Do We Need Two Close Up Dry Cow Groups?

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- **Take home messages**
  - Nutrition and management during the transition period are essential in determining the profitability of the cow for the rest of her lactation
  - Dry cows need to be fed high quality consistent sources of feed
  - Feeding a one group TMR reduces labor input, allows easier management of feed delivery
  - The cost associated with feeding one ration throughout the entire dry period is easily offset when considering the costs associated with the treatment and lost production for one case of ketosis.
  - Cow comfort and exercise are critical in assuring an excellent transition program for the high producing dairy cow

- **Introduction**

The transition period for dairy cows is generally defined as the time period from three weeks prior to parturition through three weeks after parturition. It is now recognized that defining and meeting the nutritional requirements of the transition dairy cow can greatly impact animal health, production in the ensuing lactation, overall longevity, and animal well-being (NRC, 2001). Nutrition and management during the transition period are essential in determining the profitability of the cow for the rest of her lactation. An inadequate transition program may result in cows having inconsistent feed intakes after calving, and metabolic diseases during the transition from dry period to early lactation. Inadequate nutrients provided to the transition cow can result in increased costs for veterinary treatment and loss of production potential. Problems during the transition period often result in the loss of 4.5 to 9 kgs of peak milk, which translates into economic losses up to $600 for that lactation. To maximize productivity and ensure successful reproduction, rations fed during this time
need to be nutrient dense and allow for proper transitioning of the diet to the lactating cow ration. Maximizing prepartum and postpartum dry matter intake is an important key to successful transition cow management. There are many excellent reviews detailing the physiological changes associated with the transition period (Block and Sanchez, 2001; Bell et al., 2000; Drackley et al., 2000; Ingvartsen and Anderson, 2000; Goff, 1997). This paper will examine various feeding management strategies that can impact the nutrient needs, overall management and health of the transition cow. It will focus on the practical aspects of nutritional management strategies for the cow during this very critical period of the lactation cycle.

- **Economic Impact**

Feed related costs typically construe 50-70% of the costs of production on a dairy farm, while the costs associated with a single health problem often are never fully recovered. Because the transition period (three weeks prepartum to three weeks postpartum) has the most impact on health, production and reproduction, the greatest marginal return for an investment that improves dairy cow profitability will occur for changes made during this time. The transition to lactation underscores the importance of gluconeogenesis in ruminants as hypoglycemia, ketosis, and related metabolic disorders are often observed when gluconeogenic capacity fails to adapt to the increased demands for glucose to support lactose synthesis and mammary metabolism. Ketosis is accompanied by fatty liver and cows that develop fatty liver and ketosis have reduced feed intake, lower gluconeogenic capacity (Grummer, 1995), lower milk production, and an increased risk for developing other metabolic and infectious diseases (Curtis et al., 1985). It has been estimated that an incident of ketosis costs the dairy producer $140/cow in treatment costs. Given a ketosis incidence rate of 17% in US cattle (Gillund et al., 2001), a producer milking 120 cows would lose $2,520 annually to clinical ketosis. Subclinical ketosis costs approximately $78/case (Geishauser et al., 2000). Additional losses are realized through lost milk production potential. Reducing subclinical ketosis and fatty liver such that cows produce a minimum of 0.5 kg more milk at peak lactation would result in an additional $2,880 of income. In addition, ketosis increases the risks of developing other metabolic diseases such as displaced abomasum ($334/case; Shaver et al., 1997), retained placenta ($319/case; Enevoldsen et al., 1995), and mastitis ($200/case; Nickerson, 1991) and other metabolic problems. Clearly, feeding management strategies that reduce clinical and subclinical ketosis will directly benefit dairy farm profitability, enhance animal well being and improve cow longevity.
Factors Impacting Nutrient Needs of the Transition Cow

Does Ruminal Capacity Affect Prepartum Intake Depression?

The fermentative capacity of the rumen has not adequately been characterized through the dry period to lactation. Understanding the dynamics of rumen digestion is critical to developing a mechanistic approach to predicting the nutritive value of feeds for transition dairy cows. During late gestation it has been thought that cows reduce dry matter intake as a consequence of constraints in rumen fill and digestion. This reduction in intake results in the mobilization of body fat and energy stores to meet tissue energy demands. The combination of these factors often leads to fatty liver and other problems. Increasing the supply of glucogenic precursors, such as propionate, act to minimize the negative impact of reduced feed intake during this period (Dann et al., 1999). Likewise increasing the energy density of diets for late-gestation dairy cows reduces fatty liver and improved lactation performance (Minor et al., 1998). However, diet modifications that increase energy density through inclusion of rapidly fermentable carbohydrates, such as starch, may increase the incidence of displaced abomasums, acidosis and result in over conditioned cows.

