

## POISONOUS PLANTS AND PHYTOTOXICOSES IN HORSES (review)

**A.A. KSENOFONTOVA** ✉, **N.P. BURYAKOV**, **D.A. KSENOFONTOV**,  
**V.G. KOSOLAPOVA**

*Russian State Agrarian University — Timiryazev Moscow Agricultural Academy*, 49, ul. Timiryazevskaya, Moscow, 127550 Russia, e-mail tmetre@rgau-msha.ru (✉ corresponding author), n.buryakov@rgau-msha.ru, smu@rgau-msha.ru, v.kosolapova@rgau-msha.ru

ORCID:

Ksenofontova A.A. orcid.org/0000-0003-1920-2326

Ksenofontov D.A. orcid.org/0000-0003-2926-3085

Buryakov N.P. orcid.org/0000-0002-6776-0835

Kosolapova V.G. orcid.org/0000-0002-4409-0306

The authors declare no conflict of interests

Acknowledgements:

Published as part of a special part of project No. 075-15-2023-220 for the university support and development program “Priority 2030”

*Final revision received December 08, 2023*

*Accepted January 26, 2024*

### Abstract

A large number of plants contain chemical compounds that have a toxic effect on animals (E.M. Kurenkova et al., 2018). Feed-born phytotoxins cause severe pathology in horses. Phytotoxins are diverse in species composition, distribution, mode of action and lethal effect. Poisoning of horses by poisonous plants is a relatively common veterinary problem that can occur when a fresh plant is ingested by an animal on pasture or when the plant contaminates hay, silage and other feed (F. Caloni et al., 2015). Plant toxicity is also a serious problem, as animal poisoning results in significant economic losses (L. Curtis et al., 2019). Depending on the degree of toxicity and the amount of plant eaten, the effect varies from mild illness to disruption of the activity of organs and body systems, which can lead to animal death (M. Wickstrom, 2002). Poisoning caused by poisonous plants is difficult to diagnose and differentiate from other pathologies, since clinical signs are usually not specific and can be observed in other diseases (K.E. Panter et al., 2012). Data on the true incidence of equine poisoning by plant toxins are sparse or absent due to lack of centralized poisoning reporting and monitoring system in place (K. Welch, 2019). Despite the fact that most toxic plants have an unpleasant taste for horses, there are many factors that increase the risk of poisoning, e.g., the influence of the growing season on the taste of some poisonous plants, lack of feed on pasture, toxic plants getting into the hay, monotonous habitat, curiosity, etc. (F. Caloni et al., 2015). It is important to constantly update the knowledge of veterinarians and animal owners about the poisonous plant diversity, phytotoxins, and phytotoxicoses. The review summarizes the most common plant species in Russia which causes poisoning in horses. The places are indicated where plants that are poisonous to horses grow, the mechanisms of action of the toxic substances they contain and their clinical effects in animals are described in detail, including disturbances in the digestive, cardiovascular, excretory, respiratory and nervous systems and many other signs. Poisonous plants are classified according to the mechanism of action of toxic substances into groups containing alkaloids, neurotoxins, photosensitizing substances, cyanogenic glycosides, and cardiac glycosides (M.I. San Andrés Larrea et al., 2024). The need for careful monitoring of the botanical composition of pastures and hay, and avoiding accidental consumption of poisonous plants by horses, is emphasized.

Keywords: poisonous plants, horses, phytotoxins, mechanism of toxicity, clinical signs, habitat

A potential threat to the health of horses arises from toxic compounds in plants eaten by animals due to violations in the management of stables and pastures [1], which can lead to decreased productivity, exhaustion, chronic intoxication and even death of the animal [2]. The increasing rate of weed spread in hayfields and pastures around the world is leading to the colonization of new regions by these species, posing additional threats to animals [3, 4]. There are hundreds of plant species that can be toxic to horses, with some only growing in

certain areas. To prevent poisoning, horse owners and managers of horse breeding enterprises need to be informed about species that have a toxic effect on animals, so that when studying the botanical composition of pasture grass, hayfields and areas adjacent to the stable, they can identify potentially dangerous plants [5].

In Russia, according to 2010 data, 4,730 species of meadow and pasture plants have been studied, more than 750 are classified as poisonous and harmful [6], and the phytotoxins contained in many of them cause poisoning of horses [7]. Poisonous plants are classified according to the target organ and the corresponding effect caused by the toxins they contain (cardiotoxic, hepatotoxic, neurotoxic, teratogenic and other effects), according to the active substances (containing cyanides, nitrates, oxalates, alkaloids, glycosides, etc.), by family and genus [8]. The formation and accumulation of toxic substances in plants is influenced by a number of factors, such as the growing area, soil, climatic and weather conditions, and phases of the growing season [9].

When horses are exposed to phytotoxins, pathological processes develop, characterized by varying severity and a variety of clinical signs. Providing information to horse owners and veterinarians about the potential hazards of feed contamination from poisonous plants can be a measure that will prevent animal poisonings and assist to perform anamnesis and diagnosis. Poisoning by poisonous plants, as a rule, does not have a specific treatment, and therefore the survival of the animal largely depends on supportive and symptomatic care. In some cases, the causes of death of the animal are not diagnosed until autopsy and identification of plant fragments in the stomach [10, 11]. Educating equine professionals about toxic plants and understanding the factors that influence the risk of poisoning will help ensure animal safety [12].

This review provides information on phytotoxins in plants that are poisonous to horses and various ways of poisoning. Here, we also summarize data on the nature of the effects of different classes of phytotoxins and describe the clinical signs and physiological and biochemical changes in acute and chronic toxicosis.

In most cases, horses avoid eating poisonous plants in toxic quantities. However, some plants are readily eaten by horses, and some species can cause poisoning if accidentally consumed in small amounts. The toxicity of some species is influenced by seasonal conditions, and therefore their negative effects on animals vary depending on the time of year. Since most poisonous plants have an unpleasant taste, horses try not to eat them, but with a lack of alternative feed, animal's feed selectivity decreases. Keeping horses in a monotonous environment that does not provide sufficient physical activity and/or sensory stimulation and the lack of satisfied zoosocial needs increase the likelihood of consuming poisonous plants out of boredom. Moving horses to a new location where the botanical composition of the pasture is unfamiliar to the animal may be another reason for eating plants that contain toxic substances or their precursors [13].

Poisonous plants should be considered a potential cause of disease if pasture feed supplies are poor due to overgrazing, drought, or poor early-season growth, if the animals have recently been moved to a new pasture, when hungry animals were released to new pasture, if a new feed or batch of feed (e.g., hay) are used [14]. The presence of such plants in hay can pose a serious threat to most stabled horses, as they generally do not have the choice unlike the animals that have access to pasture. Some horses will separate hay, refusing to consume suspicious plants, but most animals tend to eat them, despite the specific taste or smell, because due to the lack of constant access to hay they demonstrate a high rate of eating. A horse that is not very hungry can also eat hay contaminated with poisonous plants, since the intensity of the offending taste or smell can be reduced during drying without reducing toxicity [15].

Plant poisons, or phytotoxins, are products of plant metabolism and most often perform protective functions, scaring away possible consumers, since they have the properties of biological contaminants, the compounds that have high biological activity with a negative effect on animals [16]. Phytotoxins include a group of diverse low- and high-molecular bioactive compounds which include non-proteinogenic amino acids, isoprenoids, glycosides, alkaloids, phenolic compounds, steroids, lectins and other substances [17].

Plants containing alkaloids. Alkaloids are secondary metabolites found in approximately 20% of plant species. Alkaloids represent a diverse group of compounds linked by the presence of a nitrogen atom in a heterocyclic ring, including pyrrolidine, pyrrolisidine [18], tropane [19], piperidine [20, 21], quinolizidine [22], indolizidine, quinoline [23] and other groups [24].

Pyrrolizidine alkaloids are one of the most important classes of naturally occurring toxins due to their widespread occurrence and high risk of accidental animal consumption of contaminated feed [25]. More than 350 pyrrolizidine-based alkaloids have been found in plants, with some plants containing multiple types of toxins. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids are a large group of cytotoxic [26], neurotoxic [27], tumorigenic [28], hepatotoxic, pneumotoxic and genotoxic compounds [29-31].

Pyrrolizidine alkaloids themselves are not toxic, but when absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract (GIT), they reach the liver, their first target organ. The of hepatotoxicity caused by pyrrolizidine alkaloids is due to several mechanisms, such as activation of pyrrole ester, formation of reactive oxygen species, and activation of glutathione-degrading enzymes. The latter are found in most tissues, especially in high concentrations in the liver, and play an extremely important role in protecting hepatocytes, red blood cells, and other cells from toxic damage [32-35]. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids are also metabolized by liver microsomal enzymes to pyrrole derivatives which inhibit replication and protein synthesis. As a result, the cells are unable to divide and instead continue to grow, forming megalocytes which are eventually replaced by fibrous tissue [36].

