

## Physiological responses to stress in the horse

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### Summary

Stress has been defined as a state in which an animal "is required to make abnormal or extreme adjustments in its physiology or behaviour in order to cope with adverse aspects of its environment and management". The most common stressors for horses are transport, exercise, lameness, and environmental temperature and humidity changes. Considerable interindividual animal variation occurs in the endocrine response observed subsequent to exposure to these stressors, particularly transport and lameness, and indicates considerable variation in individual animals' psychological responses to stress. Resting, exercise, and recovery heart rates have also been shown to be useful indicators of fatigue or lameness. Both exercise and transport have been demonstrated to have considerable effects on pulmonary defence mechanisms and other immunological functions.

**Keywords:** horse, stress, exercise, transport, cortisol

### Physiologische Reaktionen des Pferdes auf Streß

Streß kann als ein Zustand beschrieben werden, in dem von dem Tier "eine ungewöhnliche oder extreme Anpassung seiner Physiologie oder seines Verhaltens gefordert wird, damit es mit ungünstigen Umständen in seiner Umgebung oder seinem Management fertig werden kann". Streß wird beim Pferd am häufigsten durch Transport, Belastung, Lahmheit und Veränderungen in der Umgebungstemperatur und Luftfeuchtigkeit ausgelöst. Die endokrinologischen Reaktionen auf diese Stressoren sind von Pferd zu Pferd sehr verschieden. Dies gilt insbesondere für Transport und Lahmheit und weist darauf hin, daß die individuelle psychologische Reaktion des Tieres auf Streß beachtliche Variationen aufweist. Als gute Indikatoren für Erschöpfung und Lahmheit haben sich die Herzfrequenzen unter Ruhebedingungen, bei Belastung und in der Erholungsphase bewährt. Für beides, Transport und Lahmheit, konnte gezeigt werden, daß sie die pulmonalen Abwehrmechanismen und andere immunologische Funktionen in beachtlichem Ausmaß beeinflussen.

**Schlüsselwörter:** Pferd, Streß, Belastung, Transport, Cortisol

### Introduction

Stress has been defined as a state in which an animal "is required to make abnormal or extreme adjustments in its physiology or behaviour in order to cope with adverse aspects of its environment and management" (*Fraser, Ritchie and Fraser, 1975*). Stress is an everyday factor in the lives of many horses, particularly those horses which are actively travelling, training, and competing. The severity of such stress is routinely measured experimentally in horses and in other species by physiological variables such as heart rate, body weight, and activity level and by endocrinological variables such as plasma cortisol, catecholamine, and beta-endorphin concentrations. The most common stressors for horses are transport, exercise, lameness, and environmental temperature and humidity changes.

### Transport stress

The transportation procedure usually results in interactions of many different stressors, including the individual subjected to the interactions, the environment, other co-specifics, and always the human(s) subjecting the individual to transport. The different steps of the transportation process can have varying stressful effects on different individual animals. Recent studies on farm animals and horses have elucidated the selected influences of handling, loading and unloading procedures, and confinement on either a stationary or a

moving vehicle (*Ferlazzo 1995*). In this sense, the stressors are physical and also psychological, and their severity may depend on the degree of novelty of these various procedures to the individual animal.

Several investigations have focused on the overall incidence of physical stressors in equine transport, but more recently, more specific stressors have been partitioned and examined individually. Mean heart rates are usually elevated during loading and also during 25 min of road transport (*Waran and Cuddeford 1995*). Abnormal body positions have also been documented (*Waran and Cuddeford 1995*). *Smith et al. (1994)* recently demonstrated that horses actually individually selected the positions in which they travel when trailered untethered over 32 km. Horses spent significantly more time facing backward when the trailer was moving but not when it was stationary. Heart rates were significantly higher when moving than when parked, but HR were no different when tethered either facing forward or backward or when allowed to move around untethered. Several investigators have demonstrated increases in plasma cortisol after road transport in horses (*Petazzi et al. 1983; Sonnichsen and Jorgenssen 1988; Ferlazzo et al. 1993a*). Conversely, *Linden et al. (1991)* showed only slight mean changes after transport, but their low experimental number ( $n=5$ ) yielded wide inter-individual variation which the investigators interpreted as indicative of "transport-induced stress being highly influenced by individual psycholo-

gical factors". Cortisol changes after transport appear to be significant only at the middle distances (Ferlazzo et al. 1993a; Fazio et al. 1995; Fazio et al. 1996) and especially in Arabian and Anglo-Arabian crosses (Ferlazzo et al. 1993a). A concomitant increase in plasma triiodothyronine concentrations has also been reported after transportation of middle distances (Fazio et al. 1995). Initial handling of horses does not seem to cause hypercortisolemia (Fazio et al. 1995). Confinement on the vehicle has been shown to cause significant increases in beta-endorphin and ACTH concentrations only after short transport of <50 km (Fazio et al. 1996). Plasma concentration of myocardial depressant factor (MDF) peptide fraction is significantly lowered by road transport when the transport distance exceeds 100 km (Vinci et al. 1994).

