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☛ **Cardiac glycosides**

Core data

Common sources:

- Important Plants
 - *Nerium oleander* (oleander)
 - *Cascabela thevetia* [= *Thevetia peruviana*] (yellow oleander)
 - *Cryptostegia grandiflora* (rubber vine)
 - *Bryophyllum* spp. (mother-of-millions)
 - *Homeria* spp. (cape tulips)
 - *Adonis microcarpa* (pheasant's eye)
 - *Digitalis purpurea* (foxglove)
 - *Corchorus olitorius* (jute)
- Pharmaceuticals
 - Digoxin

Animals affected: cattle, horses

Poisoning circumstances:

- garden clippings (oleanders, foxglove)
- in hay or seeds in feed grain (cape tulips, pheasant's eye, jute)
- hunger or lack of other feed (mother-of-millions)
- overdose of digoxin

Main effects:

- sudden death
- cardiac arrhythmia
- diarrhoea with blood
- azotaemia
- focal myocardial necrosis

Diagnosis:

- access
- cardiac arrhythmia
- myocardial histopathology

Therapy:

- activated charcoal + electrolyte replacement fluid PO
- + atropine
- + propranolol

Syndrome names:

Two syndromes are associated with intoxication by cardiac glycosides:

- **acute cardiac glycoside poisoning** – discussed in this section
- cotyledonosis or krimpsiekte [Afrikaans = “twisted disease”] due to certain bufadienolides in particular plants and confined to southern Africa – discussed in the following separate section

Chemical structure:

A cardiac glycoside is any plant-derived steroid glycoside with cardiotonic activity. This activity depends on the presence in the aglycone of an unsaturated lactone ring and a hydroxyl group in a specific spatial relationship. Some 400 such compounds have been identified. [adapted from Lewis' Dictionary of Toxicology 1998]. There are some structural affinities with cucurbitacins (*q.v.*) and some similarities of pathological effect.

Cardiac glycosides consist of a steroidal aglycone linked to a sugar or sugars. There are two groups of cardiac glycosides, **cardenolides** with 23-carbon aglycones (5 member lactone ring) and **bufadienolides** with 24-carbon aglycones (6 member lactone ring).

Sources:

Human & veterinary medicaments (cardiac inotropic agents) based on cardenolides derived from *Digitalis* spp. plants, e.g. digoxin (Lanoxin®), or from *Strophanthus* spp. plants, e.g. proscillaridin (Talusin®)

Cardioactive steroids of *Bufo* spp. toads (*q.v.*) have close affinities with cardiac glycosides

Plants in Australia known or suspected to contain cardiac glycosides

Toxicity & toxin types are indicated by data in square brackets, thus [*=poisoning reported; toxin type: B=bufadienolide, C=cardenolide, unlabelled=unknown]

Family Apocynaceae (native and naturalised plants in Australia are reviewed by Forster & Williams 1996)

**Nerium oleander* (oleander)[*C] [DM131]

**Cascabela thevetia* (L.) Lippold [= *Thevetia peruviana* (Pers.) K.Schum.] (yellow oleander)[*C] [DM132]

**Acokanthera oblongifolia* (bushman's poison, winter sweet)[C]

**Allamanda cathartica* (yellow allamanda)

**Allamanda neriifolia*

Carissa ovata (currant bush, blackberry, burrum bush, conkberry) [C]

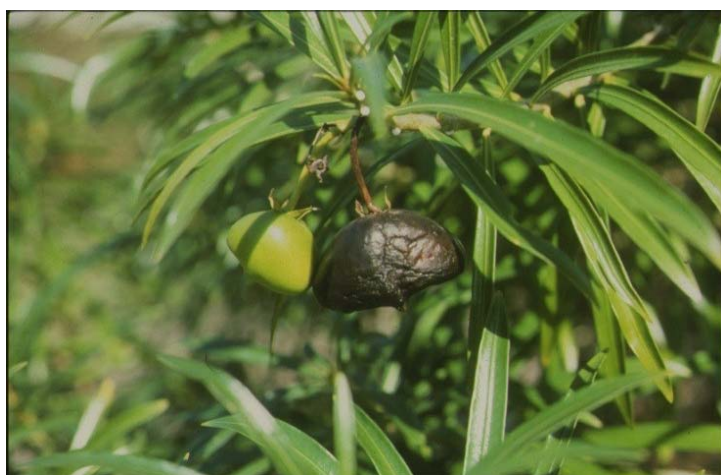
Cerbera manghas (sea mango)[C]

Cerbera odollan [C]

**Plumeria rubra* (frangipani)



Nerium oleander (oleander flowers and seed pods [RAM Photo])



Cascabela thevetia (yellow oleander) [RAM Photos]

Family Asclepiadaceae (native and naturalised plants in Australia are reviewed by Forster & Liddle 1996)

**Cryptostegia grandiflora* (rubber vine)[*C] [DM116] (Marohasy & Forster 1991); listed as a Weed of National Significance for Australia; toxicity (McGavin 1969)

**Cryptostegia madagascariensis* [C] (Marohasy & Forster 1991)

**Araujia sericiflora* [= *A. hortorum*] (white moth plant)[*]

**Asclepias curassavica* (red cotton)[*C] [DM103]

**Gomphocarpus physocarpus* (balloon cotton)[*] [DM104] (Bailey & White 1916)

**Gomphocarpus fruticosus* (balloon cotton)[*C]

**Calotropis procera* (calotrope, rubber bush, kapok tree, king's crown, cabbage tree)[C]



Cryptostegia grandiflora (rubber vine) flowers and seed pod [RAM Photo]