The extent of damage to the liver or other organs depends on the specific type of pyrrolizidine alkaloid and its amount. Pyrrolizidine alkaloid poisoning can be acute or chronic, with the acute form being extremely rare because it occurs when large amounts of toxic plants are accidentally ingested with contaminated hay or when toxic plants become the dominant species in the pasture [37]. Chronic poisoning occurs when a horse consumes small amounts of the plant over a long period. The onset of clinical signs of chronic pyrrolizidine alkaloid poisoning is delayed and does not appear until several weeks or months after initial exposure. Thus, there may be cumulative and progressive effects of repeated administration of the toxin in small doses. This makes it difficult to determine when and under what conditions a horse was exposed to toxins [38].

Liver diseases with accompanying clinical signs in the form of progressive liver failure are becoming the most common signs of pyrrolizidine alkaloidosis. Acute intoxication leads to sudden death from hemorrhagic liver necrosis and visceral hemorrhages [39]. The animal may die within a few days or weeks. Horses with significant signs of acute pyrrolizidine alkaloid poisoning rarely recover. Clinical signs of chronic intoxication in horses include deterioration of condition, anorexia, lethargy, constipation or diarrhea, hepatic encephalopathy, jaundice (yellow discoloration of the mucous membranes), bloating (colic), and behavioral changes, e.g., head shaking, yawning, aimless wandering, head resting into the wall, hyperexcitability and aggressiveness [40].

Secondary, or hepatogenic, photosensitization may occur, caused particularly by disruption of detoxification in the live of phylloerythrin, the product of

chlorophyll metabolism. Phylloerythrin is produced by intestinal microflora and, during intoxication, accumulates in the skin where due to UV activation free radicals are formed that damage cell membranes. At the initial stage, erythema of non-pigmented hairless areas (nasal tract, eyelids and visible mucous membranes) appears, and later swelling develops, turning into dermatonecrosis [41]. As the liver gradually loses function, the symptoms intensify, and when the liver is critically damaged, liver failure progresses rapidly. As a result death can occur suddenly or after the animal remains in a prone position for a long time, which is accompanied by hepatic coma and a high blood concentration of ammonia. Less common clinical signs described in pyrrolizidine toxicoses are inspiratory dyspnea in ponies due to laryngeal and pharynx paralysis, and dyspnea due to interstitial pneumonia in horses [42, 43].

Tropane alkaloids are a class of bicyclic alkaloids and secondary metabolites that occur naturally in many plants of the *Solanaceae* family and have anticholinergic effects. They reduce the metabolic effects of acetylcholine, a key neurotransmitter, by acting in mammals as antagonists of central and peripheral muscarinic acetylcholine receptors and, therefore, can cause a distinct toxic syndrome [44]. More than 200 tropane alkaloids are known, but the most studied are atropine and scopolamine [41]. Symptoms associated with tropane alkaloids are dryness of the upper gastrointestinal tract and respiratory tract, constipation and colic, dilated pupils (mydriasis), changes in heart rate, and central nervous system effects such as restlessness, irritability, ataxia, seizures and respiratory depression. In severe cases, death may occur from respiratory paralysis, heart failure, or gastric rupture within minutes, hours, or days after the animal consumes the toxic plant [45].

Piperidine alkaloids are extremely toxic to adult animals and also have a teratogenic effect. The mechanism of the teratogenic potential of these compounds is the stimulation of muscle-type acetylcholine receptors with subsequent desensitization and inhibition of fetal movements, which leads to the development of musculoskeletal pathologies [46, 47]. Acute toxicoses caused by plant piperidine alkaloids are due to their ability to reduce the sensitivity of acetylcholine receptors. As a consequence, paralysis of the endings of sensory and motor neurons occurs, as well as damage to the central nervous system (first its excitation occurs, and then paralysis) [48].

In Russia, horses are especially at risk of poisoning by such species of alkaloid-containing plants as *Convolvulus arvensis* L., plants of the genus *Aconitum* L., *Colchicum autumnale* L., *Hyoscyamus niger* L., *Datura stramonium* L., *Conium maculatum* L., *Senecio jacobaea* L., *Jacobaea vulgaris* L. [24, 49].

Field bindweed is a perennial herbaceous weed in cultivated areas. Tropane and pyrrolizidine alkaloids were found in its shoots and roots [50]. Horses are very sensitive to toxic substances of field bindweed that cause impaired intestinal motor function, leading to colic [51], bradycardia (slow heart rate) and dilated pupils [52].

Aconites are a genus of perennial poisonous herbaceous plants of the *Ranunculaceae* family, numbering over 50 species. The plants are distributed throughout Russia, growing in damp places along river banks and along roadsides, in humus-rich soils and mountain meadows [53]. Animals generally do not eat these plants, so poisoning in the field is rare, but they may contaminate the hay. All vegetative organs of plants contain alkaloids, primarily the highly toxic aconitine, which has cardio- and neurotoxic effects due to short-term stimulation of the central nervous system (especially the respiratory center) and peripheral nerves (the endings of the motor, sensory, secretory and recurrent nerves), followed by

their oppression. The mechanism for the development of pathophysiological reactions is due to the effect of the toxin on voltage-gated sodium channels in neurons, the conduction system of the heart and muscles, which causes a constant influx of sodium (that is, persistent depolarization) and prevents adequate repolarization, leading to seizures and arrhythmias. In the heart, excess sodium influx activates calcium metabolism, and intracellular hypercalcemia increases both the inotropic effect (changes in the force of cardiac contraction) and the likelihood of arrhythmias [54]. All parts of the plants are extremely poisonous to horses. If even small amounts are ingested, severe symptoms appear within minutes, and if lethal doses are ingested, death usually occurs within 6 h. Signs of intoxication in horses include gastrointestinal symptoms, including diarrhea and colic, as well as cardiac manifestations, e.g., slow heart rate, hypotension, and arrhythmias leading to suffocation which often causes death in animals [55]. Although there is not enough information about the toxic dose of aconite, a fatal case of poisoning of horses has been reported after eating 0.075% green plants by weight, that is, only 10–12 g. The most poisonous part of aconite is the rhizome, but cases of poisoning of horses with it have not been recorded. Poisoning by aboveground parts of the plant is possible on mountain pastures and when grazing in gardens where aconites are grown as ornamental plants. There are known cases of poisoning with silage containing aconite plants [56].

*H. niger* and *D. stramonium* are poisonous plants of the *Solanaceae* family and growing mainly in the European Russia. Both species are classified as weeds; they can be found near roads, near housing, in fallow lands and fields. *H. niger* grows scatteredly or in small groups, and since the plant does not form thickets, it is difficult to detect at the early stage of the growing season. *Datura* is rarely found as a single plant; it often forms small groups (curtains) [57]. All parts of these plants contain the tropane alkaloids hyoscyamine and scopolamine the toxicity of which persists during drying [58], ensiling and haylage [59]. Animal consumption of henbane and *datura* may be accompanied by bloating, difficulty breathing, convulsions, cyanosis, tachycardia, incoordination, dilated pupils, and restlessness [60].

Poisoning of horses by *D. stramonium* has been widely studied. An outbreak of intractable, long-lasting, recurrent colic due to colonic and/or cecal obstruction without any other antimuscarinic signs occur in horses consuming hay contaminated with this plant [61]. Toxic effects of this plant have also been documented in horses fed a sunflower-based supplement heavily contaminated with *Datura* seeds, one horse suddenly died from acute dilatation and rupture of the stomach, and in other horse an intestinal obstruction occurred which resulted in the animal being euthanized [62]. Spontaneous intoxication was described in 34 horses after eating freshly cut corn intended for silage and heavily contaminated with young *Datura* plants. Intoxication was accompanied by erythrocytosis, leukocytosis, regenerative neutrophilia with a shift to the left, lymphopenia, eosinopenia, increased hematocrit, low erythrocyte sedimentation rate, hyperglycemia, bilirubinemia, hypoproteinemia and increased activity of the enzymes alanine aminotransferase and aspartate aminotransferase. Autopsies and pathological studies of two dead horses revealed toxic liver degeneration, heart damage and significant degenerative and necrotic processes in the kidneys [63].

*C. maculatum* contains 8 alkaloids of which the most toxic are coniine and  $\gamma$ -coniceine, which have nerve paralytic and teratogenic effects. This is a widespread plant growing in the temperate climate zone; its natural range in Russia covers almost the entire European part, the Caucasus and Western Siberia. The plant is found everywhere, i.e., on forest edges, water meadows, limestone slopes,

as a weed in crops and vegetable gardens, in fallow lands and wastelands, near housing, along roads and fences, in landfills [64]. All parts of the plant are poisonous, and their consumption causes respiratory failure in less than 3 h. Horses can eat young plants when other feed is not available. The toxicity of spotted hemlock persists in hay, but gradually decreases during storage. Horses can be poisoned by eating this plant in amounts as low as 0.25% of their body weight. The alkaloids contained in the plant initially have a stimulating effect, followed by long-term depression of the function of the central nervous system. Common clinical signs of poisoning in horses include nervousness, frequent urination and defecation, trembling, staggering, ataxia, hyperpnea (disturbed respiratory rhythm) and tachycardia, followed by depression and inability to rise from a prone position. Coma also develops, and the animal may collapse due to respiratory failure [65, 66]. Teratogenic effects are possible when the plant is consumed by pregnant mares [67].

