

P-ISSN: 2349–8528 E-ISSN: 2321–4902 www.chemijournal.com IJCS 2021; SP-9(1): 126-133 © 2021 IJCS Received: 17-11-2020 Accepted: 24-12-2020

Dr. Vandana S Madke

Assistant Professor of Botany, College of Agriculture, Nagpur, Dr. P.D.K.V., Akola, Maharashtra, India

Dr. Bhavana R Wankhade

Assistant Professor of Animal Husbandry and Dairy Science, College of Agriculture, Nagpur, Dr. P.D.K.V., Akola, Maharashtra, India

Corresponding Author: Dr. Vandana S Madke Assistant Professor of Botany, College of Agriculture, Nagpur, Dr. P.D.K.V., Akola, Maharashtra, India

Effectiveness of *Lathyrus sativus* L. grain as animal Feed

Dr. Vandana S Madke and Dr. Bhavana R Wankhade

DOI: https://doi.org/10.22271/chemi.2021.v9.i1c.11491

Abstract

Lathyrus (Lathyrussativus L.) is an important legume crop with low cost and easy cultivation grown in India, Bangladesh, China, Ethiopia, Nepal, and Pakistan for human food and animal feed. Inherently Lathyrus possesses resistance to drought, excess moisture, salinity, diseases, and insect pests. As Lathyrus has an ambivalent reputation due to ODAP content in its plant parts, efforts are on to develop low or ODAP free Lathyrus varieties with high biomass for dual purpose for human food and animal feed. Older published animal feeding studies are of limited use, since the presence and role of ODAP was unknown until the 1960s. More recent feeding studies indicate that low ODAP lines of L. sativus can be safely incorporated at inclusion rates up to 40, 30 and 70% of the diet of poultry, pigs and sheep, respectively, without growth reductions (Hanbury, et al, 2000). Lathyrus is known as excellent feed and fodder crop for centuries as a main concentrate for horses (Anonymous, 1894). Livestock is a key component of farming systems in South Asia and in Africa, and most particularly with small and marginal farmers, estimated about 678 million, and indicates importance of livestock to their livelihoods (ILRI, 2000). Lathyrus is increasingly recognized as an important feed and fodder crop by the resource poor farmers of semi-arid and dry areas. Acceptability of low ODAP varieties by the farmers of nontraditional Lathyrus growing areas and high nutritional composition makes the Lathyrus a perfect dual purpose for crop securing food, feed and fodder security in the region. (Sarkar, et al., 2010). As world demand for legume feed protein is likely to increase, due to increasing demand for animal food products, L. sativus are crops that should be considered in regions with suitable environments (Hanbury, et al, 2016).

Keywords: Lathyrus, ODAP content, protein, antinutritional factors, lathyrism

Introduction

The *Lathyrussativus* L belongs to the Fabaceae family. *Lathyrussativus* L. not only has potential as an agriculturally important crop for animal feed and human food, it also can be useful for studies of plant drought resistance (Choudhary *et al.*, 2016) ^[17]. The people known it under various names: dinner, dental peas, cicericula, Dentisor. It is a precious annual plant, which has a long history of culture. The species sativus is widely cultivated. *Lathyrussativus* is a valuable plant of culture, both using it and as a precursor. *Lathyrussativus* is cultivate on about 500 thousand ha the globe. The areas large occupy it crop in India, Spain, Portugal, Near East, North Africa. It is used in human nutrition and animal feeding. Flour from the *Lathyrussativus* is used (10%) for tasty bread. The berries are used up to mature, green and mature in the form of garner. It is use in animal feed as a green fodder, a fan, alone or mixed with cereals, and the grains are given as concentrated fodder. The *Lathyrussativus* are also used to obtain high-quality glues used in aviation, textile, veneering, etc. The stem is in the muscle, branched, but non-resistant to fall. The leaves par pinnate with two narrow, lance late leaves, end with branched circle. The flowers are of violet color, rarely pink, blue, placed in raceme 2-3.

Lathyrus sativus L.

Livestock plays an important role in Indian agriculture and rural economy. Rural population has major livelihood sources and income from livestock and poultry by selling milk, meat and egg. Livestock contrives 9% and 25% to National GDP and agricultural GDP respectively and contribution from livestock is about 15-20% to the farmers household income.

At present, the country faces a net deficit of 45.1% green fodder, 21.9% dry crop residues and 64% in terms of concentrated feeds (Hegde N.G, 2006)^[35].



Fig 1: Lathyrus sativus L.

In India the available natural fodders are poor in quality with regards to energy, protein and minerals and vitamins which leads to reduces production which directly effects farmer's income. The farmers investing about 70% of total cost of milk production on feed, fodder and concentrates only, thus good quality of green fodder having sufficient nutritive value are the demand of the day due to more demand of milk. Although, green fodder, hay and silage contains good nutritional values, but there maintenance, ways of consumption and presence of some toxic material also alarm us. Among the different quality controlling aspects anti quality materials/substances are also of prime importance (Wadhwan V.M, 2014)^[81].