Family Celastraceae

**Euonymus europaeus* (spindle)[C]

Family Crassulaceae

**Bryophyllum daigremontianum* x *B. delagoense* (hybrid mother-of-millions)[*B]
[DM84]

**Bryophyllum delagoense* [= *B. tubiflorum*] (mother-of-millions)[*B] [DM85]

**Bryophyllum pinnatum* (live-leaf, resurrection plant)[*B]

**Bryophyllum daigremontianum* [B]

**Bryophyllum fedtschenkoi* [B]

**Bryophyllum proliferum* [B]

**Bryophyllum beauverdii* [a climber, naturalised in a few small localities around
Brisbane]

**Cotyledon orbiculata* (pig's ears)[B]

**Crassula spathulata* [*]



Bryophyllum delagoense [RAM Photo]



Bryophyllum daigremontianum x *B. delagoense* hybrid (left); *Bryophyllum pinnatum* (right) [RAM Photos]

Family Iridaceae (native and naturalised plants in Australia are reviewed by Cooke 1986)

**Homeria flaccida* (*breyiniana*) (one-leaf cape tulip)[*B]

**Homeria miniata* (two-leaf cape tulip)[*B]

**Diplarrena moraea* (butterfly flag)[*B]

**Gynandriris setifolia* [B]

**Iris foetidissima* (stinking iris)

**Iris germanica*

**Iris pseudacorus* (yellow flag)

**Moraea aristata* [B]

**Moraea bellendenii* [B]

**Moraea vegeta* [B]

Sisyrinchium iridifolium (blue pigroot)[B]

Sisyrinchium sp.A (*micranthum*) (scour weed)[*B]



Homeria flaccida (one-leaf cape tulip) [left]; *Homeria miniata* (two-leaf cape tulip) [right] [RAM Photos]

Family Liliaceae

**Convallaria majalis* (lily-of-the-valley)[C]

**Ornithogalum thyrsoides* (chinkerinchee, star of Bethlehem) [*] (Hall 1953, Forshaw 1999)

Family Melianthaceae

**Melianthus comosus* (cape honey flower)[B] (Anderson & Koekemoer 1969)

**Melianthus major* (tall cape honey flower)[B]

Family Moraceae

Antiaris toxicaria Leschen. var. *macrophylla* (R.Br.) Corner (umpas tree) [C] - distributed in Top End Northern Territory and Cape York Peninsula Qld. as

well as in south-east Asia; the latex is toxic if injected, but less toxic by ingestion (Chew 1989).

Family Ranunculaceae

**Adonis microcarpa* [= *Adonis annua*] (pheasant's eye)[*C – convallatoxin, convallaside]

**Helleborus niger* (Christmas rose)[B]

Family Scrophulariaceae

**Digitalis purpurea* (foxglove)[C]



Digitalis purpurea (foxglove) inflorescence [RAM Photo]

Family Tiliaceae

**Corchorus olitorius* (jute)[*C – seeds contain strophanthidin (Soliman & Saleh 1950, Hamaguchi *et al.* 1998) and olitoriside (Turakhozhaev *et al.* 1970); young leaves used as human food in Egypt and Japan (Azuma *et al.* 1999)]



Corchorus olitorius (jute) flowering plant and seeds [Brock Photo (left); RAM Image (right)]

Major plants containing cardiac glycosides overseas (number of toxic species per genus given in parenthesis)

Southern Africa (Kellerman *et al.* 1988)

Family Apocynaceae - *Acokanthera* spp.(2), *Adenium multiflorum*, *Nerium* spp.(2), *Strophanthus* spp.(3), *Thevetia peruviana*

Family Asclepiadaceae - *Cryptostegia* spp.(2)

Family Crassulaceae (plakkies) - *Cotyledon orbiculata*, *Tylecodon* spp.(3), *Kalanchoë* spp.(5) [*K. lanceolata* – Masvingwe & Mavenyengwa 1997]

Family Iridaceae (tulp) - *Homeria* spp.(3), *Moraea* spp.(3)

Family Liliaceae (slangkop [Afrikaans, = snake's head]) - *Urginea* spp.(6), *Ornithoglossum viride*, *Lidneria clavata*, *Scilla natalensis*, *Bowiea volubilis*, *Ornithogalum nanodes* (Bamhare 1998), *Ornithogalum umbellatum*

Family Melianthaceae - *Melianthus* spp.(2), *Bersama abyssinica* [B – hellibrigenin 3-acetate (Kupchan 1969)]

Family Santalaceae - *Thesium* spp.(2)

Northern America

Family Asclepiadaceae - *Asclepias* spp.(9)

Family Apocynaceae - *Nerium oleander* (Galey *et al.* 1998)

Europe

Family Apocynaceae - *Nerium oleander* (native of the Mediterranean region)

Asia

Family Moraceae – *Antiaris toxicaria* (umpas tree) [C – convallatoxin, convallaside]

Toxicity:

There are 2 forms of cardiac glycoside poisoning - acute (described here) and cotyledonosis (only in southern Africa & described separately below)

Ruminants, pigs, horses, dogs and humans are susceptible. Birds are relatively resistant.

Plants retain toxicity when dried

Toxic doses (for example):

- Horse lethal dose of *Nerium oleander* leaf for adults = 15-30 g (10-20 leaves)
- Cattle LD₅₀ *Bryophyllum delagoense* (*tubiflorum*) flower heads = 7 g wet weight/kg; leaf & stem = 40 g wet weight/kg (McKenzie & Dunster 1986)

Radunz *et al.* (1984) demonstrated lack of toxicity for cattle and sheep from *Calotropis procera* of Northern Territory origin. Reports from Queensland are that cattle can eat the plant without ill effect in the dry season, but if they are stressed (e.g. mustered) they may die suddenly (Anon 2001).

Australian records of cardiac glycoside toxicity:

Horses: *Nerium oleander* (Hughes *et al.* 2002); *Cryptostegia grandiflora* (Cook *et al.* 1990)

Cattle: *Nerium oleander* (RA McKenzie, unpublished data 1994, 1995); *Corchorus olitorius* (McKenzie *et al.* 1992); *Bryophyllum* spp. (McKenzie & Dunster 1986, 1987; McKenzie *et al.* 1987, 1989); *Cryptostegia grandiflora* (McGavin 1969); *Homeria* spp.