*J. vulgaris* is found in all regions of central Russia in meadows and clearings, along forest edges, in pine forests and in populated areas [68]; the plant is toxic to most species of productive animals. The active spread of this species in recent years has been facilitated by an increase in the area of fallow land, increased nitrogen levels in the air, targeted planting in roadside green spaces, and climate changes such as drought [69]. This has led to increased plant populations in pastures and grasslands, resulting in hay contamination [70]. Horses are particularly sensitive to the plant's toxic effects and generally avoid this weed, but poisoning can occur when animals graze poorly maintained pastures or when feed such as hay or silage is contaminated [71]. The alkaloids it contains cause liver damage followed by damage to the central nervous system, accompanied by ataxia and secondary photodermatitis [72-74]. The drying reduces the bitter taste of this plant, reducing feed selectivity in horses [75, 76]. An important factor influencing selectivity in horses when consuming feed is the formation in foals during early ontogenesis of feed habits which are based on imitation of the feeding behavior of their mothers [77]. Early diagnosis of poisoning is extremely difficult because many common biochemical and histopathological features of the disease are nonspecific and cannot distinguish poisoning from other immune, infectious or toxic diseases [78]. If liver disease is advanced, the prognosis is generally poor and treatment options are only palliative [79]. Poisoning of animals is accompanied by a number of clinical manifestations. Particularly, horses lose weight, signs of jaundice appear, hyposensitivity to external stimuli is observed (animals often stand with their heads down and may stop chewing feed in the mouth), tremors (especially in the head and neck area), frequent yawning and difficulty swallowing occur which can cause feed to be aspirated (inhaled) or regurgitated through the nasal cavity. Affected horses walk in a straight line or in circles, bumping into objects. Pressing on the head can often cause an animal to have a panic attack and run away uncontrollably. The disease is usually fatal, lasting from a week to several months [80].

Meadow saffron is found in the western and southern regions of Russia, usually growing in damp meadows. All parts of the plant are poisonous, especially the bulbs, since they contain the highly toxic tropolone alkaloid colchicine, which causes intractable multiple organ failure [81]. Colchicine is mutagenic and has the greatest effect on cell division and inhibition of tubulin polymerization, preventing spindle formation during mitosis. The main targets are organs with high mitotic potential, including the gastrointestinal tract, liver and kidneys [82]. Clinical signs develop approximately 48 h after ingestion and typically include drooling, dysphagia, colic, diarrhea, and malodorous stool with tenesmus, and may also include a history of bloody urine and cough [83]. In Germany, a case of horse poisoning

was recorded after feeding a batch of hay heavily contaminated with meadow saffron (apprx. 1.48% of the total mass). Three out of 17 horses developed colic; after a few days, one animal died; at autopsy, intense accumulation of serous or serous-hemorrhagic fluid was noted in the chest and abdominal cavity [84]. One study found that horses can consume contaminated hay when provided with free access to good quality hay [85].

Plants containing neurotoxins. Plant metabolites that have a neurotoxic effect have different chemical natures and specific mechanisms of action on the body, which underlie pathological changes caused by shifts in biochemical processes. One such compound is the unsaturated aliphatic alcohol cicutoxin, extracted from *Cicuta* species, which targets biomembranes that control the import and export of metabolites and ions in cells [86, 87]. Cicutoxin blocks  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  channels and has a cholinergic effect on the central nervous system by acting as a noncompetitive antagonist of gamma-aminobutyric acid that binds to the beta domain of its receptor. This deactivates the receptor and disrupts the flow of chloride ions across the membrane, leading to unrelenting neuronal depolarization. Excessive stimulation of motor neurons leads to generalized seizures, resulting in death from respiratory failure [88]. At autopsy, lesions of the cardiac and skeletal muscles are observed, which are limited to pale areas, while multifocal degeneration of the myocardium is noted due to necrosis of myofibrils and replacement fibrosis in the tissues of the heart. Depending on the severity of convulsions, serum concentrations of lactate dehydrogenase, aspartate aminotransferase, and creatine kinase increase [89].

Neurotoxic effects have also been observed when horses consume plants containing the enzyme thiaminase I, which breaks down vitamin  $\text{B}_1$  (thiamine), which plays an important role in the metabolism of carbohydrates, fats and proteins, and acts as a cofactor in enzymatic pathways responsible for energy production. Thiamine is an important cofactor in the decarboxylation of pyruvate to acetyl-CoA, which subsequently enters the tricarboxylic acid cycle. Deficiency of this vitamin impairs cellular energy processes and limits certain metabolic pathways, leading to systemic accumulation of pyruvate and lactate and, as a result, cerebrocortical necrosis (polioencephalomalacia) due to neuronal degeneration and death [90].

The poisonous plant *Cicuta virosa* L. of the *Apiaceae* family is one of the most toxic plants in the world. The range of this species includes the northern border of the forest zone. *C. virosa* grows in all regions of the European Russia, in Siberia and the Far East, rarely in Central Asia and the Caucasus, in swamps, damp meadows, marshy banks of rivers and lakes [91]. All parts of the plant contain cicutoxin, its toxicity decreases throughout the growing season, but the roots remain highly toxic all year round. Cicutoxin is not destroyed by high temperature and long-term storage. Poisoning most often results from grazing animals on pastures with depleted grass, in places where this species grows abundantly, as well as uncontrolled movement of animals. Additional factors contributing to the consumption of this plant are hunger and fatigue of animals, as well as their need for green food after the winter diet. In most cases, poisoning occurs at the early stage of the plant's growing season, when horses, tearing off young leaves and stems, remove the plant along with the rhizome from the soft, damp soil and eat it. In horses, severe poisoning occurs if they eat 1-2 rhizomes or 200-250 g of plant mass. Clinical gastrointestinal symptoms of poisoning include increased salivation and colic, cardiovascular and respiratory symptoms are tachycardia (rapid heart-beat) and tachypnea (rapid breathing). The animal becomes fearful, excited, coordination is impaired, and muscle tremors occur. Within 15 min of the first symptoms appearing, the horse may collapse [92].

*Equisetum arvense* L. is distributed throughout Russia everywhere except deserts, semi-deserts and the Far North. It prefers poorly drained sandy, fairly rich, moderately moist soils, and therefore is found in forests, upland and flood-plain meadows, the edges of swamps, pebbles, sandbanks, fields, pastures, along the banks of rivers and streams [93]. It can seriously suppress field crops and other plants, and therefore often alone or together with cereals dominates the grass cover of water meadows and fallow lands. *Pteridium aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn. grows in coniferous and deciduous forests of the European Russia, Siberia, the Far East and the Urals. It is found on forest edges, open hills and in thickets of bushes, preferring light and poor soils, often dominating the grass cover. These plants contain the enzyme thiaminase, which catalyzes the hydrolysis of vitamin B<sub>1</sub> (thiamine) produced by microbial synthesis in the intestinal tract of horses, thereby causing deficiency [94]. The clinical signs of poisoning reflects the state of vitamin (thiamine) deficiency. Symptoms begin slowly and the first signs may include a general unkempt appearance, weight loss (without significant loss of appetite), diarrhea and slightly uncoordinated movements. If the animal is left untreated, the disease progresses to the point where the horse loses muscle control, has an unsteady gait, and has severe balance problems. The horse becomes restless, may lie down and be unable to get up, and convulsions occur. Ultimately, the animal may die from exhaustion within approximately 1-2 weeks [95-97]. *P. aquilinum* also contains the toxin ptaquiloside, found in the highest concentrations in young growing parts of the plant, which is thought to be responsible for bone marrow suppression and carcinogenic activity [98, 99].

Plants containing photosensitizing substances. Some plant species, such as buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum* Moench) and St. John's wort (*Hypericum perforatum* L.), are capable of accumulating various biologically active substances, e.g., hypericin, fagopyrin, phyloerythrin, furocoumarin, etc., which, when ingested by animals, cause primary photosensitization, or light-induced photodermatitis of exogenous origin [100]. Possessing fluorescent and resonant properties, these substances become phototoxic when exposed to ultraviolet radiation. Clinical signs of photosensitivity dermatitis usually develop within a few hours of exposure to sunlight. Photodynamic agents, or chromophores, are absorbed into the gastrointestinal tract and transported through the circulatory system to organs and tissues. Hair and skin pigments have protective properties because they absorb light energy before it activates chromophores and damages skin tissue. The photosensitizing effect of these substances causes an increase in the sensitivity of non-pigmented areas of the skin, visible mucous membranes and eyes of horses to ultraviolet radiation, since its exposure activates the accumulation of toxic compounds. This initiates a destructive cascade of chemical reactions against susceptible substrates within cells (e.g., lysosomes, mitochondria, cell membranes, lipids, proteins, nucleic acids) and resulted in localized foci of inflammation [101].