The genus Lathyrus is a large one, comprising 189 species and sub-species according to Allkin et al. (1985) [5], and approximately 150 species according to Kupicha (1983)^[41]. Of these only a small number are cultivated. Erskine et al. (1994)^[22] suggest that L. sativus was originally domesticated as a secondary crop as a result of being a weed of lentil (Lens culinaris) crops. It has been demonstrated in recent studies that the Lathyrus spp. (L. sativus L.) have considerable potential as grain legume crops on fine textured, neutral to alkaline, soil types in southern Australian Mediterranean-type environments (Hanbury et al., 1995; Siddique et al., 1996, Siddique and Hanbury, 1998) ^[30, 69, 70]. This species being evaluated as low input, multi-purpose crops for green manuring, animal feed and fodder. In Australia, animal feed is seen as the primary use of the grain of these species, both on and off farm. Animal feeding with this species has a long history and is still practised in some parts of the world. However, published studies are scattered and frequently difficult to access. This review aims to summarise the animal feeding literature and demonstrate the potential for this species as animal feed.

Soybean (*Glycine max*) meal is used widely as a source of protein for animal feeds, and the price of most other protein meals and grain legumes are set relative to this commodity. In Europe there has been increasing emphasis on local production of legumes for animal feed in order to supply some of this protein demand (Gatel, 1994)^[27], rather than

relying on imported soybean meal. Subsidies have resulted in increasing production of, particularly, Field peas (*Pisumsativum*) and faba beans (*Viciafaba*). This expansion has been partly at the expense of previously grown legume crops, such as Lathyrus spp., which do not have subsidies (Franco Jubete, 1991)^[25].

The use of legumes as sources of protein for the animal feed industry is expected to increase further in the near future. Rising incomes in the Asian region are increasing the demand for meat products, and hence the requirement for animal feeds. There have been changes in public perception and some unfortunate developments, such as the consequences of `mad cow' disease (i.e. bovine spongiform encephalopathy or BSE) in UK. This has resulted in many feed compounders either choosing to, or being banned from, using animal by-products as a source of protein (Farrell, 1997) ^[23].



Fig 2: Seeds dried

Lathyrus sativus L. seeds dried

The amino acid requirement of animals often differ with species and bodyweight, hence no single source of plant protein will provide the exact amino acids required for all animals. It is, therefore, preferable to include a range of protein sources in diet formulations, each complementing the other. For these reasons, the demand for grain legumes, such as Lathyrus spp., by the feed industry is expected to increase. Any feedstuff is likely to be used in diets for animals if it supplies the required nutrients, if it is cost competitive with other available ingredients, and if the user is confident it will produce the desired result.

Lathyrism

Lathyrus species, particularly L. sativus, have been known since classical times to be implicated in a paralysis of humans and animals (Hugon et al., 2000)^[37] known as ``lathyrism" or more specifically "neurolathyrism". Both ruminants and monogastric species can be affected, some literature indicates that monogastrics can be more affected. It was only in the later half of the 20th century that the compound responsible was identified (Murti et al., 1964; Rao et al., 1964) [53, 62]. Neurolathyrism is the term used to describe the symptoms shown after heavy consumption of several different Lathyrus species and some Vicia species. The symptoms are weakness of the hind limbs and paralysis or rigidity of the muscles. The form of neurolathyrism most pertinent to this discussion is that caused by the non-protein amino acid 3-(-N-oxalyl)-L-2,3-diamino propionic acid (ODAP, also referred to as b-Noxalylamino-L-alanine or BOAA; Fig. 3): which has been recorded in humans and animals following consumption of L.

sativus, L. cicera, L. ochrus and L. clymenum (Barrow *et al.*, 1974; Padmanaban, 1980; Franco Jubete, 1991) ^[8, 56, 25]. The seed of a number of other uncultivated Lathyrus species have been found to contain ODAP (Bell, 1962, 1964) ^[13]. Historically the consumption of L. sativus has been most often linked with lathyrism in humans and animals, primarily because of all *Lathyrus* species it is the most widely utilised as grain and fodder. Lathyrism is the term mostly used to refer to neurolathyrism caused by ODAP.

There are two forms of lathyrism, neurolathyrism and osteolathyrism. Osteolathyrism is characterized by skeletal deformities and can be caused by consumption of the species L. odoratus (sweet pea), L. hirsutus, L. pusillus and L. roseus (Roy, 1981) ^[64]. Osteolathyrism has been recorded experimentally in a wide range of animals (Barrow et al., 1974)^[8]. The principal compound responsible was found to be b-aminopropionitrile (BAPN; Fig. 3), although the related methylene nitriles aminoacetonitrile (AAN) and aminoacetonitrile (MAAN) also have some osteolathyritic activity (Barrow et al., 1974)^[8]. Although BAPN is not found in either L. sativus or L. cicera (Bell, 1962, 1964)^[13], there is evidence that a BAPN precursor (2-cyanoethyl-isoxazolin-5one) is present in L. sativus seedlings but not in seed (Lambein et al., 1993) [44]. Consumption of L. sativus seedlings and shoots as vegetables has been blamed as the cause of osteolathyritic symptoms found in a small proportion of people with chronic neurolathyrism (Haque et al., 1997) ^[34]. Incidents of osteolathyrism from feeding of L. sativus have not been reported in animal studies, either under natural grazing or experimental conditions.