Hartnell and Satter (1979) demonstrated that there were no differences in ruminal fill, digesta capacity or ruminal retention time in prepartum vs. postpartum dairy cows. Park et al (2001) most recently demonstrated by measuring ruminal water holding capacity at various times prepartum and postpartum that physical capacity of the rumen during this time period does not contribute to prepartum intake depression. It becomes very clear as more information of this nature becomes available that to some extent the role of physical constraints has been overemphasized in ruminants and those metabolic and endocrine changes in late pregnancy and early lactation play an important role in prepartum intake reduction (Ingvartsen et al, 1999). Actually this intake reduction prepartum is not unique to ruminant animals. This also occurs in rats offered a nutritious diet, even though food consumption was substantially less than what would be expected because of their physical capacity (Peterson and Baumgardt, 1976). Some researchers have actually demonstrated that hypophagia may play an important role in early host defense mechanisms (Murray and Murray, 1979). It is known that during infections cytokines are released that may severely reduce intake. Additionally, feedback signals from the oxidation of nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) are speculated to down regulate intake in late pregnancy and early lactation when mobilization is high (Ingvartsen and Andersen, 2000). We have shown that cows have higher NEFA in blood at the same time as feed intake is reduced and the effect is similar whether this occurs prepartum or postpartum (Figure 1; Vallimont et al,
2001). Before trying to improve feed management, it might be important to get a better understanding of intake regulation in the periparturient animal.

Figure 1. **Effect of NEFA concentrations on DMI prepartum and postpartum.** (Vallimont et al, 2001).

**Ruminal Fermentability of Carbohydrates**

Feed intake for cows in early lactation is limited by physical fill and feeding fiber sources that are digested and passed through the rumen more rapidly may enhance energy intake. For every unit increase in fiber digestibility Allen and Oba (1996) demonstrated that there was a 0.23 kg increase in dry matter intake (DMI) and a 0.24 kg increase in milk yield. Poorly digested, high fiber feedstuffs typically depress DMI as a consequence of indigestible material occupying space in a rumen of limited capacity (Mertens, 1993). Some fibrous feeds, such as cottonseed hulls (CSH), do not depress intake in the same fashion as other high fiber, relatively indigestible feeds (Harris, et al., 1983, Van Horn et al., 1984, Adams et al., 1995, Gu et al., 1996, Gu and Moss, 1996). Providing a highly fermentable nonforage fiber source (NFFS), such as CSH, may increase the rate of passage through the rumen of the transition cow and thereby permit her to consume more feed. On relatively low (40% of dry matter) roughage diets, intake increased curvilinearly when CSH were substituted for sorghum silage in diets of 10 lactating Holstein cows (Akinyode and Hall, 1999). It is interesting that although intake of the non-CSH portion of the diet seemed to decline after the 8% level of CSH, concentrate intake increased with increasing CSH inclusion.
There is quite a range in ruminal fiber digestibility of forage and grain sources (13.5 to 78%). Although fiber digestibility of forages is not constant for all animals and feeding conditions, much of this variation is due to composition and structural differences of the forages, harvest date and height at harvest. The indigestible fraction of neutral detergent fiber (NDF) is a major factor affecting the utilization of fiber carbohydrate sources as it varies greatly and may exceed more than one half of the total NDF in the rumen. In a study by Huhtanen and Khalili (1991) a negative relationship between the in vivo digestibility of cell wall carbohydrates and the corresponding pool size was demonstrated. These researchers found that as fiber digestibility in the rumen increased total grams of NDF and digestible NDF decreased at a similar rate while the indigestible NDF fraction declined at a slower rate.

Alternatively, dietary factors that promote decreased cell wall digestion in the rumen by affecting the rumen environment increase the ruminal pool size of cell wall components, especially of the digestible fraction. This can reduce fiber DMI when ruminal fill limits intake, such as in early lactation. For example, at higher levels of fiber in the diet (55% NDF), there is almost one half the amount of indigestible fiber residue for grass hay versus alfalfa hay (Batajoo and Shaver, 1994; Shaver et al, 1988). Although information on the size of the indigestible fiber fraction of some forage sources is available, information is still needed on other NFFS as well as on the portion of the potentially digestible fraction that is actually digested.