Photodynamic substances are activated by photons and converted into high-energy compounds that cause tissue damage by releasing inflammatory mediators and producing free radicals, also known as reactive oxygen species. These are highly reactive molecules that damage membranes, disrupting cell permeability and homeostasis, leading to cell death [102]. As a result, inflammatory reactions develop in non-pigmented areas of the skin, which are accompanied by redness (erythema), swelling, itching and peeling [103, 104]. Large lesions may progress to blistering, ulceration, exudation, skin necrosis, and sloughing of necrotic tissue, which may lead to secondary bacterial infection. In horses, the most severely affected areas are poorly pigmented areas that are not well protected by the coat and exposed to the sun, especially the face, ears, eyelids, vulva and coronary bands; the tongue and oral cavity may also be affected. In severe cases of the



disease, photosensitivity can develop even in animals with dark and thick hair. Photophobia is also a clinical feature of the disease [105].

St. John's wort is widespread in Eurasia, often growing as a weed in forests, abandoned fields and pastures, along roads and reservoirs, and is poisonous at all stages of growth. In the spring, horses are attracted to young, tender shoots, and hay contaminated with them can cause poisoning in the winter [106]. Cases of photodynamic dermatitis have been reported in the Czech Republic when horses grazing on pastures contaminated with St. John's wort [107, 108].

Buckwheat is a plant widely cultivated in southern and central Russia, which is often used as a precursor that has a beneficial effect on biological processes in the soil, improving its physical, mechanical, agrochemical properties and phytosanitary condition. Occasionally it is found as a weedy alien plant in crops and along roads [109].

Sporadic cases of outbreaks of primary photosensitivity have been reported in horses fed predominantly alfalfa hay [110].

Plants containing cyanogenic glycosides. Approximately 2,600 plant species contain cyanogenic glycosides which are a potential cause of acute and chronic poisoning in animals. Cyanogenic glycosides most often belong to monoglycosides (durrin, prunasin, linamarin, lotaustralin), their main carbohydrate component is D-glucose, and the cyanohydrin part is stabilized by a  $\beta$ -glycosidic bond. The most dangerous plants for horses are Sudan grass *Sorghum sudanense* (Pers.) Stapf and black elderberry *Sambucus nigra* L. [111]. By the enzymatic hydrolysis of cyanogenic glycosides in the gastrointestinal tract, a highly toxic compound, the hydrogen cyanide is formed which binds to the ferric iron of the cytochrome oxidase of the mitochondrial respiratory complex and forms the cyanide-cytochrome oxidase complex. As a result, the transport of electrons to molecular oxygen stops, the entire respiratory chain is blocked, which leads to cellular hypoxia, or cytotoxic anoxia. Because of the high content of hemoglobin saturated with oxygen and due to disruption of the process of oxygen absorption by tissues, the color of venous blood becomes bright red. In addition to cytochrome oxidase, in mammals, the activity of at least 40 enzyme (lactate dehydrogenase, catalase, peroxidases, etc.) is inhibited. Simultaneously with inhibition of the electron transport chain, the ATP synthesis, which is necessary to ensure biochemical processes in cells, is disrupted [112].

Clinical signs appear very quickly after animals consume large amounts of cyanogenic plants. In acute cyanide poisoning, death occurs within a period of several minutes to several hours. Animals exhibit signs of agitation and generalized muscle spasms, an unsteady gait, followed by severe clonic convulsions, as well as respiratory distress (shortness of breath), which develops as a compensatory response to tissue hypoxia, that is, the frequency and depth of respiratory movements increase. There is also lacrimation and drooling, mydriasis (dilated pupils) and bright color of the mucous membranes [113].

When small amounts of toxins are consumed within a few weeks, clinical symptoms associated with spinal cord and nerve damage begin to appear due to the destruction of the myelin sheath of peripheral nerves. Horses, due to impaired proprioceptive function, gradually develop ataxia (disorder of motor coordination), which is most noticeable when the animal is asked to turn. As the disease progresses, paralysis of the tail and hind limbs may occur. Due to damage to the nerves innervating the bladder, animals develop equine cystitis-ataxia syndrome, accompanied by incontinence (urinary incontinence) which in females leads to burns of the hind legs and, in some cases, to inflammation of the bladder and kidneys. In pregnant mares, toxins can cause abortion or cause skeletal malformations in the developing fetus. Once neurological symptoms appear, nerve

damage is irreversible and the prognosis for the animal is poor [114].

Sudan grass is a valuable forage pasture and hay crop. On the territory of Russia, it is cultivated in the southern and southeastern regions of the European part, in the Altai Territory and in the Far East. Sudangrass toxicity is associated with the formation of free hydrocyanic acid in the plant after drought or frost [115]. Cyanides are present in the form of glycosides mainly in the leaves and seeds and only in trace amounts in the stems. Hay is generally safe because the glycosides are hydrolyzed during storage [116, 117].

Black elderberry grows in the south of the European Russia, as an undergrowth in coniferous and deciduous forests, easily runs wild and spreads along roads, in populated areas and in wastelands. All parts of the plant are poisonous, with the exception of flowers, shell and pulp of ripe berries [118].

Plants containing cardiac glycosides. Many plants of different families synthesize toxins that directly or indirectly affect the functioning of the cardiovascular system. So-called cardiotoxic plants contain cardiac glycosides (gigitoxin, digoxin, convallamarin, etc.), which cause acute pathological processes and sudden death of horses [119]. Species containing cardiac glycosides grow on the territory of Russia, among which the most dangerous for horses are *Convallaria majalis* L., oleander *Nerium oleander* L. and representatives of the genus *Digitalis* L. [120].

Cardiac glycosides inhibit adenosine triphosphatase in cell membranes, causing electrical conduction disturbances in the heart muscle [121]. They inhibit the active transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{K}^{+}$  ions across plasma membranes, which increases the amount of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  inside cardiomyocytes, leading to cell death and secondary arrhythmias [122, 123] due to disruption of Hiss bundle conduction. Cardiac lesions are the main diagnostic marker of oleander poisoning in horses [124]. Animals experience short-term bradycardia, then the heart rate increases and arrhythmias appear. Glycosides have a local irritant effect on the gastrointestinal mucosa, and therefore clinical symptoms include hypersalivation and colic. Glycosides also take part in the development of pathological processes in the respiratory system, slowing down its functioning, which is clinically expressed by difficulty breathing. There is an increased release of exudate, an inflammatory process develops, accompanied by an increase in the number of opportunistic microflora, which contributes to secondary intoxication and leads to the appearance of muscle tremors, ataxia and the inability of the animal to stand. In addition, an irregular and weak pulse due to decreased cardiac output leads to hypothermia of the limbs, and the animal often experiences clonic convulsions before death [125]. Cardiac glycosides can pass into mother's milk and pose a risk to foals [126].

*C. majalis* is a herbaceous plant growing in the European Russia, in Transbaikalia, the Amur region, Primorye, Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands [127]. All parts of the plant are toxic, with the highest concentration of cardiac glycosides in the roots. The plant also contains various saponins. *C. majalis* is considered one of the most potent cardiotoxic plants as more than 38 cardiac glycosides have been identified in it, including convallatoxin, convallarin, and convallamarine [128].

Oleander is an evergreen ornamental shrub, common on the southern coast of Crimea, the Black Sea coast of the Caucasus and in Transcaucasia [129]. All parts of the plant, both fresh and dried, are poisonous and contain varying amounts of cardiac glycosides, especially oleandrin. The toxicity of oleander varies depending on the color of the flower and the time of year. Fatal intoxication for most mammals is possible with consumption of the plant in amounts as low as 0.005% of the animal's body weight [130, 131]. The plant also contains saponins and terpenoids. Although horses rarely eat green oleander leaves because they are unpalatable, there is a possibility that dried leaves accumulate in long-grass

pastures or end up in a horse's daily diet and may be ingested by the animal. Horses ingesting a lethal dose of oleander leaves are often found dead within 8-10 h, and symptoms of poisoning rarely last more than 24 h before death [132].

*Digitalis* is a genus of herbaceous plants containing the cardiac glycoside digoxin. On the territory of Russia, foxglove species grow in the Caucasus, in the European part and Western Siberia, in meadows, deciduous and mixed forests [133]. All parts of the plant are poisonous; the toxic dose for horses can be several hundred grams of the fresh plant, and when dried, this amount is significantly reduced [134].