Lathyrism in humans has received more attention than that in animals, due to the social cost. Symptoms in humans are most often initial painful spasms in the muscles of the lower limbs with accompanying weakness, followed by chronic spastic paraplegia of various degrees (Spencer et al., 1986)^[74], and can lead to total loss of use of the legs (Attal et al., 1978)^[7]. The paralysis is rarely reversible (and then only in early stages of the symptoms; Hugon et al., 2000) [37] and the consequences for poor communities who depend upon L. sativus as a primary food source at times of food scarcity can be devastating. Lathyrism still occurs, with a 1997 outbreak during food shortages in Ethiopia crippling 2000 people (Getahun et al., 1999)^[29]. Lathyrism is endemic to the areas of the world which have significant areas of L. sativus cultivation; India, Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Nepal. However, in the 20th century outbreaks were also reported in Afghanistan, Algeria, China, France, Germany, Italy, Pakistan, Romania, Russia, Spain and Syria (Trabaud and MouhaÈrram, 1932; Barrow et al., 1974; Roy and Spencer, 1989; Hugon et al., 2000) [79, 8, 37]. Boiling has been found to reduce ODAP levels in several cases, however, there are mixed reports on other forms of cooking (TekleHaimanot et al., 1993; Akalu et al., 1998) [65, 3]. Padmajaprasad et al.

(1997) ^[57] reported that boiling grain and discarding the water reduced ODAP levels by up to 90%.

ODAP toxicity

Following its isolation and identification (Murti et al., 1964; Rao et al., 1964) ^[53, 62] the neurolathyritic action of ODAP was soon demonstrated in adult monkeys (Rao et al., 1967) ^[63]. Cheema et al. (1969) ^[16] administered ODAP intraperitoneally to rats. Young rats showed lathyrism symptoms and had 0.11 mmol gÿ1 ODAP in the brain, adult rats showing trace or nil ODAP and no symptoms. Olney et al. (1976) found some indication of exclusion of ODAP by the blood-brain barrier in mice. Padmanaban (1980) [56] suggested that the hypothesis of less ODAP exclusion by the blood-brain barrier in young animals should be re-examined, as greater excretion of ODAP by older animals may be an important factor. Spencer et al. (1986) [74] showed unequivocally that ODAP, either naturally present in L. sativus or when added to other food sources, was the cause of corticospinal dysfunction in monkeys (Macacafascicularis), with symptoms of hind limb motor difficulties. ODAP acts as a glutamate (Fig. 3) analogue in the nervous system and probably acts by binding strongly to a-amino-3-hydroxy-5methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA)- type glutamate receptors. Permanent damage probably occurs with excitotoxic degeneration of neurons, although there are other possible neurotoxic effects. The ultimate fate of ODAP and the distribution in the brain and spinal cord is not known (Hugon et al., 2000)^[37]. ODAP was not detected in pig loin tissue following feeding for an extended period (Castell et al., 1994) [15].

In human populations young men are widely reported as the most susceptible to lathyrism (McCarrison, 1926; Shourie, 1945; Attal *et al.*, 1978; Hamid *et al.*, 1986; Getahun and TekleHaimanot, 1997)^[57, 76, 32, 28], although the reasons for this are not understood (Hugon *et al.*, 2000)^[37]. The production and susceptibility to ODAP may be linked to Zn deficiency in plants and humans, respectively (Lambein *et al.*, 1994; Lambein and Kuo, 1997). ODAP has also been found to inhibit growth of some insects and yeasts (Rao *et al.*, 1964; Mehta *et al.*, 1972)^[62, 52], and so may have a plant protective role.

Anti-nutritional factors

Chemical substances present in the diet which by themselves or their metabolic products arising in the system interfere with the feed utilization, reduce production or affects the health of the animal. They are also called as toxic factors or incriminating factors. Anti-nutritional factors present in various feed/fodder are given in Table 1. Toxic substances of natural origin can be classified based on their chemical properties and on the basis of their effect on utilization of nutrients.

Table 1: Anti-Nutritiona	l factor in	forage crops
--------------------------	-------------	--------------

S. No.	Antinutritional/ Toxic substances	Fodder crops	
1 Nitrate		Sudan Grass Pearl millet	
2 Oxalates		Paddy straw, Guinea Grass, Bajra and Hybrid Napier, Setaria Grass, Kikyu&Buffel grass	
3	Saponins	Lucerne	
4	Tannins	Fodder tree/Shrubs	
5	Cynogens	Sorghum, Sudan grass, Jhonson grass	
6	Glucosinolates (Goitrogens)	Cabbage, Turnips, Rapeseed and Mustard green	
7	Mimosine	Subabul	
8	β-N-oxalyl-L-α, β-diamino propionic acid (β- ODAP or BOAA)	Lathyrus	

In common with all grain legumes there are a range of antinutritional factors (ANFs) found in *L. sativus* grain. The ANFs commonly found in grain legumes include: tannins, phytic acid, oligosaccharides, protease inhibitors (trypsin and chymotrypsin inhibitors), amylase inhibitors and lectins (Liener, 1989). ODAP is also an ANF and is almost unique to the Lathyrusgenus. There are only a small number of published studies of levels and activities of ANFs, other than ODAP, in *L. sativus* (Latif *et al.*, 1975; Deshpande and Campbell, 1992; Aletor *et al.*, 1994; Urga *et al.*, 1995; Srivastava and Khokhar, 1996; Wang *et al.*, 1998)^[43, 19, 6, 80, 71, 82].