Pigs: *Adonis microcarpa* (Davies & Whyte 1989)

Mode of action:

Cardiac glycosides inhibit cardiac Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase, the sodium pump. The binding site on the enzyme molecule for cardiac glycosides or their aglycones is in the extracellular portion of the α -subunit (Kaplan 2002). This enzyme is involved in the maintenance of membrane potential of cardiac muscle fibres and in the active transport of Na and K ions across the cell membrane. Mechanisms of alimentary, respiratory (bronchoconstrictive) and nervous effects (cotyledonosis) are unclear.

Conditions of poisoning:

Plants

Cardiac glycoside-containing plants are **usually not palatable** (exception: cattle, *Cryptostegia grandiflora*), but they **retain toxicity when dried** and may be more palatable in the dried state.

The toxin content of the plants may vary with stage of the life cycle, e.g. *Bryophyllum* spp. are most toxic when flowering (May-October).

The vehicles for delivery of toxic quantities of cardiac glycosides to animals include

- **garden waste**, e.g. oleanders, foxgloves, with toxic material mixed with wholesome material
- weeds harvested as contaminants **in hay** e.g. cape tulips, pheasant's eye
- **seeds in feed grains** or screenings e.g. jute (Johnson & Toleman 1982, McKenzie *et al.* 1992, Samanta *et al.* 1992, Hamaguchi *et al.* 1998), pheasant's eye

Hunger or lack of alternative feed promotes ingestion of toxic amounts of these plants e.g. *Bryophyllum* spp.

Cattle browsing *Cryptostegia grandiflora* or *Calotropis procera* are reported to be usually affected only when exercised (Anon. 2001). Exercise may cause sudden death (heart failure) in apparently normal or slightly affected cattle after ingestion of a number of cardiac glycoside-containing plants.

Medicaments

Accidental overdose of digoxin (Ward 1999)

Clinical signs:

organ systems affected = cardiovascular, alimentary, nervous and respiratory systems

sudden death (particularly with exertion)

diarrhoea ± with blood in faeces

cardiac arrhythmia - tachycardia; bradycardia; heart block

vomiting (monogastric animals)
 dyspnoea (poor prognosis)
 ruminal atony
 abdominal pain (colic in horses)

Pathology:

increasing plasma urea, creatinine and glucose concentrations with time after ingestion
cardiomyopathy (multifocal degeneration & necrosis). Lesions can be expected in animals that survive for over 24 hours. Animals dying earlier may not have had time for lesions to develop to a stage that is detectable microscopically.
haemorrhage into alimentary tract or congested, fluid-filled alimentary tract
 pulmonary atelectasis (associated with dyspnoeic cases) and/or pulmonary oedema
 omasal ulceration (in cases surviving several days - related to uraemia)

Diagnosis:

Access to plants, including seeds
 ± recognise plant fragments in stomach/rumen contents
 Cardiac arrhythmia + diarrhoea + azotaemia
 Myocardial histopathology (collect multiple samples: both ventricles, both atria & interventricular septum)
 Assay stomach contents/faeces for some toxins [limited availability of chromatographic assay: TLC (Galey *et al.* 1996; Holstege *et al.* 2000), HPLC (Tor *et al.* 1996)]
 Radioimmunoassay has been used to confirm the presence of cardiac glycosides in serum of intoxication cases (pigs: Davies & Whyte 1989). In human medicine this technique is used to monitor the therapeutic use of cardenolides and medical laboratories may provide assays in veterinary cases.

Therapy:

Ruminants

prognosis worsens with onset of diarrhoea > heart block > tachycardia > dyspnoea
activated charcoal (absorption of toxin in rumen/intercept enterohepatic circulation)
 + **electrolyte replacement solution** (rehydration/stimulate rumen)
 + **antiarrhythmic drugs**

Therapeutic protocol for cardiac glycoside poisoning (ruminants)

- Activated charcoal @ 5 g/kg by stomach tube in a slurry with electrolyte replacement solution (5 litres/kg charcoal)
- Continue electrolyte replacement solution dosage over next 24 hours (overall daily dose of 150 ml/kg)
- For tachycardia, 5 mg propranolol slowly IV repeated as required (if propranolol not available: 10 ml 2% lignocaine *without adrenalin* slowly IV, stopping if adverse reaction occurs)
- For heart block, 0.5 mg atropine/kg, half IV & half SC, repeated as required.

Horses

activated charcoal
 treat abdominal pain with analgesics/antispasmodics → reduced severity of arrhythmias
 treat arrhythmias

Outline Therapeutic protocol for cardiac glycoside poisoning in horses (F.D.Galey, personal communication 1998)

- Activated charcoal @ 2 g/kg by stomach tube in a slurry with electrolyte replacement solution every 8 hrs
- Flunixin meglumine (Finadyne®, Flumav®, Flunix®, Flunilix®) in large doses before treating arrhythmias

in human medicine, antibodies against cardenolides (digitalis-type glycosides) have been used to treat overdoses of medication; this technique has been applied to dogs (Ward *et al.* 1999). In humans, dialysis, oral activated charcoal and cholestyramine (Roberge & Sorensen 2000) are also used

Intravenous fluids containing calcium should be avoided. They enhance the effect of the toxins on the myocardium (Knight 1988). Potassium should be included only if hyperkalaemia is absent.

Prevention & control:

Cryptostegia grandiflora: biological control agents rubber vine rust fungus (*Maravalia cryptostegiae*) and *Euclasta whalleyi* moth caterpillars have been released in northern Queensland. The rust fungus spores require leaf surfaces to be wet (rain or dew) for 8 hr or more to effect entry to leaf cells. Infection rates are thus determined by seasonal conditions. Rust fungus life cycle takes 7-10 days from infection to spore release (Vitelli 2000).