In summary, poisoning of horses by poisonous plants is a relatively common phenomenon worldwide, causing serious economic harm to animal owners [135-138]. The main reason for horse consumption of these plants is the lack of control over the botanical composition of pastures and hayfields, which is especially important in the context of the spread of invasive species [138]. Clinical signs of plant poisoning in horses range from mild distress to sudden death, and diagnosis can rarely be made based on the clinical syndrome alone [139, 140]. Accurate diagnosis usually requires a history of exposure to the plant, making accurate identification necessary.

So, phytotoxins from poisonous plants are substances diverse in structure and mechanism of action on the body. The most common plants in Russia that are dangerous for horses contain alkaloids, neurotoxins, photosensitizing substances, cyanogenic and cardiac glycosides. Plant species containing different groups of alkaloids include bindweed, aconite, meadow saffron, henbane, datura, spotted hemlock and meadow groundsel. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids are hepatotoxic, and horses may experience secondary photosensitization when exposed to sunlight. Tropane alkaloids have an anticholinergic effect, acting as an inhibitor of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine. Piperidine alkaloids are toxic to adult horses and cause teratogenic effects. A neurotoxic effect is exerted by cicutoxin contained in the poisonous stem, as well as thiaminase produced by horsetail and bracken. The development of primary photosensitivity in horses is observed when consuming buckwheat and St. John's wort. Sudan grass and black elderberry contain cyanogenic glycosides which cause cellular hypoxia and disrupt the activity of the central and peripheral nervous system. Convallaria, oleander and foxgloves synthesize cardiotoxic substances that disrupt the functioning of the cardiovascular system of horses. Since there is no antidote for most toxins found in poisonous plants, treatment of poisoning is primarily symptomatic and supportive. In this regard, the best measure to combat phytotoxicoses should be considered prevention, which should first include a thorough check of hay and silage, and the removal of toxic plants from pastures.

## REFERENCES

1. Noble G.K. Horse husbandry — nutrition, management and welfare. *Animals*, 2023, 13(1): 169 (doi: 10.3390/ani13010169).
2. *Poisonous plants and related toxins*. T. Acamovic, C.S. Stewart, T.W. Pennycott (eds.). CABI, 2004 (doi: 10.1079/9780851996141.0000).
3. Hogan J.P., Phillips C.J.C. Transmission of weed seed by livestock: a review. *Animal Production Science*, 2011, 51(5): 391-398 (doi: 10.1071/AN10141).
4. Ellis A.D., Longland A.C., Coenen M., Miraglia N. *The impact of nutrition on the health and welfare of horses*. Wageningen Academic Publishers, 2010.
5. Curtis L., Burford J.H., England G.C., Freeman S.L. Risk factors for acute abdominal pain (colic) in the adult horse: A scoping review of risk factors, and a systematic review of the effect of management-related changes. *PLoS ONE*, 2019, 14(7): e0219307 (doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0219307).
6. Nadezhkin S.I., Kuznetsov I.Yu. *Poleznye, vrednye i yadovitye rasteniya* [Useful, harmful and poisonous plants]. Moscow, 2010 (in Russ.).

7. Cortinovic C., Caloni F. Epidemiology of intoxication of domestic animals by plants in Europe. *The Veterinary Journal*, 2013, 197(2):163-168 (doi: 10.1016/j.tvjl.2013.03.007).
8. San Andrés Larrea M.I., San Andrés Larrea M.D.S., Olivos-Oré L.A. Plants, poisonous (animals). In: *Encyclopedia of toxicology (fourth edition)*. Academic Press, Oxford, 2024, V. 7: 685-703 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-824315-2.00143-3).
9. Kara E., Sürmen M. The effects of secondary metabolites of rangeland and pasture plants on the animal health in Mediterranean ecological conditions. *Journal of US-China Medical Science*, 2019, 16: 63-72 (doi: 10.17265/1548-6648/2019.01.003).
10. Puschner B., Galey F.D. Diagnosis and approach to poisoning in the horse. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine Practice*, 2001, 17(3): 99-409 (doi: 10.1016/S0749-0739(17)30040-8).
11. Wickstrom M., Blakley B. Equine toxicoses: investigative strategies and approaches for performance horses. *Journal of Equine Veterinary Science*, 2002, 22(9): 383-389 (doi: 10.1016/S0737-0806(02)70017-8).
12. Botha C.J., Naudé T.W. Plant poisonings and mycotoxicoses of importance in horses in southern Africa. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, 2002, 73(3): 91-97 (doi: 10.4102/jsava.v73i3.567).
13. Kosolapov V.M., Trofimov I.A. *Entsiklopedicheskiy slovar' terminov po kormoproizvodstvu* [Encyclopedic dictionary of terms in feed production]. Moscow, 2013 (in Russ.).
14. Pardon B., De Bleecker K., Hostens M., Callens J., Dewulf J., Deprez P. Longitudinal study on morbidity and mortality in white veal calves in Belgium. *BMC Veterinary Research*, 2012, 8(1): 26 (doi: 10.1186/1746-6148-8-26).
15. Offord M. *Plants poisonous to horses. An Australian field guide*. RIRDC Publication, 2006.
16. Bhambhani S., Kondhare K.R., Giri A.P. Diversity in chemical structures and biological properties of plant alkaloids. *Molecules*, 2021, 26(11): 3374 (doi: 10.3390/molecules26113374).
17. Thakur A., Sharma V., Thakur A. Phytotoxins — a mini review. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry*, 2018, 7(6): 2705-2708.
18. Ziegler J., Facchini P.J. Alkaloid biosynthesis: metabolism and trafficking. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*, 2008, 59: 735-769 (doi: 10.1146/annurev.arplant.59.032607.092730).
19. Biastoff S., Dräger B. Chapter 2. Calystegine. In: *The alkaloids: chemistry and biology*. G.A. Cordell (ed.). Academic Press, 2007, 64: 49-102 (doi: 10.1016/S1099-4831(07)64002-4).
20. Scharld C.L., Grossman R.B., Nagabhyru P., Faulkner J.R., Mallik U.P. Loline alkaloids: currencies of mutualism. *Phytochemistry*, 2007, 68(7): 980-996 (doi: 10.1016/j.phytochem.2007.01.010).
21. Strunz G.M., Findlay J.A. Chapter 3. Pyridine and piperidine alkaloids. In: *The alkaloids: chemistry and pharmacology*. A. Brossi (ed.). Academic Press, 1985, 26: 89-183 (doi: 10.1016/S0099-9598(08)60194-7).
22. Michael J.P. Quinoline, quinazoline and acridone alkaloids. *Nat. Prod. Rep.*, 2008, 25(1): 166-187 (doi: 10.1039/B612168N).
23. Thomas R. Biogenetic speculation and biosynthetic advances. *Nat. Prod. Rep.*, 2004, 21(2): 224-248 (doi: 10.1039/B311022M).
24. Cortinovic C., Caloni F. Alkaloid-containing plants poisonous to cattle and horses in Europe. *Toxins*, 2015, 7(12): 5301-5307 (doi: 10.3390/toxins7124884).
25. Dey P., Kundu A., Kumar A., Gupta M., Lee B.M., Bhakta T., Dash S., Kim H.S. Chapter 15 — Analysis of alkaloids (indole alkaloids, isoquinoline alkaloids, tropane alkaloids). In: *Recent advances in natural products analysis*. A. Sanches Silva, S.F. Nabavi, M. Saeedi, S.M. Nabavi (eds.). Elsevier, 2020: 505-567 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-816455-6.00015-9).
26. Kim H.-Y., Stermitz F.R., Coulombe R.A. Jr. Pyrrolizidine alkaloid-induced DNA-protein cross-links. *Carcinogenesis*, 1995, 16(11): 2691-2697 (doi: 10.1093/carcin/16.11.2691).
27. Huxtable R.J., Yan C.C., Wild S., Maxwell S., Cooper R. Physicochemical and metabolic basis for the differing neurotoxicity of the pyrrolizidine alkaloids, trichodesmine and monocrotaline. *Neurochemical Research*, 1996, 21(2): 141-146 (doi: 10.1007/BF02529131).
28. Xia Q., Zhao Y., Von Tungeln L.S., Doerge D.R., Lin G., Cai L., Fu P.P. Pyrrolizidine alkaloid-derived DNA adducts as a common biological biomarker of pyrrolizidine alkaloid-induced tumorigenicity. *Chem. Res. Toxicol.*, 2013, 26(9): 1384-1396 (doi: 10.1021/tx400241c).
29. Chen T., Mei N., Fu P.P. Genotoxicity of pyrrolizidine alkaloids. *J. Appl. Toxicol.*, 2010, 30(3): 183-196 (doi: 10.1002/jat.1504).
30. Schramm S., Köhler N., Rozhon W. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids: biosynthesis, biological activities and occurrence in crop plants. *Molecules*, 2019, 24(3): 498 (doi: 10.3390/molecules24030498).
31. Stegelmeier B. Pyrrolizidine alkaloid-containing toxic plants (*Senecio*, *Crotalaria*, *Cynoglossum*, *Amsinckia*, *Heliotropium*, and *Echium* spp.). *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 2011, 27(2): 419-428 (doi: 10.1016/j.cvfa.2011.02.013).
32. Williams D.E., Reed R.L., Kedzierski B., Dannan G.A., Guengerich F.P., Buhler D.R. Bioactivation and detoxication of the pyrrolizidine alkaloid senecionine by cytochrome P-450 enzymes in rat liver. *Drug Metabolism and Disposition*, 1989, 17(4): 387-392.
33. Gupta P.K. *Fundamentals of toxicology. Essential concepts and applications*. Academic Press, 2016.
34. Reed R.L., Ahern K.G., Pearson G.D., Buhler D.R. Crosslinking of DNA by dehydroretrotronecine,