Proteinaceous ANFs

The proteinaceous ANFs are (i) trypsin and chymotrypsin inhibitors (both protease inhibitors), respectively measured as trypsin inhibitor activity (TIA) and chymotrypsin inhibitor activity (CTIA), (ii) amylase inhibitors and (iii) lectins. ODAP will also be included under this heading, although ODAP is a non-protein amino acid and not strictly a proteinaceous ANF.

ODAP

Until recent times animal feeding studies with L. sativus have been performed with no knowledge of the role of ODAP in lathyrism. Therefore, in all older studies of animal feeding (i.e. pre 1960s) the concentration of ODAP is unknown. Recent studies have shown that ODAP concentrations can vary widely both within and between the these species, however, environmental conditions are not as important as genotype (Hanbury *et al.*, 1999) ^[35]. Nonetheless, stresses such as salinity and drought (Hussain *et al.*, 1997) ^[36] have been found to increase ODAP concentrations but are little understood. Concentrations of ODAP in the seed can be particularly high in *L. sativus*land races, up to 1.50% (Table 2).

Table 2: ODAP content (% as received) mean and range of a	
number of lines of <i>L. sativus</i> grown at various locations.	

L. sativus		Location	Source
Mean (Range)	No.		
0.20 (0.16±0.25)	10	Spain	Franco Jubete (1991) ^[25] .
0.49 (0.07±0.75)	70	Syria	Abd El-Moneim (1994) ^[2]
0.49 (0.33±0.59)	36	Syria	Aletor et al. (1994) ^[6]
0.39 (0.04±0.76)	407	Australia	Hanbury et al. (1999) ^[35]
0.88 (0.45±1.40)	172	Bangladesh	Kaul <i>et al.</i> (1982) ^[40]
0.72 (0.37±1.04)	10	Ethiopia	TekleHaimanot et al. (1993) ^[65]
0.44 (0.28±1.50)	1187	India	Pandey et al. (1995) [58]
0.32 (0.18±0.52)	76	Chile	Tay et al. (2000) [78]
NA (0.08±0.99)	73	China	Chen cited by Campbell (1997) ^[12]
0.46			Grand mean

Amylase inhibitor activity

Amylase is the enzyme primarily involved in starch digestion in mammals. Amylase inhibitors are thought to reduce amylase activity, but the extent to which they are important is debated (Deshpande and Damodaran, 1990) ^[20]. Deshpande and Campbell (1992) ^[20] found in 100 lines of *L. sativus* that the range of amylase inhibitor activity (AIA) was 3.6 ± 91.4 units gÿ1 DM, substantially lower than the 330 ± 675 units gÿ1 DM found in P. vulgaris cultivars (Deshpande *et al.*, 1982).

Tannins

Tannins are polyphenolic compounds of two classes: low molecular weight hydrolysable and higher molecular weight

non-hydrolysable (or condensed). It is postulated that condensed tannins bind to proteins in the digestive tract and form complexes which are frequently indigestible (Marquardt, 1989) ^[50]. The hydrolysable tannins are often found to have little effect on digestibility. Tannins in faba beans and field peas are frequently localised in the seed coat (Marquardt, 1989; Gatel and Grosjean, 1990) ^[50, 26], with high tannin levels in darker seed coats than lighter ones. Similarly, Deshpande and Campbell (1992) [20] found that white or cream coloured seeds of L. sativus were associated with low tannin levels (both condensed and total), whereas seed with darker seed coats generally had high tannin levels. Similar observations regarding L. sativus were made by Urga et al. (1995)^[80] and Wang et al. (1998)^[82]. In L. sativus lighter seeds are associated with white flower colour (Jackson and Yunus, 1984)^[39], consequently the selection of white flower colour could be used to reduce tannin contents. There is considerable scope for improvement of varieties with negligible condensed tannin levels. In the case of L. sativus, much suitable germplasm is already identified.

Protein content and quality

The mean protein content in L. cicera and L. sativus is 25 and 27%, respectively, from samples across a wide range of locations (Table 4). These are higher than protein contents in (32%) (Petterson *et al.*, 1997)^[60] or soybean (42%; Ravindran and Blair, 1992)^[55]. Chandna and Matta (1994) found the composition of seed protein in L. sativus to be: albumins (14%), globulins (66%), glutelins (15%) and prolamins (5%); similarly; Duke (1981)^[21] also quotes values of 26, 53, 15 and 6%, respectively.

Table 3: Protein concentrations (as received) reported in L. sativus L.