Transport-stress induced changes in haematology (stress neutrophilia) and serum biochemistry variables have also been demonstrated to occur during air transport of 112 horses from London, England to Sydney, Australia (Leadon et al. 1990). During the flight, there were no differences in these variables between normal horses and those which eventually became ill upon arrival (n=7). However, after arrival, ill horses had further increases in peripheral white blood cell counts, neutrophil counts, and serum globulin and fibrinogen concentrations compared to their healthy counterparts. These additional haematological changes were thus reflective of the development of respiratory illness but the initial changes were not valid predictors for which horses would become ill, since all horses manifested some initial changes. Similar stress neutrophilia was documented after ground transportation of 337 Thoroughbred horses in Japan (Yamauchi et al. 1993). Other investigators have also recorded increases in serum muscle enzyme concentrations in horses and donkeys after road transport (Ferlazzo et al. 1982; Ferlazzo et al. 1983; Ferlazzo et al. 1984), indicating increased muscle stress in dealing with the movements of overground transport.

Transport may be a risk factor for subsequent respiratory illness partly due to the dramatic fluctuations in environmental temperature and relative humidity which have been demonstrated to occur, for instance, inside an aircraft (Leadon et al. 1990). Large increases in bacterial colony forming units have been detected in air sampled during flight, implying that the environment might have been the source of bacterial causes of post-transport respiratory illnesses (Leadon et al. 1990). Horses with their heads tied relatively tightly have a greater tendency to develop positive bacterial cultures from their tracheobronchial secretions than do horses which are left with their heads untied or tied loosely, presumably allowing them to adopt postural drainage more readily (Racklyeft and Love 1990).

A history of recent transport has been proven in a case-control study to be a significant risk factor in the development of pleuropneumonia in horses (Austin et al. 1995). In another study, few significant risk factors for post-transport pneumonia were identified in a cohort of 60 horses transported 515 km overground (Hungerford et al. 1992). There were no age, breed, or sex-related risks. Heavier, well-kept horses were surprisingly at increased risk for disease and for prolonged disease, implying that horses which had been relatively sheltered or unexposed to foreign antigens, viruses, or bacteria were at greater risk when subjected to transport stress.

Transport has been shown to have adverse effects on the immune system. Anderson et al. (1985) examined 9 horses with viral infections (primarily equine influenza) after recent transport. These subjects were compared to 3 horses with no history of transport stress. Affected horses' pulmonary macrophage numbers and activity were decreased compared to controls. Bayly et al. (1987) reported, after ground shipment of 1930 km, a significant decrease in numbers of pulmonary macrophages, neutrophils, and lymphocytes recovered

from bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid. These effects peaked in severity one week after shipment and remained measurable for 4 weeks. Crisman et al. (1992) shipped 7 Thoroughbred horses 1050 km and demonstrated transiently decreased pulmonary macrophage numbers (1 week later), viability (week 2), and killing activity (week 2). Traub et al. (1988) shipped 8 horses for 12 hrs and examined the effects on the horses' BAL fluid cell numbers. While their BAL technique apparently resulted in increased cell numbers even in their control (non-transported horses), there was a delay in the development of this increased cell number for several days after transport. They concluded that transport stress decreased their subjects' ability to respond, with increased inflammatory cell numbers, to the recurrent BAL. Macrophage function was not measurably affected in transported horses compared to controls.

Recommendations for minimising transport-related problems have been made and are summarised in Table 1 (Leadon et al. 1990). Of utmost importance is that horses be examined for illness prior to transport, that their environment during transport be maintained in as hospitable and hygienic a manner as possible, and that they be monitored intensively before, during, and after transport for the first signs of illness.

Tab. 1: Recommendations for minimising transport stress and post-transport disease in horses travelling long distances either by ground or air (quoted from Leadon et al. 1990).

1. Check health status prior to and on the day of the journey.
2. Avoid unnecessary medication.
3. Take care in the administration of laxatives.
4. Ensure adequate air hygiene.
5. Provide good clean hay and an absorbent floor covering.
6. Provide water and hay every 6–8 hours.
7. Avoid delays and provide adequate ventilation.
8. Provide overnight rest periods when appropriate.
9. Express customs clearance and the relaxation of airport curfews should be provided by the relevant authorities.
10. Check health status after arrival.

**Exercise stress**

Exercise results in increased cortisol (Kurcz et al. 1988; Ferlazzo et al. 1993b; McKenna et al. 1993), catecholamine (Snow et al. 1992), and beta-endorphin (McKenna et al. 1993) concentrations in the horse. Short-term, high intensity exercise (e.g., Thoroughbred racing) and exhaustive endurance exercise both result in higher increases in plasma cortisol than exercise of moderate intensity (Linden et al. 1991). The introduction of exercise training to young, previously untrained horses has also been shown to be stressful as indicated by increases in plasma cortisol and lactate (Malinowski 1987), as has the act of weaning foals from mares (Malinowski et al. 1990).