- a metabolite of pyrrolizidine alkaloids. *Carcinogenesis*, 1988, 9(8): 1355-1361 (doi: 10.1093/carcin/9.8.1355).
35. Kim H.Y., Stermitz F.R., Molyneux R.J., Wilson D.W., Taylor D., Coulombe R.A. Structural influences on pyrrolizidine alkaloid-induced cytopathology. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1993, 122(1): 61-69 (doi: 10.1006/taap.1993.1172).
  36. Wilson D. *Clinical veterinary advisor: The horse*. Saunders, 2011.
  37. Bull L.F., Culvenor C.C.J., Dick A.T. *The pyrrolizidine alkaloids: Their chemistry-pathogenicity and other biologic properties*. North Holland Publishing Co., Amsterdam, 1968.
  38. Barr A. C., Reager J.C. Toxic plants: what the horse practitioner needs to know. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine Practice*, 2001, 17(3): 529-546 (doi: 10.1016/S0749-0739(17)30050-0).
  39. Stegelmeier B.L., Colegate S.M., Brown A.W. Dehydropyrrolizidine alkaloid toxicity, cytotoxicity, and carcinogenicity. *Toxins*, 2016, 8(12): 356 (doi: 10.3390/toxins8120356).
  40. Van Weeren P.R., Morales J.A., Rodríguez L.L., Cedeco H., Villalobos J., Poveda L.J. Mortality supposedly due to intoxication by pyrrolizidine alkaloids from *Heliotropium indicum* in a horse population in Costa Rica: a case report. *Veterinary Quarterly*, 1999, 21(2): 59-62 (doi: 10.1080/01652176.1999.9694993).
  41. Hooser S.B., Wilson C.R. *Comprehensive toxicology*. Oxford, 2010.
  42. Kreutzer K.V., Turk J.R., Casteel S.W. Chapter 27 - Clinical biochemistry in toxicology. In: *Clinical biochemistry of domestic animals (Sixth edition)*. J.J. Kaneko, J.W. Harvey, M.L. Bruss (eds.). Academic Press, 2008, 821-837 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-370491-7.00029-5).
  43. Petzinger E. Pyrrolizidinalkaloide und die Seneciose bei Tieren. *Tierarztl Prax Ausg G Grosstiere Nutztiere*, 2011, 39(6): 363-372 (doi: 10.1055/s-0038-1623090).
  44. Kohnen-Johannsen K.L., Kayser O. Tropane alkaloids: chemistry, pharmacology, biosynthesis and production. *Molecules*, 2019, 24(4): 796 (doi: 10.3390/molecules24040796).
  45. Alexander J., Benford D., Cockburn A., Cravedi J.-P., Dogliotti E., Di Domenico A., Fernández-Cruz M.L., Fürst P., Fink-Gremmels J., Galli C.L., Grandjean P., Gzyl J., Heinemeyer G., Johansson N., Mutti A., Schlatter J., van Leeuwen R., Van Peteghem C., Verger P. Scientific opinion of the Panel on Contaminants in the Food Chain on a request from the European Commission on Tropane alkaloids (from *Datura* sp.) as undesirable substances in animal feed. *The EFSA Journal*, 2008, 691: 1-55.
  46. Green B.T., Lee S.T., Panter K.E., Welch K.D., Cook D., Pfister J.A., Kem W.R. Actions of piperidine alkaloid teratogens at fetal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology*, 2010, 32(3): 383-390.
  47. Green B.T., Lee S.T., Panter K.E., Brown D.R. Piperidine alkaloids: human and food animal teratogens. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 2012, 50(6): 2049-205 (doi: 10.1016/j.fct.2012.03.049).
  48. Green B.T., Lee S.T., Welch K.D., Panter K.E. Plant alkaloids that cause developmental defects through the disruption of cholinergic neurotransmission. *Birth Defect. Res. C*, 2013, 99(4): 235-246 (doi: 10.1002/bdrc.21049).
  49. Jumai A., Rouzimaimaiti R., Zou G.A., Aisa H.A. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids and unusual milling-tojanine A-B from *Jacobaea vulgaris* (syn. *Senecio jacobaea* L.). *Phytochemistry*, 2021, 190: 112862 (doi: 10.1016/j.phytochem.2021.112862).
  50. Sosnoskie L., Hanson B., Steckel, L. Field bindweed (*Convolvulus arvensis*): "all tied up". *Weed Technology*, 2020, 34(6): 916-921 (doi: 10.1017/wet.2020.61).
  51. Stegelmeier B.L., Davis T.Z. Toxic causes of intestinal disease in horses. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine Practice*, 2018, 34(1): 127-139 (doi: 10.1016/j.cveq.2017.11.008).
  52. Todd F.G., Stermitz F.R., Schultheis P., Knight A.P., Traub-Dargatz J. Tropane alkaloids and toxicity of *Convolvulus arvensis*. *Phytochemistry*, 1995, 39(2): 301-303 (doi: 10.1016/0031-9422(94)00969-Z).
  53. Gammerman A.F., Grom I.I. *Dikorastushchie lekarstvennyye rasteniya SSSR* [Wild medicinal plants of the USSR]. Moscow, 1976 (in Russ.).
  54. Nyirimigabo E., Xu Y., Li Y., Wang Y., Agyemang K., Zhang Y. A review on phytochemistry, pharmacology and toxicology studies of *Aconitum*. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 2015, 67(1): 1-19 (doi: 10.1111/jphp.12310).
  55. *Clinical veterinary toxicology. Part two. Manifestation of toxicoses*. K.H. Plumlee (ed.). Mosby, St. Louis, MO, USA, 2004: 48-96 (doi: 10.1016/B0-323-01125-X/X5001-8).
  56. Sidorenko I.D. *Veterinariya*, 1959, 9: 78 (in Russ.).
  57. Kurenkova E.M., Starodubtseva A.M. *Kormoproizvodstvo*, 2018, 3: 16-24 (in Russ.).
  58. Dudar' A.K. *Yadovitye i vrednye rasteniya lugov, senokosov i pastbishch* [Poisonous and harmful plants of meadows, hayfields and pastures]. Moscow, 1971 (in Russ.).
  59. Arestov I.G., Tolkach N.G. *Veterinarnaya toksikologiya* [Veterinary toxicology]. Minsk, 1999 (in Russ.).
  60. Williams S., Scott P. The toxicity of *Datura stramonium* (thorn apple) to horses. *New Zealand Veterinary Journal*, 1984, 32(4): 47 (doi: 10.1080/00480169.1984.11728696).
  61. Naude T.W., Gerber R., Smith R.J., Botha C.J. *Datura* contamination of hay as the suspected cause of an extensive outbreak of impaction colic in horses. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, 2005, 76(2): 107-112 (doi: 10.4102/jsava.v76i2.407).

