdstate.edu/extension_extra/73
- Cannon, B., & Nedergaard, J. A. N. (2004). Brown adipose tissue: function and physiological significance. *Physiological Reviews*, 84(1), 277-359.
- Carstens, G. E., Johnson, D. E., Holland, M. D., & Odde, K. G. (1987). Effects of prepartum protein nutrition and birth weight on basal metabolism in bovine neonates. *Journal of Animal Science*, 65(3), 745-751
- Carstens, G. E. (1994). Cold thermoregulation in the newborn calf. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 10(1), 69-106.
- Davicco, M. J., Vigouroux, E., Dardillat, C., & Barlet, J. P. (1982). Thyroxine, triiodothyronine and iodide in different breeds of newborn calves. *Reproduction Nutrition Development*, 22(2), 355-362.
- Drost, M. (1980). Perinatal care of the calf. In D. A. Morrow, (Ed.), *Current therapy in theriogenology*, (pp. 274-285). Philadelphia, US: W. B. Saunders.
- Godden, S. (2008). Colostrum management for dairy calves. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 24(1), 19-39.
- Griffen, W. O., Castaneda, A., Nicoloff, D. M., Stone, N. H., & Wangenstein, O. H. (1960). Influence of local hypothermia on absorption from isolated intestinal segments. *Proceedings of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine*, 103(4), 757-759.
- Hammon, H. M., Steinhoff-Wagner, J., Schönhusen, U., Metges, C. C., & Blum, J. W. (2012). Energy metabolism in the newborn farm animal with emphasis on the calf: Endocrine changes and responses to milk-borne and systemic hormones. *Domestic Animal Endocrinology*, 43(2), 171-185.
- Holland, M. D., & Odde, K. G. (1992). Factors affecting calf birth weight: a review. *Theriogenology*, 94(5), 769-798.
- Holmes, C. W., & McLean, N. A. (1975). Effects of air temperature and air movement on the heat produced by young Friesian and Jersey calves, with some measurements of the effects of artificial rain. *New Zealand Journal of Agricultural Research*, 18(3), 277-284.
- Howard, J. L. (1993). *Current veterinary therapy 9: Food animal practice*. Philadelphia, US: W. B. Saunders
- Kasari, T. R. (1994). Weakness in the newborn calf. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 10(1), 167-180.
- Lammoglia, M. A., Bellows, R. A., Grings, E. E., Bergman, J. W., Short, R. E., & MacNeil, M. D. (1999). Effects of feeding beef females supplemental fat during gestation on cold tolerance in newborn calves. *Journal of Animal Science*, 77(4), 824-834.
- Laster, D. B., & Gregory, K. E. (1973). Factors Influencing peri-and early postnatal calf mortality. *Journal of Animal Science*, 37(5), 1092-1097.
- Lombard, J. E., Garry, F. B., Tomlinson, S. M., & Garber, L. P. (2007). Impacts of dystocia on health and survival of dairy calves. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 90(4), 1751-1760.
- Martin, S.W., Schwabe, C.W., & Franti, C.E. (1975). Dairy

- calf mortality rate: influence of meteorologic factors on calf mortality rate in Tulare County, California. *American Journal of Veterinary Research*, 36(08), 1105-1109.
- Mattson, M. P. (2010). Perspective: Does brown fat protect against diseases of aging? *Ageing Research Reviews*, 9(1), 69-76.
- Murray, C. F., & Leslie, K. E. (2013). Newborn calf vitality: Risk factors, characteristics, assessment, resulting outcomes and strategies for improvement. *Veterinary Journal*, 198(2), 322-328.
- Nagy, D. W. (2009). Resuscitation and critical care of neonatal calves. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 25(1), 1-11.
- Odde, K. C. (1988). Survival of the neonatal calf. *Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 4(3), 501-508.
- Olson, D. P., Papasian, C. J., & Ritter, R. C. (1980). The effects of cold stress on neonatal calves. II. Absorption of colostral immunoglobulins. *Canadian Journal of Comparative Medicine*, 44(1), 19-23.
- Olson, D. P., Ritter, R. C., Papasian, C. J., & Gutenberger, S. (1981). Sympathoadrenal and adrenal hormonal responses of newborn calves to hypothermia. *Canadian Journal of Comparative Medicine*, 45(3), 321.
- Rawson, R. E., Dziuk, H. E., Good, A. L., Anderson, J. F., Bates, D. W., Ruth, G. R., & Serfass, R. C. (1989). Health and metabolic responses of young calves housed at 30 degrees C to 8 degrees. *Canadian Journal of Veterinary Research*, 53(3), 268-274.
- Roy, J. H. B., Huffman, C. F., & Reineke, E. P. (1957). The basal metabolism of the newborn calf. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 11, 373-381.
- Stanko, R.L., Guthrie, M.J., Chase, C.C., & Randel, R.D. (1992). Effects of exogenous glucose or colostrum on body temperature, plasma glucose, and serum insulin in cold-stressed, newborn Brahman calves. *Journal of Animal Science*, 70(10), 3007-3013.
- Stott, G. H., Wiersma, F., Menefee, B. E., & Radwanski, F. R. (1976). Influence of environment on passive immunity in calves, *Journal of Dairy Science*, 59(7), 1306-1311.
- Thompson, G. E., & Clough, D. P. (1970). Temperature regulation in the new-born ox (*Bos taurus*). *Neonatology*, 15(1-2), 19-25.
- Torell, R., Kvasnicka, B., & Bruce, B. (1998). *Care of hypothermic (cold stressed) newborn beef calves*. Retrieved from <https://www.unce.unr.edu/publications/files/ag/ot/her/cl788.pdf>
- Uetake, K. (2013). Newborn calf welfare: A review focusing on mortality rates. *Journal of Animal Science*, 84(6), 545-105.
- Vermorel, M., Vernet, J., Dardillat, C., Demigne, C., & Davicco, M.J. (1989). Energy metabolism and thermoregulation in the newborn calf; effect of calving conditions. *Canadian Journal of Animal Science*, 69(1), 113-122.
- Waltner-Toews, D., Martin, S. W., & Meek, A. H. (1986). Dairy calf management, morbidity and mortality in Ontario Holstein herds. IV. Association of management with mortality. *Preventive Veterinary Medicine*, 4(2), 159-171.
- Warnes, D. M., Seamark, R. F., & Ballard, F. J. (1977). The appearance of gluconeogenesis at birth in sheep. Activation of the pathway associated with blood oxygenation. *Biochememical Journal*, 728(3), 627-634.
- Webster, A. J. F., Chlumecky, J., & Young, B. A. (1970). Effects of cold environments on the energy exchanges of young beef cattle. *Canadian Journal of Animal Science*, 50(1), 89-100.
- Wiltbank, J. N., Warwick, E. J., Vernon, E. H., & Priode, B. M. (1961). Factors affecting net calf crop in beef cattle. *Journal of Animal Science*, 20(3), 409-415.