Mean protein (%)	No. lines	Location	Source
24	114	Bangladesh	Kaul <i>et al.</i> (1982) ^[40]
28	76	Chile	Tay et al. (2000) [78]
29	41	-	Petterson et al. (1997) ^[60]
26	40	Australia	Laurence (1979) ^[45]
31	36	Syria	Aletor et al. (1994) ^[6]
25	25	Ethiopia	Urga et al. (1995) ^[80]
30	15	India	Ramanujam et al. (1980) [61]
25	12	Australia	Hanbury (unpublished)
25	10	Spain	Franco Jubete (1991) [25]
27	3	Canada	Rotter et al. (1991) ^[66] .
29	3	India	Shobhana et al. (1976) [75]

Animal feeding studies

As for human food there are many historical references to the use of Lathyrus spp. as animal feed or fodder, principally L. sativus, L. cicera, L. ochrus and L. clymenum. Use of L. sativus is referred to by Columella in the first century A.D. (PenÄaChocarro and Zapata PenÄa, 1999) ^[59]. Because of concerns of human lathyrism there has been an emphasis in many countries to develop L. sativus cultivars with lower ODAP levels (Roy et al., 1993; Campbell et al., 1994) [77] with some success. Consequently, recent animal feeding studies have been able to both quantify the amount of ODAP in the diet and provide a low ODAP intake at higher inclusion rates of L. sativus. Due to the possible high variability in ODAP content in the lines used in older studies their results should be interpreted cautiously. Lathyrism can occur in both monogastrics and ruminants. Whether this can be avoided in low ODAP Lathyrus spp. lines and what constitutes a safe

dose of ODAP in any species of animal is not certain. Observations on the effects on different animal species when fed on Lathyrus spp. of unknown ODAP content differ. There is some evidence that rumen micro-organisms may be able to degrade ODAP Horses are noted as being very susceptible to lathyrism with symptoms of paralysis of the hind limbs and sometimes dying, following heavy grazing or feeding on Lathyrus spp. seed (Stockman, 1932; Steyn, 1933; LoÂpezBellido, 1994)^[73, 72, 48]. There is anecdotal evidence of pigs, sheep and cattle having died due to lathyrism after being turned into Lathyrus spp. Belds (Stockman, 1932)^[73]. He also claims that pigs may thrive on a pure diet of Lathyrus spp. seed, despite developing weakness in the hind legs. Monkeys can be affected similarly to humans by consumption of L. sativus and death sometimes results (Rao et al., 1967)^[63]. It is reported that many species of birds are readily affected by lathyrism when consuming Lathyrus spp. seed (Stockman, 1932)^[73], although Franco Jubete (1991)^[25]. reported that in Spain doves fed avidly on L. cicera with no obvious illeffects. Lewis et al. (1948) [46] fed L. sativus to young rats at 50% of food intake for 7±21 weeks and did not induce any lathyritic symptoms, growth rates were similar to those fed a diet based on field peas. Basu et al. (1937) [9] found no lathyrism symptoms in rats fed 15% L. sativus for 8 weeks, growth rates were lower than those fed field peas.

Although levels of ODAP were not reported in the above mentioned studies, evidence exists indicating that rumen microflora adapt to ODAP and break it down. Bacteria have been isolated from soil sludge which can use ODAP as their sole carbon and nitrogen source (Yadav et al., 1992)^[83]. In sheep, tolerance to L. sylvestris in their diet seems due to changes in the rumen contents (Rasmussen et al., 1992)^[67], presumably increasing breakdown of DABA, a neurotoxin chemically similar to ODAP (Fig. 3). Fermenting L. sativus seeds with Aspergillusoryzae and Rhizopusoligosporus for 48 h each has been shown to reduce ODAP concentration by >90% (Kuo et al., 1995) [42]. Farhangi (1996) [24] incubated L. sativus and L. cicera grain in sheep rumen fluid and reported a rapid disappearance of ODAP (>90% in 4 h), supporting the idea that certain rumen microorganisms can destroy the toxin. Using L. sativus lines of seed with a ODAP content of 0.08%, no symptoms of lathyrism were observed in donkeys, pigs or sheep when fed as 50±80% of daily intake for 180±250 days (Chen referred by Campbell, 1997); details are not available



Fig 3: Chemical diagrams of b-aminopropionitrile (BAPN), L-2,4diaminobutyric acid (DABA), 3-(-N-oxalyl)L-2,3-diamino propionic acid (ODAP or BOAA) and glutamate.

Low et al. (1990) found that inclusion of low ODAP L. sativus grain at 82% of the diet for up to 4 weeks (commenced at age 7 days) did not induce any symptoms of lathyrism in chickens. Control chickens fed a wheat/soybean based diet grew more rapidly. The ODAP concentration in the seed used was not measured, although the line was known to have low levels (mean 0.13%), low variation within a line is consistent in this L. sativus (30%; Hanbury et al., 1999)^[31]. Rotter *et al.* (1991) ^[66] fed high (0.27%), medium (0.22%) and low (0.13%) ODAP lines of L. sativus to chickens at 20±80% of the diet. They found that an increased proportion of L. sativus seed in the diet of young chickens decreased weight gain, feed intake and efficiencies of feed conversion (feeding commenced at age 7 days). At 20 and 40% proportions there were minor or no differences to a wheat/soybean diet. However, using 0.27% ODAP seed generally resulted in decreased weight gain, feed intake and efficiencies of feed conversion, compared to lower ODAP seed. Since increasing the proportion of L. sativus above 40% (irrespective of ODAP concentration) also affected the chickens it can be concluded that there were ANFs in the seed (other than ODAP) which were not characterized.