62. Schulman M.L., Bolton L.A. Datura seed intoxication in two horses. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, 1998, 69(1): 27-29 (doi: 10.4102/jsava.v69i1.806).
63. Binev R., Valchev I., Nikolov J. Studies on some paraclinical indices on in-toxication in horses from freshly cut Jimson weed (*Datura stramonium*)-contaminated maize intended for ensiling. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, 2006, 77(3): 145-149 (doi: 10.4102/jsava.v77i3.363).
64. Caloni F., Cortinovis C. Plants poisonous to horses in Europe. *Equine Veterinary Education*, 2015, 27(5): 269-274 (doi: 10.1111/eve.12274).
65. Anadon A., Martinez-Larranaga M.R., Castellano V. Chapter 78 - Poisonous plants of Europe. In: *Veterinary toxicology: basic and clinical principles (Second edition)*. R.C. Gupta (ed.). Elsevier Inc., San Diego, CA, USA, 2012: 1080-1094 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-385926-6.00114-9).
66. Panter K.E., Welch K.D., Gardner D.R., Lee S.T., Green B.T., Pfister J.A., Cook D., Davis T.Z., Stegelmeier B.L. Poisonous plants of the United States. In: *Veterinary toxicology: basic and clinical principles (Second edition)*. R.C. Gupta (ed.). Elsevier Inc., Academic Press, 2012: 1031-1079 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-385926-6.00100-9).
67. Coppock R.W., Dziwenka M.M. Chapter 72 - Teratogenesis in livestock. In: *Reproductive and developmental toxicology (Second edition)*. R.C. Gupta (ed.). Academic Press, 2017, 1391-1408 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-804239-7.00072-X).
68. Gubanov I.A., Kiseleva K.V., Novikov V.S., Tikhomirov V.N. *Ilyustrirovannyi opredelitel' rasteniy Sredney Rossii* [Illustrated guide to plants of Central Russia]. Moscow, 2004 (in Russ.).
69. Lutt S., Huckauf A. Biologie. In: *Umgang mit dem Jakobs-Kreuzkraut: Meiden - Dulden - Bekämpfen*. Landesamt für Landwirtschaft, Umwelt und ländliche Räume des Landes, Schleswig-Holstein, 2017.
70. Welch K. Editorial — Plant toxins. *Toxicon*, 2019, 168: 140 (doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2019.07.009).
71. Moore R.E., Knottenbelt D., Matthew, J.B., Beynon R.J., Whitfield P.D. Biomarkers for ragwort poisoning in horses: identification of protein targets. *BMC Vet. Res.*, 2008, 4(30): 30 (doi: 10.1186/1746-6148-4-30).
72. Sroka L., Müller C., Hass M.-L., These A., Aboling S., Vervuert I. Horses' rejection behaviour towards the presence of *Senecio jacobaea* L. in hay. *BMC Vet. Res.*, 2022, 18(1): 25 (doi: 10.1186/s12917-021-03124-0).
73. Aboling S. Do poisonous plants in pastures communicate their toxicity? Meta-study and evaluation of poisoning cases in Central Europe. *Animals*, 2023, 13(24): 3795 (doi: 10.3390/ani13243795).
74. Panter K.E., Welch K.D., Gardner D.R., Lee S.T., Green B.T., Pfister J.A., Cook D., Davis T.Z., Stegelmeier B.L. Chapter 61 - Poisonous plants in the United States. In: *Veterinary toxicology: basic and clinical principles (Third edition)*. R.C. Gupta (ed.). Academic, Amsterdam, 2018: 837-891 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-811410-0.00061-1).
75. Flade J., Beschow H., Wensch-Dorendorf M., Plescher A., Wätjen W. Occurrence of nine pyrrolizidine alkaloids in *Senecio vulgaris* L. depending on developmental stage and season. *Plants*, 2019, 8(3): 54 (doi: 10.3390/plants8030054).
76. Sroka L., Müller C., Hass M.L., These A., Aboling S., Vervuert I. Horses rejection behaviour towards the presence of *Senecio jacobaea* L. in hay. *BMC Vet. Res.*, 2022, 18: 25 (doi: 10.1186/s12917-021-03124-0).
77. Bolzan A., Bonnet O., Wallau M., Basso C., Neves A., Carvalho P. Foraging behavior development of foals in natural grassland. *Rangeland Ecology & Management*, 2020, 73(2): 243-251 (doi: 10.1016/j.rama.2019.10.011).
78. West H.J. Clinical and pathological studies in horses with hepatic disease. *Equine Veterinary Journal*, 1996, 28(2): 146-156 (doi: 10.1111/j.2042-3306.1996.tb01607.x).
79. Mendel V.E., Witt M.R., Gitchell B.S., Gribble D.N., Rogers Q.R., Segall H.J., Knight H.D. Pyrrolizidine alkaloid-induced liver disease in horses: an early diagnosis. *Am. J. Vet. Res.*, 1988, 49(4): 572-578.
80. Constable P.D., Hinchcliff K.W., Done S.H., Gruenberg W. *Veterinary Medicine*. Elsevier, 2017.
81. Wink M. Mode of action and toxicology of plant toxins and poisonous plants. *Mitt. Julius Kühn-Inst.*, 2009, 421: 93-112.
82. Fezer G., Toth B. The intoxication of equidae (horses) with col-chicines. *Magyar Allatorvosok Lapja*, 2016, 138: 707-712.
83. Kupper J., Rentsch K., Mittelholzer A., Artho R., Meyer S., Kupferschmidt H., Naegeli H.A. fatal case of autumn crocus (*Colchicum autumnale*) poisoning in a heifer: confirmation by mass-spectrometric colchicine detection. *Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation*, 2010, 22(1): 119-122 (doi: 10.1177/104063871002200125).
84. Kamphues J., Meyer H. Herbstzeitlose (*Colchicum autumnale*) im Heu und Kolikerkrankungen bei Pferden [Meadow saffron (*Colchicum autumnale*) in hay and colic in horses]. *Tierarztl. Prax.*, 1990, 18(3): 273-275.
85. Mueller C., Sroka L., Hass M.-L., Aboling S., These A., Vervuert I. Rejection behaviour of horses for hay contaminated with meadow saffron (*Colchicum autumnale* L.). *Journal of Animal Physiology and Animal Nutrition*, 2022, 106(2): 327-334 (doi: 10.1111/zg.13648).
86. Lewis J., Raff M., Roberts K., Walter P. *Molecular biology of the cell. 5th edition*. B. Alberts, A. Johnson (eds.). Garland Science, NY, 2008.

87. Mutschler E., Geisslinger G., Kroemer H.K., Ruth P., Schäfer-Korting M. *Mutschler Arzneimittelwirkungen. 9th edition.* WVG, Stuttgart, 2008.
88. Wittstock U., Lichtnow K.H., Teuscher E. Effects of cicutoxin and related polyacetylenes from *Cicuta virosa* on neuronal action potentials: a comparative study on the mechanism of the convulsive action. *Planta Medica*, 1997, 63(2): 120-124 (doi: 10.1055/s-2006-957626).
89. Panter K.E., Gardner D.R., Stegelmeier B.L., Welch K.D., Holstege D. Water hemlock poisoning in cattle: ingestion of immature *Cicuta maculata* seed as the probable cause. *Toxicon*, 2011, 57(1):157-61 (doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2010.11.009).
90. Bates N. Bracken and horsetail poisoning. *UK-Vet Equine*, 2023, 7(2): 58-62.
91. Zhurba O.V., Dmitriev M.Ya. *Lekarstvennye, yadovitye i vrednye rasteniya* [Medicinal, poisonous and harmful plants]. Moscow, 2006 (in Russ.).
92. Schep L.J., Slaughter R.J., Becket G., Beasley D.M. Poisoning due to water hemlock. *Clinical Toxicology*, 2009, 47(4): 270-278 (doi: 10.1080/15563650902904332).
93. Budantsev A.L. *Rastitel'nye resursy Rossii i sopredel'nykh gosudarstv* [Plant resources of Russia and neighboring countries]. St. Petersburg, 1996 (in Russ.).
94. Teuscher E., Lindequist U. *Biogene Gifte: Biologie, Chemie, Pharmakologie, Toxikologie.* 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Wissenschaftliche Verlagsgesellschaft, Stuttgart, Germany, 2010.
95. Knight A.P., Walter R.G. *A guide to plant poisoning of animals in North America.* Teton NewMedia, Jackson, Wyoming, 2001.
96. Burrows G.E., Tyril R.J. *Toxic plants of North America.* Wiley-Blackwell, 2013.
97. Stegelmeier B.L. Bracken fern poisoning in animals. In: *MSD Veterinary Manual.* Available: <https://www.msddvetmanual.com/toxicology/bracken-fern-poisoning/bracken-fern-poisoning-in-animals/>. Accessed: 18.10.2023.
98. Radostits O.M., Gay C.C., Blood D.C., Hinchcliff K.W. Bovine mastitis. In: *Veterinary medicine A Textbook of the diseases of cattle, sheep, pigs, goats and horses. 9th Edition.* W.B. Saunders Company Ltd., New York, 2000: 867-882.
99. Vetter J. A biological hazard of our age: bracken fern [*Pteridium aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn] — a review. *Acta Veterinaria Hungarica*, 2009, 57(1): 183-196 (doi: 10.1556/AVet.57.2009.1.18).
100. Mendonça M.F.F., Caymmi L.G., Silva A.W.O., Biscarde C.E.A., Silva R.D.G., Leal P.V., Pimentel L.A., Riet-Correa F., Peixoto T.C. Primary photosensitization by *Chamaecrista serpens* in Santa Inês Sheep. *Animals*, 2022, 12(22): 3132 (doi: 10.3390/ani12223132).
101. Seawright A.A. *Chemical and plant poisons (Animal health in Australia).* Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, Australia: 1982.
102. Stegelmeier B. Equine photosensitization. *Clinical Techniques in Equine Practice*, 2002, 1(2): 81-88 (doi: 10.1053/ctep.2000.34237).
103. *Robinson's current therapy in equine medicine (Seventh edition).* K.A. Sprayberry, N.E. Robinson (eds.). Elsevier Inc., 2015 (doi: 10.1016/C2011-0-05761-7).
104. Maxie G. *Jubb, Kennedy and Palmer's pathology of domestic animals: Volume 2. Sixth edition.* Elsevier, 2015 (doi: 10.1016/C2012-0-00823-x).
105. Puschner B., Chen X., Read D., Affolter V.K. Alfalfa hay induced primary photosensitization in horses. *Vet. J.*, 2016, 211: 32-38 (doi: 10.1016/j.tvjl.2016.03.004).
106. Guitart R., Croubels S., Caloni F., Sachana M., Davanzo F., Vandembroucke V., Berny P. Animal poisoning in Europe. Part 1: Farm livestock and poultry. *The Veterinary Journal*, 2010, 183(3): 249-254 (doi: 10.1016/j.tvjl.2009.03.002).
107. Modrá H., Svobodová Z. Incidence of animal poisoning cases in the Czech Republic: current situation. *Interdiscip Toxicol*, 2009, 2(2): 48-51 (doi: 10.2478/v10102-009-0009-z).
108. Stegelmeier B.L., Davis T.Z., Clayton M.J. Plant-induced photosensitivity and dermatitis in livestock. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice*, 2020, 36(3): 725-733 (doi: 10.1016/j.cvfa.2020.08.008).
109. Novikov V.M. *Zernobobovye i krupyanye kul'tury*, 2012, 2: 72-76 (in Russ.).
110. Puschner B., Chen X., Read D., Affolter V.K. Alfalfa hay induced primary photosensitization in horses. *The Veterinary Journal*, 2016, 211: 32-38 (doi: 10.1016/j.tvjl.2016.03.004).
111. Vetter J. Plant cyanogenic glycosides. In: *Plant toxins. Toxicology.* C. Carlini, R. Ligabue-Braun (eds.). Springer, Dordrecht, 2017 (doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-6464-4\_19).
112. *An introduction to interdisciplinary toxicology: from molecules to man.* C.N. Pope, J. Liu (eds.). Academic Press, 2020.
113. Gaskill C. *Toxin topic: Johnsongrass poisoning in horses.* Available: <https://equine.ca.uky.edu/news-story/toxin-topic-johnsongrass-poisoning-horses>. Accessed: 10/18/2023.
114. Cope R.B. Cyanide poisoning in animals. In: *MSD Veterinary Manual*, 2020. Available: <https://www.msddvetmanual.com/toxicology/cyanide-poisoning/cyanide-poisoning-in-animals>. Accessed: 10/18/2023.
115. Havilah E.J. Forages and pastures | Annual forage and pasture crops — establishment and management. In: *Encyclopedia of dairy sciences (Second edition).* J.W. Fuquay (ed.). Academic Press, 2011: 563-575 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-374407-4.00194-1).
116. Van Kampen K.R. Sudan grass and sorghum poisoning of horses: a possible lathyrogenic disease. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 1970, 156(5): 629-630.
117. Poppenga R.H., Puschner B. Chapter 34 - Toxicology. In: *Equine emergencies (Fourth edition).* J.A. Orsini, T.J. Divers (eds.). Saunders, 2014: 580-606 (doi: 10.1016/B978-1-4557-0892-5.00034-9).