Endocrinological responses to short but sporadically intensive exercise (such as competitive stadium jumping) have varied among studies. In one experiment, cortisol concentrations after jumping competition were not elevated (Covalesky et al. 1992), whereas after another jumping competition, cortisol was significantly elevated (Lin-

den et al. 1991). However, in the latter study which compared 5 different types of exercise, the post-exercise increases in cortisol were the lowest after jumping; higher after trotting racing, galloping racing (2-fold increase), and 3-day cross country; and highest (3-fold increase) after endurance racing. The investigators concluded that "the degree of increase in plasma cortisol concentration appeared to reflect both the intensity and duration of workload; endurance ride appeared to be the most exhaustive and show jumping the least" (Linden et al. 1991).

Motivational aspects and psychological stressors connected to competition have been studied with regard to their effects on adaptive effects on the hypothalamic/pituitary/adrenocortical axis (Ferlazzo et al. 1994). Lowered basal serum cortisol concentrations were recorded in resting and training sport horses before undergoing physical activity. Moreover, a pattern of adrenocortical response to exercise was observed in both sport and non-competitive horses subjected to training. There was a sudden increase (20–25%) after exercise which was more rapidly compensated (in 60 min) in sport horses. Also in sport horses, a significant increase of cortisol concentration was recorded 15–30 min after a show jumping competition.

Urinary clearance of plasma cortisol is also increased after exercise (Toutain et al. 1995). This exercise-induced increase in urinary clearance may result in interference in measurements of cortisol which may be present in urine as a metabolite of exogenously-administered corticosteroid or ACTH. Although not legal under the rules of racing, ACTH is commonly administered to horses as a supposed anti-inflammatory medication before racing in the USA, particularly because it is not easily detectable as excessive or exogenous.

The stress of exercise has significant effects on other homeostatic mechanisms such as immune responses. Strenuous exercise results in decreased pulmonary macrophage numbers and function (Huston et al. 1987); decreased lymphocyte blastogenesis responses (Kurcz et al. 1988); decreased neutrophil chemotactic index and peak chemiluminescence (Wong et al. 1992); and decreased respiratory burst activity of peripheral and BAL granulocytes (Adamson and Slocombe 1995). Conversely, moderate intensity, less exhaustive exercise has been said to be immunostimulatory rather than immunosuppressive (Hines and Schott 1995).

These immunological data (Huston et al. 1987; Kurcz et al. 1988; Wong et al. 1992; Adamson and Slocombe 1995) underscore the need for proper recovery periods after strenuous bouts of exercise in order to prevent any immunosuppression which may result in vivo. Of particular concern are the data which demonstrate that strenuous exercise impaired neutrophil activity (Wong et al. 1992) and granulocyte burst activity (Adamson and Slocombe 1995) for one or more days after exercise. Guidelines have previously been published for appropriate intervals in which to expect post-exercise heart rate to return to pre-exercise levels in normal Thoroughbred racehorses (Foreman et al. 1990): 20 min for trotting workouts, 40 min for galloping workouts, and 60 min for breezing or sprinting workouts. If heart rate has not returned to rest within these timeframes, the trainer should have the horse examined for suspected lameness or other occult disease which is stressing the horse and preventing a return to normal at an appropriate interval after exercise.

### Lameness

Lameness is the most common cause of lost training time in athletic horses. While lameness is actually a disease, and it can be correctly argued that any disease is stressful, some initial data on lameness are presented here since so many horses are subject to lameness

during their athletic careers. In two separate studies on wastage in the Thoroughbred racehorse industry, 53% of horses in training were lame at some point in one season (Jeffcott et al. 1982), and 67.6% of the training days which were lost to training were due to lameness over a 2-year monitoring period (Rossdale et al. 1985).

Using an adjustable shoe model of lameness which allows a reversible experimental lameness to be created, it has been shown that plasma cortisol increases dramatically in response to induced lameness (Foreman, unpublished data, 1994). Unfortunately, the longer half-life of cortisol (approximately 6 hrs in equine plasma) renders it less helpful in measuring a decrease in lameness stress in this model since it takes too long to decrease significantly in response to analgesics which are administered after lameness is induced. Heart rate, however, correlates quite well with the severity of clinical lameness induction (Foreman and Lawrence 1991) and with a clinical response to analgesic administration (Foreman et al. 1994), presumably in direct correlation with changes in sympathetic nervous tone and plasma catecholamine concentrations. This model has thus been used as a method of differentiating the various efficacies of commonly used nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in horses (Foreman et al. 1994).

### Ambient temperature and humidity

Equine responses to increased ambient heat and humidity have been addressed elsewhere in these proceedings (Foreman 1996). Cold has also been shown to be a significant stressor in food animals but remains poorly studied in horses.

### Conclusions

Stress is a significant factor in endocrinological responses to transport, exercise, lameness, and ambient temperature changes in horses. Considerable interindividual variation and the slow half-life of cortisol renders it useful as a measure of stress in a group of horses, but less reliable as a measure of decreasing stress in a short term measurement such as response to analgesic medication. Over a longer term, such as a number of days or weeks of training, cortisol measurements may be more useful as an indicator of increasing exercise or lameness stress. Resting, exercise, and recovery heart rates may also be useful indicators of fatigue or lameness.

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