Corchorus olitorius seeds should not be fed to pigs at more than 0.1 g /kg feed (100 jute seeds weigh 0.6 g) (Takken 1990); poultry can tolerate at least 5.0% jute seed in their diet (Johnson & Toleman 1984).

weed control measures for *Bryophyllum* spp. (fire, herbicides, pasture rehabilitation) are given by McKenzie & Armstrong (1986); there are prospects for biological control of *Bryophyllum* spp. in Australia through insects imported from Madagascar – several insect species identified as capable of damaging the plants; the most promising include *Osphilia tenuipes* (a weevil), *Eurytoma* sp. (a wasp) and an unidentified eumolpine leaf beetle (Witt 2000).

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Cumulative bufadienolide cardiac glycosides (cotyledonosis)

Syndrome names:

- cotyledonosis
- krimpsiekte (Afrikaans = “twisted disease”) in southern Africa
- nenta

This syndrome has been described only from southern Africa. Some of the plants involved are cultivated as garden plants and are sparingly naturalised in Australia, e.g. *Cotyledon orbiculata*.

Chemical structure:

Cumulative bufadienolide cardiac glycosides belonging to 3 classes (defined by Steyn *et al.* 1986b), all with multiple ether bridges between the aglycone and the carbohydrate moiety:

- Class 1 is represented by **tyledoside C** and closely related to a large group of cardenolides e.g. gomphoside (*q.v.*) and originates from a 2 α ,3 β -dihydroxybufadienolide and a 2-oxo carbohydrate moiety. [Note: tyledoside C = cotyledoside B in Anderson *et al.* 1985]
- Class 2 includes **cotyledoside** (van Wyk 1975, Steyn *et al.* 1984) and **tyledosides A, B, D, F and G** (Steyn *et al.* 1986a) and originates from a 2 α ,3 β -dihydroxybufadienolide and a 3-oxo carbohydrate moiety
- Class 3 includes **orbicudes A, B and C** (Steyn *et al.* 1986b) and originates from a 3 β -hydroxy-2-oxobufadienolide and a 4,6-dideoxy carbohydrate moiety. [Note: orbicudes A, B & C in Steyn *et al.* 1986b = cotyledosides A, C & D in Anderson *et al.* 1985]

In addition, **lanceotoxins A and B** (Anderson *et al.* 1984) have been described from *Kalanchoe lanceolata*.

Sources:

Family Crassulaceae

Species of *Cotyledon* and *Tylecodon* are known in southern Africa as plakkies. The taxonomy of *Cotyledon* was revised by Toelken (1978) who created the genus *Tylecodon*.

Toxic species in this family include

Cotyledon orbiculata L. (Terblanche & Adelaar 1965, Anderson *et al.* 1985); contains orbicucosides (Steyn *et al.* 1986b)

Tylecodon grandiflorus (Burm.f.) Toelken (Anderson *et al.* 1983b, van Rooyen & van der Walt 1990); contains tyledosides (Steyn *et al.* 1986a)

Tylecodon ventricosus (Burm.f.) Toelken (Botha *et al.* 1998a); contains tyledoside D (Botha *et al.* 1998a)

Tylecodon wallichii (Harv.) Toelken ssp. *wallichii* [= *Cotyledon wallichii* Harv.] (Naudé & Schultz 1982); contains cotyledoside (Steyn *et al.* 1984)

Kalanchoe lanceolata (Forssk.) Pers. (Anderson *et al.* 1983a, 1984, Masvingwe & Mavonyengwa 1997); contains lanceotoxins (Anderson *et al.* 1984)

Family Liliaceae

Ornithogalum toxicarium (a chinkerinchee) (Botha *et al.* 2000)

Toxicity:

cumulative poisoning with bufadienolide cardiac glycosides

goats > sheep > cattle > horse

Suni antelope were recorded as poisoned by 'plakkies' (*Cotyledon*) in a fenced enclosure (Fourie *et al.* 1996).

Secondary poisoning occurs in dogs and humans that eat meat from carcasses of animals dead from cotyledonosis.

The syndrome has been reproduced by dosing sheep with cotyledoside (Naudé & Schultz 1982, Botha *et al.* 1997)

The concentration of cotyledoside in *Tylecodon wallichii* peaks in winter and spring/early summer, coinciding with field poisoning incidents (Botha *et al.* 2001). The greatest concentration of cotyledoside in *Tylecodon wallichii* is in the flowering stalk (Botha *et al.* 2001).

Mode of action: undescribed

Conditions of poisoning:

known only from southern Africa

Clinical signs:

lag behind flock, head dangling

stand with back arched, feet together

recumbent with head and neck stretched on the ground

torticollis (persists)

paralysis of lower jaw and tongue → drooling saliva, dysphagia [kwylbek krimpsiekte; kwylbek = salivation]

Pathology:

Nervous system lesions appear to be undescribed in natural cases. Anderson *et al.* (1983a) dosed sheep with lanceotoxin B and produced moderate brain oedema in the periventricular white matter, brain stem and cerebellum. Botha *et al.* (1997) dosed sheep with cotyledoside and produced mild oedema and vacuolation of the neuropil and astrocyte swelling in the cerebral and cerebellar grey and white matter, which was particularly pronounced in the white matter of the thalamus. Thalamic sites involved varied between sheep and included the ventrolateral, dorsolateral and ventrostrual nuclei and the optic radiation.