Castell *et al.*, 1994 ^[15] indicated that the pig feeding with ODAP concentration (0.09%) reduced growth rates using L. sativus. Poultry seem able to tolerate up to 40% of their diet of *L. sativus* of moderate ODAP concentrations (0.27%) with minor reductions in growth. Above 40% there appears to be significant effects of ANFs other than ODAP. (C.D. Hanbury *et al.*, 2000) ^[33].

Both pigs and poultry showed depressed performance when high ODAP (0.27%) L. sativusline were fed. Whether this was due to ODAP or other ANFs in the Canadian varieties used is unclear. Further characterisation of the ANFs in both L. sativus and L. cicera is necessary to separate the effects of ODAP from those of other ANFs. Until this is performed higher ODAP lines (0.15% or higher) should be avoided.

Both pigs and poultry showed depressed performance when high ODAP (0.27%) L. sativusline were fed. Whether this was due to ODAP or other ANFs in the Canadian varieties used is unclear. Further characterisation of the ANFs in both L. sativus and L. cicera is necessary to separate the effects of ODAP from those of other ANFs. Until this is performed higher ODAP lines (0.15% or higher) should be avoided (Hanbury, *et al*, 2000)^[33].

The serious consequences of lathyrism for animals means that caution must be exercised in feeding recommendations. There is sufficient evidence to justify the conclusion that safe feeding levels over extended periods are possible with the reduced ODAP levels of cultivars and germplasm now available. However, reduction in animal growth rates due to both ODAP and other ANFs have been recorded. Similarly to other commonly used grain legumes, the heating L. sativus will reduce the level and activities of the proteinaceous ANFs, which are particularly important for the monogastric species, also with possible reductions in ODAP content (Hanbury et al., 2000)^[33]. Little improvement in ANFs (other than ODAP) has been attempted in breeding of L. sativus. The improvement of cultivars is possible in a short time frame, given the variation already recorded and available to breeding programs, particularly in L. sativus. Experience with other species of grain legumes indicates that variation in the known ANFs will be present in the germplasm. The germplasm for Lathyrus species is large, to date relatively unutilised and this L. sativus, are highly variable. Compositions of L. sativus are generally similar to field pea; apart from the presence of ODAP, and their generally higher protein and ANF levels. Feeding data already shows that current cultivars can perform as well as industry standard ingredients. This indicates that rapid exploitation of these species in the feed industry is possible given experimentally established feeding recommendations. Since L. sativus are well adapted to large areas of southern Australia and other Mediterranean-type environments, the effectiveness of a rapidly developed market for grain would be one incentive for growers in these areas to adopt these crop options, particularly for those attempting to replace pasture legume rotations with low input grain legume crops.

References

- 1. Anonymous. Lathyrus Fodder (*Lathyrus sativus*, L.) Bulletin of miscellaneous information (Royal botanic gardens, Kew) 1894;94:349-352.
- Abd El-Moneim AM. Evaluation of BOAA content in new lines of Lathyrus spp. International Centre for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas Annual Report 1994, Germplasm Program Legumes. ICARDA, Aleppo 1994, pp. 206±207.
- Akalu G, Johansson G, Nair BM. Effect of processing on the content of b-N-oxalyl-a,bdiaminopropionic acid (b-ODAP) in grasspea (Lathyrussativus) seeds and ⁻our as determined by ⁻ow injection analysis. Food Chem 1998;62:233±237
- 4. Agrawal KK. Catalogue on grasspea (*Lathyrussativus* L.) germplasm. Department of Plant Breeding and Genetics, Indira Gandhi Agricultural University, Raipur, Madhya Pradesh 1995.
- Allkin R, MacFarlane TD, White RJ, Bisby FA, Adey ME. The geographical distribution ofLathyrus: issue 1. Vicieae Database Project Publication No. 6. University of Southampton 1985.
- Aletor VA, Abd El-Moneim A, Goodchild AV. Evaluation of the seeds of selected lines of three Lathyrus spp. for b-N-oxalylamino-L-alanine (BOAA), tannins, trypsin inhibitor activity and certain *in vitro* characteristics. J. Sci. Food Agric 1994;65:143±151.
- Attal HC, Kulkarni SW, Choubey BS, Palkar ND, Deotale PG. A field study of lathyrism-some clinical aspects. Indian J. Med. Res 1978;67:608±615.
- 8. Barrow MV, Simpson CF, Miller EJ. Lathyrism: a review. Quart. Rev. Biol 1974;49:101±128.
- Basu KP, Nath MC, Mukherjee R. Biological value of the proteins of soyabean, field pea, and Lathyrus sativa. By the balance sheet and growth methods. Indian J Med. Res 1937;24:1001±1026.
- Bell EA. Associations of ninhydrin-reacting compounds in the seeds of 49 species of Lathyrus. Biochem. J 1962;83:225±229.
- 11. Bell EA. Relevance of biochemical taxonomy to the problem of lathyrism. Nature 1964;203:378±380.
- 12. Campbell CG, Mehra RB, Agrawal SK, Chen YZ, Abd El-Moneim AM, Khawaja HIT, *et al.* Current status and future research strategy in breeding grasspea (Lathyrussativus). Euphytica 1994;73:167±175.
- Campbell CG. Grass Pea. Lathyrussativus L. Promoting the conservation and use of underutilized and neglected crops. 18. Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research, Gatersleben/International Plant Genetic Resources Institute, Rome 1997.
- 14. Chandna M, Matta NK. Studies on changing protein levels in developing and germinating seeds of

Lathyrussativus L. J. Plant Biochem. Biotechnol 1994;3:59±61.