118. Appenteng M.K., Krueger R., Johnson M.C., Ingold H., Bell R., Thomas A.L., Greenlief C.M. Cyanogenic glycoside analysis in American elderberry. *Molecules*, 2021, 26(5): 1384 (doi: 10.3390/molecules26051384).
119. Zoltani C.K. Chapter 14 - Cardiovascular toxicity. In: *Veterinary toxicology (Third edition)*. R.C. Gupta (ed.). Academic Press, 2018: 227-238 (doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-811410-0.00014-3).
120. Tomilova S.V., Kitashov A.V., Nosov A.M. *Fiziologiya rasteniy*, 2022, 69(3): 227-245 (in Russ.).
121. Joubert J.P.J. Cardiac glycosides. In: *Toxicants of plant origin, vol. II*. P.R. Cheeke (ed.). CRC Press, Boca Raton, 1989: 61-69.
122. Glushchenko N.N., Pleteneva T.V., Popkov V.A. *Farmatsevticheskaya khimiya* [Pharmaceutical chemistry]. Moscow, 2004 (in Russ.).
123. Bandara V., Weinstein S.A., White J., Eddleston M. A review of the natural history, toxinology, diagnosis and clinical management of *Nerium oleander* (common oleander) and *Thevetia peruviana* (yellow oleander) poisoning. *Toxicon*, 2010, 56(3): 273-281 (doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2010.03.026).
124. Sykes C.A., Uzal F.A., Mete A., Ochoa J., Filigenzi M., Poppenga R.H., Asin J. Renal lesions in horses with oleander (*Nerium oleander*) poisoning. *Animals*, 2022, 12(11): 1443 (doi: 10.3390/ani12111443).
125. Knight A.P. *A guide to poisonous house and garden plants*. Teton New-Media, 2007.
126. Brumbaugh G.W., Thomas W.P., Enos L.R., Kaneko J.J. A pharmacokinetic study of digoxin in the horse. *Journal of Veterinary Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 1983, 6(3): 163-172 (doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2885.1983.tb00460.x).
127. Suleymanova V.N., Egoshina T.L. *Vestnik Udmurtskogo universiteta. Seriya «Biologiya. Nauki o Zemle»*, 2014, 1: 49-56 (in Russ.).
128. Atkinson K.J., Fine D.M., Evans T.J., Khan S. Suspected lily-of-the-valley (*Convallaria majalis*) toxicosis in a dog. *Journal of Veterinary Emergency and Critical Care*, 2008, 18(4): 399-403 (doi: 10.1111/j.1476-4431.2008.00325.x).
129. Grigor'ev D. *Botanika. Entsiklopediya «Vse rasteniya mira»* [Botany. Encyclopedia "All Plants of the World"]. Moscow, 2007 (in Russ.).
130. Galey F.D., Holstege D.M., Plumlee K.H., Tor E., Johnson B., Anderson M.L., Blanchard P.C., Brown F. Diagnosis of oleander poisoning in livestock. *Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation*, 1996, 8(3): 358-364 (doi: 10.1177/104063879600800314).
131. Galey F.D., Holstege D.M., Plumlee K.H., Tor E., Johnson B., Anderson M.L., Blanchard P.C., Brown F. Diagnosis of oleander poisoning in livestock. *Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation*, 1996, 8(3): 358-364 (doi: 10.1177/104063879600800314).
132. Renier A.C., Kass P.H., Magdesian K.G., Madigan J.E., Aleman M., Pusterla N. Oleander toxicosis in equids: 30 cases (1995-2010). *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 2013, 242(2): 540-549 (doi: 10.2460/javma.242.4.540).
133. Ivoylov A.V. *Mordovskiy zapovednik*, 2017, 12: 13-14 (in Russ.).
134. Bates N. Spring poisoning hazards. *UK-Vet Equine*, 2021, 5(2): 76-81 (doi: 10.12968/ukve.2021.5.2.76).
135. Cortinovis C., Caloni F. Plants toxic to farm and companion animals. In: *Plant toxins. Toxinology*. C. Carlini, R. Ligabue-Braun (eds.). Springer, Dordrecht, 2017: 107-134 (doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-6464-4\_23).
136. Trukhachev V.I., Yuldashbaev Yu.A., Svinarev I.Yu. et al. *Sovremennoe sostoyaniye i perspektivy razvitiya zhivotnovodstva Rossii i stran SNG* [Current state and prospects for the development of livestock farming in Russia and the CIS countries]. Moscow, 2022 (in Russ.).
137. Wiggering H., Diekötter T., Donath T.W. Regulation of *Jacobaea vulgaris* by varied cutting and restoration measures. *PLoS ONE*, 2022, 17(10): e0248094 (doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0248094).
138. Lin T., Klinkhamer P.G.L., Pons T.L., Mulder P.P.J., Vrieling K. Evolution of increased photosynthetic capacity and its underlying traits in invasive *Jacobaea vulgaris*. *Front. Plant Sci.*, 2019, 10: 1016 (doi: 10.3389/fpls.2019.01016).
139. Solcan G., Anton A. Photosensitization dermatitis in animals. *Practica Veterinara.ro*, 2023, 1(1): 6-11 (doi: 10.26416/pv.39.1.2023.7799).
140. Botelho A.F.M., Pierezan F., Soto-Blanco B., Melo M.M. A review of cardiac glycosides: structure, toxicokinetics, clinical signs, diagnosis and antineoplastic potential. *Toxicon*, 2019, 158: 63-68 (doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2018.11.429).