Diagnosis: access + syndrome

Therapy: nil

Prevention & control: deny access

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☑ Ptaquiloside

Core data

Syndrome names:

- ‘bracken’ poisoning (haemorrhagic disease) (worldwide)
- bovine enzootic haematuria (worldwide)
- bright blindness (retinal degeneration) (only sheep in Britain)
- alimentary tract neoplasia (Scotland, South America, New Zealand)

Common sources: ferns:

- *Pteridium esculentum* (bracken),
- *Cheilanthes sieberi* (mulga or rock fern)

Animals affected:

- Cattle
- Sheep (very rare)

Poisoning circumstances:

‘Bracken’ poisoning

- bracken: young fronds most toxic, 2-4 weeks intake
- mulga fern: first green plants available after drought

Enzootic haematuria: prolonged intake of small amounts of ferns (usually > 3 yr)

Main effects:

‘Bracken’ poisoning

- thrombocytopaenia, leucopaenia
- multiple haemorrhages \pm fever

Enzootic haematuria

- urinary bladder neoplasia, haematuria
- anaemia, wasting

Diagnosis:

‘Bracken’ poisoning

- live: haematology (blood smears)
- dead: bone marrow histopathology (sternum)

Enzootic haematuria

- live: microurine
- dead: bladder histopathology

Therapy: nil

Prevention:

- prevent prolonged fern intake
- bracken control
 - no burning
 - pasture improvement
 - slash each new frond crop
 - herbicides

Syndrome names:

Ptaquiloside is responsible for 4 distinct poisoning syndromes depending on the dose and duration of exposure, the animal species exposed and a postulated interaction with bovine papilloma viruses. These are

- **‘bracken’ poisoning** (‘acute’ ptaquiloside poisoning) of cattle (and rarely sheep), causing widespread and usually fatal haemorrhages and occurring worldwide.
- **bovine enzootic haematuria**, causing urinary bladder neoplasia in cattle (and rarely sheep) and occurring worldwide
- **bright blindness**, causing retinal degeneration only in sheep in Britain. The syndrome name originates from the reflection of light from the tapetum through dilated pupils.
- **alimentary tract neoplasia** of cattle and sheep in certain areas of the world including Scotland, South America, and New Zealand

Chemical structure:

Ptaquiloside [= aquilide A] is a **norsesquiterpene glycoside** with radiomimetic and carcinogenic (Hirono & Yamada 1987) properties. “Radiomimetic” refers to the suppression of bone marrow, mimicking the effects of ionising radiation (radioactivity). Assay and extraction techniques are available (Oelrichs *et al.* 1995). Concentrations of ptaquiloside in *Pteridium* spp. in Australia are greatest in the temperate zone (southern Australia); Australian ptaquiloside concentrations ($\mu\text{g/g}$) - *Pteridium esculentum* mean 2115 [range 20-12945], *Pteridium revolutum* mean 619 [36-12358] (Smith *et al.* 1994). Concentrations of ptaquiloside in *Cheilanthes sieberi* in Australia & New Zealand have been measured at 150-448 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (Smith *et al.* 1989)

Ptaquiloside is heat-stable with 70-80% remaining after 3 hr at 80°C; it also resists boiling (Smith & Seawright 1995, BL Smith, personal communication 1997).

Sources:

Ferns

Family Dennstaedtiaceae

Pteridium aquilinum (bracken) is the cosmopolitan species (Page 1976). Some botanists recognise a number of separate species. Those in Australia (Brownsey 1989, 1998) are currently classified as

Pteridium esculentum (austral bracken) [DM40] - Australia & New Zealand
Pteridium revolutum (hairy bracken) - Australia (N. Qld + NT only) & China
Pteridium esculentum x *Pteridium revolutum* hybrid (previously classified as *Pteridium yarrabense* and called northern bracken) – Australia (N.Qld + NT only)
Pteridium aquilinum – a small population is recognised in part of South Australia
 Bracken is mostly distributed around the eastern, southern and south-western coasts of Australia

Histiopteris incisa (bat's wing fern [Aust.], water fern [NZ]) – Australia & New Zealand, associated with 1 case in cattle in NZ (BL Smith, personal communication 7 April 2000)

Family Adiantaceae

Cheilanthes sieberi (mulga or rock fern) [DM38] - Australia & New Zealand
 15 *Cheilanthes* spp. in Australia, *ca.* 180 worldwide (Chambers and Farrant 1998);
Cheilanthes sieberi is known to be toxic with field cases of the haemorrhagic syndrome first recognised in 1969 in cattle in south-eastern Queensland and experimental reproduction following closely (Clark & Dimmock 1971). *C. sieberi* is widely distributed in coastal and inland Australia. See also Thiaminase.
Cheilanthes distans (bristly or woolly cloak-fern) is suspected to be toxic and was involved in a field case in cattle in southern Queensland in 2001 in combination with *C. sieberi* (RJ Newman, JA Taylor & RA McKenzie, unpublished data 2001)

Other fern species reported to contain ptaquiloside include

Onychium contiguum (fuh) – India

Pteris cretica [Saito K (1990) *Phytochemistry* **29**:1475 cited by Harborne & Baxter 1996]

Hypolepsis punctata [Saito K (1990) *Phytochemistry* **29**:1475 cited by Harborne & Baxter 1996]

Dennstaedtia hirsuta [Saito K (1990) *Phytochemistry* **29**:1475 cited by Harborne & Baxter 1996]



Pteridium esculentum (austral bracken). [RAM Photo]



Pteridium esculentum (austral bracken. [RAM Photo]



Cheilanthes sieberi (mulga or rock fern) in habitat. [RAM Photo]



Cheilanthes distans (bristly or woolly cloak-fern). Cultivated specimen. [RAM Photo]

Toxicity:

'Bracken' poisoning:

cattle (Evans *et al.* 1982, Fenwick 1988, Hopkins 1990)

very rarely in sheep (Moon & Raafat 1951, Parker & McCrea 1965, Sunderman 1987)

acute bracken poisoning has been experimentally reproduced in cattle with ptaquiloside (Hirono *et al.* 1984)

The syndrome has been reproduced in cattle by feeding *Cheilanthes sieberi* (Clark & Dimmock 1971): A steer dosed PO with 13.33 g/kg/day for 26 days developed thrombocytopaenia by day 15, prolonged bleeding time after day 22, complete absence of neutrophils by day 23, pyrexia from day 24, anaemia from day 25 and died on day 27. A second steer dosed PO with 8.1 g/kg/day for 16 days developed thrombocytopaenia from day 10, complete absence of neutrophils from day 22 and died on day 23. A bull remained clinically normal while dosed PO with 8.1 g/kg/day for 10 days during which it developed thrombocytopaenia and neutropaenia but then recovered during the next 14 days. It was then dosed PO with 8.1 g/kg/day for a further 10 days during which it again developed a transient neutropaenia, but remained clinically normal.