- Castell AG, Cliplef RL, Briggs CJ, Campbell CG, Bruni JE. Evaluation of lathyrus (Lathyrussativus L.) as in ingredient in pig starter and grower diets. Can. J. Anim. Sci 1994;74:529±539.
- Cheema PS, Malathi K, Padmanaban G, Sarma PS. The neurotoxicity of b-N-oxalyl-a,bdiaminopropionic acid, the neurotoxin from the pulse Lathyrussativus. Biochem. J 1969;112:29±33.
- 17. Choudhary A, Pandey P, Senthil-Kumar M. Tailored responses to simultaneous drought stress and pathogen infection in plants," in Drought Stress Tolerance in Plants 2016. 1 eds
- Hossain MA, Wani SH, Bhattacharjee S, Burritt DJ, Tran LSP. editors. (Cham: Springer International Publishing 2016, 427-438. 10.
- Deshpande SS, Damodaran S. Food legumes: chemistry and technology. Adv. Cereal Sci. Technol. 1990;10:147±241.
- 20. Deshpande SS, Campbell CG. Genotype variation in BOAA, condensed tannins, phenolics and enzyme inhibitors of grass pea (Lathyrussativus). Can. J. Plant Sci 1992;72:1037±1047.
- 21. Duke JA. Handbook of Legumes of World Economic Importance. Plenum Press, New York 1981.
- 22. Erskine W, Smartt J, Muehlbauer FJ. Mimicry of lentil and the domestication of common vetch and grass pea. Econ. Bot 1994;48:326±332.
- 23. Farrell DJ. Where in the world will we Ind the ingredients to feed our livestock by the year 2007? In: Corbett, J.L., Choct, M., Nolan, J.V., Rowe, J.B. (Eds.), Recent Advances in Animal Nutrition in Australia. University of New England, Armidale 1997, pp. 136±145.
- 24. Farhangi M. The nutritional value of Lathyruscicera grain for sheep. M.Sc. (Animal Production) Thesis. University of Adelaide 1996.
- Franco Jubete F. Los Titarros: El cultivo de Lathyrus en Castilla y LeoÂn. Junta de Castilla y LeoÂn. Valladolid 1991.
- Gatel F, Grosjean F. Composition and nutritive value of peas for pigs: a review of European results. Livest. Prod. Sci 1990;26:155±175.
- 27. Gatel F. Protein quality of legume seeds for non-ruminant animals: a literature review. Anim. Feed Sci. Technol 1994;45:317±348.
- Getahun H, TekleHaimanot R. Psychosocial assessment of lathyrism patients in rural Estie sub-district of South Gondar administrative zone, northern Ethiopia. In: TekleHaimanot, R., Lambein, F. (Eds.), Lathyrus and Lathyrism, a Decade of Progress. University of Ghent, Belgium 1997, pp. 35±37.
- 29. Getahun H, Mekonnen A, TekleHaimanot R, Lambein F. Epidemic of neurolathyrism in Ethiopia. Lancet 1999;354:306±307.
- 30. Hanbury CD, Sarker A, Siddique KHM, Perry MW. Evaluation of Lathyrusgermplasm in a Mediterranean type environment in south-western Australia. CLIMA Occasional Publication No. 8, Perth 1995.
- Hanbury CD, Siddique KHM, Galwey NW, Cocks PS. Genotype environment interaction for seed yield and ODAP concentration of Lathyrussativus L. and L. cicera L. in Mediterranean-type environments. Euphytica 1999;110:45±60.