**How Much Do Dry Cows Eat?**

When provided a diet containing 65 to 70% forage on a dry matter basis, dry cows will consume on average 13.6 kg of total dry matter during the 4 weeks prior to calving (Figure 2). A cow weighing 614 kg would consume 2.2 percent of her body weight. Several studies conducted at Penn State University have examined animal performance of cows fed restricted intake diets at 1.5% of body weight (DMI of 9.1 kg) 4 weeks prior to calving versus free-choice feeding where DMI was as high as 2.7% of body weight (DMI of 16 kg). The take-home message from these experiments was as long as the rations were properly balanced and managed, DMI postpartum and animal health was not compromised.
Dry matter intake of dairy cows can be limited by physical fill in early lactation. Providing a highly fermentable NFFS may increase rate of passage through the rumen and thereby provide the cow the opportunity to consume more feed. Recent studies (Ordway, 2001), demonstrate that feeding a diet containing NFFS resulted in prepartum DMI that were 20% greater than previous studies conducted (Table 1) and was 2 to 5 kg/d greater than many reports in the literature (Dann et al; Greenfield et al., 2000). Additional work indicates that byproduct feeds, particularly soyhulls and CSH, can be substituted for forage fiber without negative consequences on rumination activity. Because prepartum intake is correlated with postpartum intake (Putnam and Varga, 1998) and milk production is directly related to feed intake it is critical to devise feeding strategies for transition dairy cows that help to avoid, or minimize, the natural tendency for feed intake depression just prior to calving. Doing so assures that the cow will begin lactation with minimal risk of developing health disorders and will maximize milk production. A strategy to reduce fiber in the diet of late gestation dry cows derived from poor quality silages and long stemmed hay in favor of highly fermentable byproduct feeds appears logical. These rations are likely to be more uniform in chemical composition, more predictable in their fermentation characteristics, more readily consumed by transition dairy cattle, and more universally applicable.

![Dry Matter Intake](image)

**Figure 2.** Dry matter intake prepartum and postpartum of Holstein dairy cows
Table 1. Average dry matter intake 4 weeks prepartum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>DMI kg/d</th>
<th>NEL, Mcal/kg</th>
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<tr>
<td>Dann et al, 1999</td>
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<td>Hartnell and Satter, 1979</td>
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<td>Huyler et al, 1999</td>
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<td>Minor et al 1998</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>1.50</td>
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<td>Wu et al, 1997</td>
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<td>Vallimont et al, 2001</td>
<td>63</td>
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<td>Pickett and Varga, in progress</td>
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<td>15.8</td>
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How Long Does It Take For Animals To Adapt To Dietary Changes?

Approximately 5 weeks are required to change the physiological set point of ruminant animals in response to alterations in nutritional status (Koong et al., 1982). Rumen, intestines and liver size differ significantly less 3 weeks prepartum compared with 3 weeks postpartum (Reynolds et al., 2000) and blood flow through the portal drained viscera is positively correlated with energy intake (Huntington, 1990). Koong and Ferrell (1990) demonstrated that fasting heat production could differ up to 40% for animals of the same age and weight, but with different nutritional backgrounds. Huntington et al (1988) demonstrated the oxygen consumption by the portal drained viscera, as a percentage of whole animal oxygen consumption was 4% greater for orchardgrass silage compared to alfalfa silage. Finnegan et al (2001) most recently demonstrated a role for the gastrointestinal tract contributing to higher thermogenesis observed in ruminants fed forage as opposed to concentrate diets. Taken together these data suggest a minimum of 5 weeks of feeding may be required to establish a new metabolic plateau for liver and intestinal tissues in response to diet. Therefore, the duration of feeding a nutrient dense diet may dictate the adaptive response in gut and liver and their capacity to meet the demands for milk production in the ensuing lactation.
There are many physiological challenges prepartum where we clearly lack adequate information to help guide us in nutritional strategies during the transition period. These include the importance of acclimation of microbial populations to the lactating cow diet, maintaining microbial protein synthesis, assuring maximal absorptive capacity of the ruminal epithelium, liver and gut function set points, quantity of adequate glucogenic precursors, and the additional nutrients needed to meet the demands for protein and energy for growth of the mammary gland.