records of ptaquiloside poisoning of cattle in Australia: Skerman & Newton (1952), Clark & Dimmock (1971)

ptaquiloside poisoning of cattle recorded worldwide: Europe, North & South America, Asia (Miura & Oshima 1961), Africa (Tustin *et al.* 1968)

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

cattle (Hopkins 1986); very rarely sheep (Harbutt & Leaver 1969)

There is a potential carcinogenic risk to humans directly consuming bracken (for example in Japan) or consuming products of cattle eating ferns (Evans *et al.* 1971, Smith & Seawright 1995, Shahin *et al.* 1999). There is an association of gastric neoplasia in South American farmers with dense bracken populations in cattle pastures and ptaquiloside in milk (Alonso-Amelot *et al.* 1996). Where dairying is industrialised, the dilution of ptaquiloside in bulk milk supplies is believed to reduce its concentration below that considered hazardous for humans.

Bright blindness:

progressive retinal degeneration

cases in United Kingdom only

sheep only

peak age incidence 3-4 years, thus 2-3 summers grazing bracken

experimentally produced; 50% bracken in diet for 63 weeks. First case at 28 weeks (Watson *et al.* 1972)

experimentally produced in sheep by IV ptaquiloside (Hirono *et al.* 1993)

Alimentary neoplasia:

Upper alimentary tract neoplasia of cattle is reported from Scotland and South America.

Intestinal adenocarcinoma of sheep is reported from New Zealand and Australia

Mode of action:

'Bracken' poisoning:

The 'radiomimetic' action of ptaquiloside causes bone marrow aplasia resulting in thrombocytopaenia and leucopaenia. This leads to widespread haemorrhage and loss of protection against bacterial infection and terminal infections ensue.

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

Put simply, ptaquiloside binds to DNA in alkaline conditions causing neoplastic transformation of cells, bovine urine being normally alkaline. Ptaquiloside alkylates DNA when activated to its unstable dienone form under alkaline conditions (Ojika *et al.* 1987). Ptaquiloside damages DNA causing strand breaks (Kushida *et al.* 1994). Alkylation is considered the first step in chemical carcinogenesis and ptaquiloside alkylates adenine and subsequently causes depurination in codon 61 of the *ras* gene and thus activates the *H-ras* proto-oncogene in bovine ileum and urinary bladder (Prakash *et al.* 1996, Shahin *et al.* 1998, 1999)

Bright blindness:

The pathogenesis of retinal degeneration is undescribed, but it can be induced by intravenous dosing of sheep with ptaquiloside.

Alimentary neoplasia:

Chronic ptaquiloside intake from bracken interacting with bovine papilloma virus infection is suggested as the initiating cause in cattle with neoplasia of the pharynx and oesophagus.

Intestinal adenocarcinomas in sheep are suggested as associated with chronic ptaquiloside intake.

Conditions of poisoning:

'Bracken' poisoning:

bracken

young fronds more toxic

2-4 weeks intake required for induction of clinically-significant bone marrow suppression

most commonly in newly-weaned calves, occasionally in adults

rarely, hay contamination or bracken as bedding

mulga fern

Cheilanthes sp. are abundant widespread ferns adapted to arid zone conditions in Australia. *Cheilanthes sieberi* may be a very prominent component of the ground cover in mulga (*Acaia aneura*) communities. They may be the first green plants occurring in pasture after drought because they are xerophytic ferns (drought tolerant), entering a dormant state under dry conditions and rapidly reviving after rain (within 24 hr).

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

BEH reported from Australia (Dickinson 1940, McKenzie 1978a,b), New Zealand (Kerrigan 1926, Smith & Beatson 1970, Smith & van der Wouden 1972, Smith *et al.* 1988), Europe (Pinto *et al.* 1999), Turkey, China (Xu *et al.* 1984, Zhao *et al.* 1988, Xu 1992), India, North & South America

chronic intake of small quantities of ferns (insufficient to cause bone marrow damage) → **neoplastic changes in urinary bladder mucosa** → haematuria

time to onset = years (youngest affected animals usually > 3 yrs old)

Bright blindness:

prolonged grazing of bracken-infested pastures; 2-3 summers exposure required

Alimentary neoplasia:

Prolonged grazing of bracken-infested pastures

Clinical signs:

'Bracken' poisoning:

depression

nasal discharge + blood

free blood in faeces

haemorrhages (petechiae) under visible mucous membranes

mucosal pallor

± haematuria

± fever (superimposed bacterial infection → other signs including those of pneumonia & septicaemia)

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

weight loss progressing to emaciation

haematuria (bloody urine, clots in urine)

anaemia which becomes very severe over the course of the disease

Bright blindness:

pupils dilated

↑ tapetal reflectivity

Alimentary neoplasia:

Pathology:

'Bracken' poisoning: (see Naftalin & Cushnie 1951, 1954)

thrombocytopaenia

leucopaenia

anaemia

multiple haemorrhages (subcutaneous, intramuscular, subserosal, subepicardial *etc.*)

ulceration of intestine (over Peyer's patches)

± oedema of larynx (calves)

± liver septicaemic infarcts

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

anaemia

usually normal leucocyte and platelet numbers

various bladder mucosa lesions: chronic cystitis with various neoplasms. Haemangiomas, haemangiosarcomas or both are usually present. Transitional cell carcinomas, adenomas, adenocarcinomas or other types of neoplasms may also be present.

Bright blindness:

leucopaenia

retinal atrophy (loss of rods & cones)

Alimentary neoplasia:

Squamous cell carcinoma of the pharynx and oesophagus

Diagnosis:

'Bracken' poisoning:

haemorrhagic disease

+ thrombocytopaenia, leucopaenia

live: blood smear assessment

dead: bone marrow histopathology [Hint: take sample from the sternum rather than a rib or long bone]

+ access to above fern species

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

live: access to ferns + clinical syndrome (microurine to differentiate haematuria from haemoglobinuria or other pigments)

dead: bladder pathology

Bright blindness:

Syndrome + chronic bracken access

Alimentary neoplasia:

Syndrome + chronic fern access

Therapy:

There are no effective specific therapies available for any of the syndromes. Antibiotics and blood transfusions may be useful supportive measures in 'bracken' poisoning, but the prognosis is always poor to grave. Batyl alcohol (D- α -octa-decylglycerol ether) is reported to produce bone marrow stimulus and has been suggested as therapy for 'bracken' poisoning, but its effectiveness is doubtful (Evans *et al.* 1957, Dalton 1964, Anon 1966, Philp & Gowdey 1967). In future, the use of such preparations as filgrastim [Neupogen® AMGEN Australia Pty Ltd] (a granulocyte colony-stimulating factor of human origin used in dogs poisoned by 5-fluorouracil (*q.v.*)) to stimulate bone marrow stem cell proliferation and boost circulating neutrophil numbers may be useful.

Prevention & control:

'Bracken' poisoning:

bracken

note that burning tends to increase the population density of bracken

pasture improvement measures + reduction in bracken vigour

slashing each new crop of fronds

herbicides (including possible fungal pathogens/mycoherbicides [McElwee *et al.* 1990])

Cheilanthes sieberi

It may be possible for cattle to survive intake of toxic doses of *C. sieberi* if access is restricted to 10 days or less followed by at least 14 days without access before a further short period of exposure (Clark & Dimmock 1971), but this is based on data from only 1 experimental animal and should be applied with caution.

Bovine enzootic haematuria:

Prevent prolonged access of cattle to ferns

Theoretically, continuous acidification of urine may prevent establishment of bladder neoplasia because ptaquiloside alkylates DNA when activated to its unstable dienone form under alkaline conditions (Ojika *et al.* 1987). There is a dearth of information on achieving permanent acidification of bovine urine, but research into prevention of phosphorus deficiency (e.g. Beighle 2000) and hypocalcaemia may produce effective practical techniques in future.

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BEH

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Bright blindness

Se20

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☛* ☑ Diterpenoid (kaurene) glycosides - atractyloside, carboxyatractyloside, parquin, carboxyparquin & wedeloside

Core data

Common sources:

- *Cestrum parqui*
- *Xanthium occidentale*
- *Wedelia asperima*

Animals affected: ruminants, pigs

Mode of action: inhibit mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation

Poisoning circumstances:

- *Xanthium occidentale*: cotyledons or seeds ingested

Main effects: acute liver necrosis

Diagnosis: pathology + plant access

Therapy: nil

Prevention: prevent access

Chemical structure:

Diterpenoid (kaurene) glycosides. Carboxyatractyloside readily undergoes carboxylation to atractyloside.

Sources:

Cestrum spp. (Family Solanaceae)

Cestrum parqui (green cestrum) – an introduced garden plant, naturalised and weedy in Australia, native of South America [Se32,DM125, Descazeaux 1930, Rudd & White 1933, Lopez *et al.* 1978, McLennan & Kelly 1984, Kudo *et al.* 1985, Reit-Correa *et al.* 1986]; parquin & carboxyparquin isolated (Pearce *et al.* 1992, Oelrichs *et al.* 1994)

Cestrum nocturnum - cultivated garden plant in Australia (Hindmarsh 1937)

Cestrum aurantiacum - cultivated garden plant in Australia

Cestrum elegans - cultivated garden plant in Australia

Cestrum laevigatum (Peixoto *et al.* 2000)



Cestrum parqui [RAM Photo]



Cestrum parqui (green cestrum) fruit [RAM Photo]

***Xanthium* spp.** (Family Asteraceae)

Xanthium occidentale (= *X. pungens*, *X. strumarium* complex) (noogoora burr, cockle burr [North America]) [Se147,DM112, Seddon & King 1938, Kenny *et al.* 1950, Cole *et al.* 1980]

Xanthium spinosum (Bathurst burr)

Xanthium cavanillesii burrs contaminating soyabean residues poisoned feedlot cattle in Brazil (Drimeier *et al.* 1999)



Xanthium occidentale (Noogoora burr) leaf, fruit [RAM Photos]

***Wedelia* spp.** (Family Asteraceae)

Wedelia asperima (sunflower daisy)– native to tropical Australia (Q, NT, WA)
[Se145,DM71, Mulhearn 1939, Oelrichs & Muller 1972, Oelrichs *et al.* 1980,
Lewis *et al.* 1981, Klingenberg *et al.* 1985]

Wedelia glauca (Obatomi & Bach 1998)

Melanthera biflora [= *Wedelia biflora*] (MacLeod *et al.* 1990)

***Atractylis* spp.** (Family Asteraceae)

Atractylis gummifera– native of Mediterranean countries, not in Australia
(carboxyatractyloside isolated – Danieli *et al.* 1972; human toxicity - Hamouda
et al. 2000)

Atractylis carduus – native of Mediterranean countries, not in Australia

Atractylodes lancea (Family Asteraceae) – native of eastern Asia, not in Australia

Callilepis laureola (Family Asteraceae) – native of southern Africa, not in Australia

Iphiona aucheri (Family Asteraceae) – native of Africa, not in Australia (Brookes 1983)

Toxicity:

Carboxyatractylosides in cotyledons of *Xanthium* spp. are recognised as **allelochemicals** (Cutler & Cole 1983). Allelopathy is the release by a plant of a chemical that inhibits the growth of near-by plants, thus providing a competitive advantage.

Carboxyatractyloside lethal doses: pigs 0.75-2.0% of body weight; calves 1.0% of body weight
(Harborne & Baxter 1996, p.69)

Cestrum parqui

was demonstrated toxic to sheep by Rudd & White (1933) and hepatotoxic to sheep and
cattle by Lopez (1978)

was demonstrated toxic to poultry by Newton (1955).