■ Feeding Strategies and Management of Dry Cows

Evaluation of Diets and Level of Feeding

Mashek and Beede (2001) reported no effect of duration of close up dry cow diet feeding on milk production. In a trial feeding a 60:40 (DM basis) of grass silage with barley straw ad libitum, grass silage ad libitum, or 0.5 kg/d of prairie meal with grass silage ad libitum for six weeks prior to parturition no effect of diet on milk yield was observed (Dewhurst et al., 2000). Holcomb et al. (2001) fed diets high (70%) or low (28%) in forage either restricted or ad libitum for four weeks prior to parturition and reported no significant effects of forage percentage during the prepartum period on milk yield. VandeHaar et al. (1999) fed diets varying in both protein and energy for 25 days prior to parturition and again reported no effect of diet composition on milk or component yield during lactation. Keady et al. (2001) supplemented grass silage based diets with 0 or 5 kg/d of concentrates for four weeks prior to calving and found no effect of treatment on milk and milk protein yield, while milk fat increased significantly with concentrate feeding. Holcomb et al. (2001) reported no advantage of high DMI prepartum vs. restricted diets on milk production. These studies provide little evidence that close up dry cow diets will promote increased production after calving. In addition, many of these dietary changes were made 3 to 4 weeks prepartum likely inadequate time for the animal to adjust to a new physiological set point. However, the importance of the amount of DMI consumed prepartum is more critical to the prevention of metabolic diseases such as ketosis postpartum than increased milk production.

Effect of Body Condition

The outcome of prepartum diet is more likely its effects on metabolic disease which is much more difficult to measure unless hundreds of animals are evaluated. Heavier cows experience a greater decrease in DMI prior to calving than do cows of thin body condition. In situations in which cows are fat at dry off, restricting intakes during the prepartum period would be beneficial to avoid accumulating more body condition. However there may be increased risk for metabolic disorders after calving such as ketosis, displaced abomasums and
fatty liver. It is clear that over conditioned cows (>4.0 on a 5.0 scale) have reduced intakes after calving and are more prone to fatty liver disease and ketosis (Fronk et al, 1980). In a well managed high producing herd, Waltner et al (1993) found that FCM in the first 90 days of lactation was maximized when body condition score was 3.5 at calving. Putnam et al (1997) demonstrated that cows with BCS > 3.25 prepartum had higher NEFA, and BHBA concentrations and produced 2.5 kg/d less milk the first 30 days of lactation than cows with BCS < 3.25. This is consistent with on farm studies conducted recently by researchers at Cornell University. In a study conducted by Michelone et al (1999) prepartum NEFA concentrations averaged 151.8 ± 18.3 µEq/L and BCS averaged 3.28 ± 0.08 in comparison to the study conducted by Putnam et al (1999) where NEFA concentrations averaged 388.5 ± 71 µEq/L and BCS averaged 3.68 ± 0.11. Incidence of subclinical and clinical ketosis was 20% in the study of Putnam et al (1999) and 2% in the study conducted by Michelone et al (1999). Both of these studies were conducted at restricted intake to 1.5% of BW and fed similar diets indicating that body condition was critical in predisposing the fatter cows to metabolic disease.

The bottom line is that heavier cows lose more body condition after calving and have more difficulty getting bred back. It is recommended to begin feeding management decisions for fat cows approximately 60 to 45 days prior to dryoff. If more than 10% of late lactation cows are over-conditioned (BCS > 3.5) a change is warranted. Some options include feeding a low group TMR, restrict intake of a one group TMR to the tail-enders, include NFFS in place of high energy dense feeds or feed a low quality forage.

**Challenges to Current Dry Cow Feeding and Management Concepts**

Practical decisions made regarding feeding cows during the dry period are simple. 1) The cow is not lactating therefore she does not need a nutrient dense ration as when she is lactating. However, during the last 6-8 weeks prior to calving the fetus is growing at its most rapid rate and has a tremendous demand for glucogenic precursors. It is also the time period that the cow is manufacturing immunoglobulins necessary for the calf at birth. It has been demonstrated that poor nutrition impacts the composition and quantity of immunoglobulins synthesized. The mammary gland as discussed previously also requires nutrients in preparation for lactogenesis. 2) Since the cow has reduced nutrient demands she can be fed cheaper feed sources and/or poor quality forage. It has not been demonstrated that all physiological aspects of the cow's nutrient demands are reduced during this time period. The cow is most immunocompromised at this time and exposure to mycotoxins and inconsistent nutrients as found in poor quality forages is least desired during this time period. 3) The dry cow can be brought to another facility, needs less oversight and therefore less labor. This is the time period when observation is critical especially regarding the body condition of the animal and her appetite. Physical facilities and cow comfort during this time period is also critical.
Buelow (1998) demonstrated that dry cows are more sensitive to overcrowding with an 11% decrease in DMI when numbers went from 88 to 93% of capacity in a headlock pen. 4) Use of a steam up ration 2-3 weeks prior to calving. Many times the lactating cow ration is used without attention to differences in mineral requirements between pre and postpartum animals. In addition, as discussed previously 2 to 3 weeks is not adequate time for liver and intestinal enzymes to adjust to the prepartum and postpartum rations.