Iphiona aucheri is toxic to camels in North Africa

Mode of action:

inhibit mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (Luciani *et al.* 1971, Klingenberg *et al.* 1985)

Conditions of poisoning:

Cestrum parqui

- cattle will eat green cestrum if other feed is scarce, particularly during late winter (Rudd & White 1933)

Xanthium spp.

- only the **cotyledons**, the first 2 leaves emerging from the seed at germination, and thus the **seeds** enclosed in the burrs (2 seeds per burr), are toxic
- mass germination of *Xanthium occidentale* is common on alluvial flats along water courses, thus exposing grazing animals to a palatable concentrated source of toxin
- burrs in feed grains are toxic

Wedelia asperima

- hungry cattle and sheep introduced to abundant plants in paddocks with poor pasture growth

Clinical signs: See acute hepatic necrosis chapter

Pathology: See acute hepatic necrosis chapter

Diagnosis: See acute hepatic necrosis chapter

Therapy: See acute hepatic necrosis chapter

Prevention & control:

bioherbicides (fungal plant pathogens, mycoherbicides) are being researched for control of *Xanthium* spp. (*Colletotrichum orbiculare* vs. *X. spinosum*) (Anon. 1999)

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Plant calcinogenic glycosides (cholecalciferol, vitamin D₃)

Syndrome names:

- **enzootic calcinosis**
- Manchester wasting disease (named after the Manchester plateau of Jamaica)
- espichamento (Brazil)
- enteque seco (Argentina)

Chemical structure:

1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol (vitamin D₃) and its glycoside (*q.v.*)

Sources:

- plant sources:
 - The Americas
 - Solanum malacoxylon*
 - Nierembergia veitchii*
 - Cestrum diurnum* (day-blooming jessamine)
 - Stenotaphrum secundatum* (crab grass – Jamaica)
 - Hawaii
 - Solanum linnaeanum* (*hermannii*, *sodomaeanum*) (apple of Sodom)
 - New Guinea
 - Solanum torvum* (devil's fig)
 - Europe
 - Trisetum flavescens* (yellow or golden oat grass) (Braun *et al.* 2000)
- *Cestrum diurnum*, *Solanum torvum*, *Solanum linnaeanum* and *Trisetum flavescens* occur in Australia, but poisoning of this sort has not been reported.

Toxicity:

- cattle, sheep, goats and horses affected

Mode of action:

- chronic intake → hypervitaminosis D → metastatic calcification of soft tissue

Conditions of poisoning: chronic intake of sources as browse, grazing or in conserved fodder (hay, haylage)

Clinical signs:

- weight loss → emaciation
- reluctance to walk, get up or lie down
- stiff gait
- stand with back arched
- cardiac murmurs
- recumbency → death
- foetuses affected (Gorniak *et al.* 1999)

Pathology:

- serum Ca & P ↑ 20-25%
- anaemia
- anasarca, ascites
- calcification of blood vessels & endocardium, pleura, lungs, tendons & ligaments

Diagnosis: access + pathology

Therapy:

- no effective therapy available
- signs subside if exposure to the plant is prevented, but resorption of the calcium deposits is minimal even after 5 years

References:

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Glucosinolates

Syndrome names:

- Goitre including congenital goitre
- Atypical interstitial pneumonia
- Rumenitis
- Fatty haemorrhagic liver syndrome of poultry (suspected association with glucosinolates)
- Perosis (lateral slipping of tendon from hocks in poultry) (Cheeke 1998)

See sinapine under Amino Acids & Proteins for information on egg taint from rapeseed or canola meal.

Chemical structure:

Glucosinolates are glycosides of β -D-thioglucose (Cheeke 1998). Crushing (including mastication) of fresh glucosinolate-containing plant material releases the enzyme thioglucosidase (myrosinase) which hydrolyses glucosinolates to glucose, hydrosulphuric acid ion and a sulphur- and-nitrogen-containing aglycone (Seawright 1989). Further hydrolysis of the aglycone yields a thiocyanate, an isothiocyanate or an organic nitrile (Seawright 1989). Intestinal bacteria also contain thioglucosidase and may contribute to hydrolysis of glucosinolates (Seawright 1989). Each plant contains several different glucosinolates and thus may produce a variety of such products, the amount and type formed depend on the parts of the plants involved and how they are treated (Seawright 1989).

Sources:

Plant sources:

Family Brassicaceae (Cruciferae)

Brassica spp.

- Brassica juncea* (Indian mustard, leaf mustard) (Ev210, 891)
- Brassica napobrassica* (swede turnip, rutabaga) (Ev210, 891)
- Brassica napus* (rape, canola) (Ev210, 891)
- Brassica oleracea* var. *acephala* (common kale, chou moellier) (Ev212, 891)
- Brassica oleracea* var. *botrytis* (broccoli, cauliflower) (Ev212, 891)
- Brassica oleracea* var. *capitata* (cabbage) (Ev212, 891)
- Brassica oleracea* var. *gemmifera* (Brussels sprouts) (Ev212, 891)
- Brassica pekinensis* (Chinese cabbage) (Ev213, 891)
- Brassica rapa* (turnips) (Ev213, 891)
- Brassica tournefortii* (wild turnip) (Ev213, 891)

Crambe abyssinica L. (crambe, Abyssinian kale)

Sinapis spp. (mustards) (?)

Sinapis alba [= *Brassica hirta*] (white mustard) (?) (Ev215, 914)

Sinapis arvensis [= *Brassica sinapistrum*, *Brassica kaber*] (charlock) (?) (Ev215, 914)

Raphanus raphanistrum (wild radish)

Rapistrum rugosum (turnip weed) - contains cheirolin (Stocks *et al.* 1984)

Family Limnanthaceae

Limnanthes alba Hartweg ex Benth. (meadowfoam) - native to western North America

Meals produced as by-products of oil production from seeds ("oil seeds") of *Brassica napus* (rape, canola), *Sinapis* spp. (mustards) and *Crambe abyssinica* (crambe).