**Is an Early and Close Up Ration Necessary for Dry Cows? Can a One Group Total Mixed Ration (TMR) Be Fed During the Dry Period?**

Many producers are successfully feeding a one group TMR during the entire dry period. In a recently completed study (Ordway et al, 2002) we demonstrated that cows provided corn silage based rations with a portion of the fiber coming from NFFS had higher DMI prepartum in comparison to conventionally fed dry cows. These diets were based on corn silage as the primary forage source (50% of ration DM), approximately 20% of the ration DM coming from NFFS such as CSH, soyhulls, and corn cobs, with the remainder from soybean meal, molasses, corn, distillers, vitamins and minerals. Cows consumed on average 3 kg more DMI compared to the last six prepartum studies we have conducted feeding conventional dry cow rations (~70% of DM from forage) during the last 4 weeks prepartum. Cows were provided the ration the entire dry period and did not gain any additional body condition compared to cows fed a conventional high forage ration. In addition, cows averaged 18 kg of DMI the first two weeks of lactation with minimal health problems and peaked with an average of 46 kg of milk at 5 weeks postpartum. We have recently finished a pen feeding study with 36 animals half of which were heifers evaluating a conventional dry cow ration with one formulated to contain ~ 35% NFFS fed the entire dry period. All cows averaged 48 kg of milk the first 7 weeks of lactation; however mature cows produced 3 kg more milk when provided the NFFS based ration prepartum and had a lower incidence of metabolic problems. It is important to understand that the NFFS replace the forage portion of the ration and not the energy and protein sources. The cost associated with feeding one ration throughout the entire dry period is easily offset when considering the costs associated with the treatment and lost production for one case of ketosis.

Advantages of a one group TMR for dry cows:

- Reduced labor, ease of feeding, less rations to mix
- Consistency of diet provided to cows
- Less dramatic change when switched to lactating cow ration
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- More nutrient dense to meet needs of fetus, mammary gland and reduced intake few days prior to calving
- Can contain many of the same ingredients as in the lactating cow ration
- If more than one lactating feeding groups this ration can be similar to ration for tail enders
- Cows are more prepared to meet demands of lactation and potentially have greater body reserves and therefore loose less body condition
- Cows do not have to be moved from various facilities/pens other than to a maternity pen
- Cows have to be monitored more regularly for aggressiveness at the feed bunk
- Cows that calve early are on a nutrient dense diet for a longer period of time and therefore are assured an adequate adaptation a lactation type ration

Advantages of an early and close dry cow feeding program:

- Cheaper sources of feed can be fed to the far off group
- Far off cows can be housed in a different facility
- Far off cows do not have to be fed everyday, just leave a big round bale out in the dry lot and they will be happy
- Feed intake of far off group does not have to be as closely monitored
- Forage quality and availability may necessitate a two group feeding program

In any dry cow feeding program what is critical is that ration changes are not drastic. The fresh cow ration should be intermediate between the close up ration and the fresh group ration. A shift should not be greater than a 10% increase in any nutrient when transitioning cows prepartum to the lactating cow ration (Chandler, 1995). For example, if the prepartum ration is 1.55 NE\textsubscript{i} Mcal/kg then the immediate fresh ration should be no greater than 1.71 NE\textsubscript{i} Mcal/kg DM. It is recommended that the dry cow ration have an energy density in the range of 1.5 to 1.6 Mcal NE\textsubscript{i}/kg DM, CP in the range of 13-14%, NFC between 33 to 38% and NDF >32%.

Nutrition and management during the transition period are essential in determining the profitability of the cow for the rest of her lactation. Stimulation and maintenance of DMI around calving is essential to ensure a high level of productivity and healthy cows. Proper formulation of rations for protein, energy density, fiber and nonfiber carbohydrates will help to increase intake around calving along with management of body condition, cow comfort, and consistent
and high quality forages will assure an excellent transition program for the high producing dairy cow.

References


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