- 32. Hamid MA, Kaul AK, Akanda RU. Lathyrism in Bangladesh. An agro-economic survey of two lathyrism prone areas. Department of Economics, Rajshahi University, Rajshahi and Ford Foundation, Dhaka 1986.
- 33. Hanbury CD, White CL, PMullan B, MSiddique KH. A review of the potential of Lathyrussativus L. and L. cicera L. grain for use as animal feed, Animal Feed Science and Technology 2000;87:1±27.
- 34. Haque A, Hossain M, Lambein F, Bell EA. Evidence of osteolathyrism among patients suffering from neurolathyrism in Bangladesh. Nat. Toxins 1997;5:43±46.
- 35. Hegde NG. Positive Attitude for Good Health and Happiness. Nature Cure Ashram, Urulikanchan, Pune 2006.
- 36. Hussain M, Chowdhury B, Haque R, Lambein F. Effect of water stress, salinity, interaction of cations, stage of maturity of seeds and storage devices on the ODAP content of Lathyrussativus. In: TekleHaimanot, R., Lambein, F. (Eds.), Lathyrus and Lathyrism, a Decade of Progress. University of Ghent, Belgium 1997, pp. 107±112.
- 37. Hugon J, Ludolph AC, Spencer PS. b-N-oxalylamino-Lalanine. In: Spencer, P.S., Schaumburg, H. (Eds.), Experimental and Clinical Neurotoxicology, 2nd Edition. Oxford University Press, New York 2000, pp. 925±938.
- 38. ILRI. Strategy to 2010: making the livestock revolution work for the poor. International Livestock Research Institute, Nairobi, Kenya 2000.
- 39. Jackson MT, Yunus AG. Variation in the grass pea (Lathyrussativus L.) and wild species. Euphytica 1984;33:549±559.
- 40. Kaul AK, Islam MQ, Begum K. Variability for various agronomic characters and neurotoxin content in some cultivars of khesari (Lathyrussativus L.) in Bangladesh. Bangladesh J. Bot 1982;11:158±167.
- 41. Kupicha FK. The infrageneric structure of Lathyrus. Notes from the Royal Botanic Garden Edinburgh 1983;41:209±244.
- 42. Kuo YH, Bau HM, Quemener B, Khan JK, Lambein F. Solid-state fermentation of Lathyrussativus seeds using Aspergillusoryzae and Rhizopusoligosporus sp. T-3 to eliminate the neurotoxin ODAP without loss of nutritional value. J. Sci. Food Agric 1995;69:81±89.
- 43. Latif MA, Morris TR, Jayne-Williams DJ. Use of khesari (Lathyrussativus) in chick diets. Br. Poult. Sci 1975;17:539±546.
- 44. Lambein F, Khan JK, Kuo YH, Campbell CG, Briggs CJ. Toxins in the seedlings of some varieties of grass pea (Lathyrussativus). Nat. Toxins 1993;1:246±249.
- 45. Laurence RCN. A comparison of the grain and protein yield potential of some annual grain legume species in South Australia. Aust. J. Exp. Agric. Anim. Husb 1979;19:495±503.
- 46. Lewis HB, Fajans RS, Esterer MB, Shen C, Oliphant M. The nutritive value of some legumes. Lathyrism in the rat. The sweet pea (Lathyrusodoratus), Lathyrussativus, Lathyruscicera and some other species of Lathyrus. J. Nutr 1948;36:537±559.
- 47. Liener I.E. Antinutritional factors in legume seeds: state of the art. In: Huisman, J., Van der Poel, T.F.B., Liener, I.E. (Eds.), Recent Advances of Research in Antinutritional Factors in Grain Legume Seeds. Pudoc, Wageningen 1989, pp. 6±13.

http://www.chemijournal.com

- HernaÂndez Bermejo, J.E., LeoÂn, J. (Eds.), Neglected Crops: 1492 from a Different Perspective. FAO Plant Production and Protection Series No. 26. FAO, Rome 1994, pp. 273±288.
- 49. Low RKC, Rotter RG, Marquardt RR, Campbell CG. Use of Lathyrussativus L. (var. Seminisalbi) as a foodstuff for poultry. Br. Poult. Sci 1990;31:615±625.
- 50. Marquardt RR. Dietary effects of tannins, vicine and convicine. In: Huisman, J., Van der Poel, T.F.B., Liener, (Eds.), Recent Advances of Research in I.E. Antinutritional Factors in Grain Legume Seeds. Pudoc, Wageningen 1989, pp. 141±155.
- 51. McCarrison R. A note on lathyrism in the Gilgit agency. Indian J. Med. Res 1926;14:379±381.
- 52. Mehta T, Hsu AF, Haskell BE. Specificity of the neurotoxin from Lathyrussativus as an amino acid antagonist. Biochemistry 1972;11:4053±4063.
- 53. Murti VVS, Seshadri TR, Venkitsubramanian TA. Neurotoxic compounds of the seeds of Lathyrussativus. Phytochemistry 1964;3:73±78.
- 54. Olney JW, Misra CH, Rhee V. Brain and retinal damage lathyrusexcitotoxin, from b-N-oxalyl-L-a, bdiaminopropionic acid. Nature 1976;264:659±661.
- 55. Ravindran V, Blair R. Feed resources for poultry production in Asia and the Paci®c. II. Plant protein sources. World Poult. Sci. J. 1992;48:205±231.
- 56. Padmanaban G. Lathyrogens. In: Liener, I.E. (Ed.), Toxic Constituents of Plant Foodstuffs, 2nd Edition. Academic Press, New York 1980, pp. 239±263.
- 57. Padmajaprasad V, Kaladhar M, Bhat RV. Thermal isomerisation of b-N-oxalyl-L-a, b-diaminopropionic acid, the neurotoxin in Lathyrussativus, during cooking. Food Chem 1997;59:77±80
- 58. Pandey RL, Chitale MW, Sharma RN, Kashap OP, Agrawal SK, Geda AK, et al. Catalogue on grasspea (Lathyrussativus L.) germplasm. Department of Plant Breeding and Genetics, Indira Gandhi Agricultural University, Raipur, Madhya Pradesh 1995.
- 59. PenÄa-Chocarro L, Zapata PenÄa L. History and traditional cultivation of Lathyrussativus L. and Lathyruscicera L. in the Iberian peninsula. Veget. Hist. Archaeobot 1999;8:49±52.
- 60. Petterson DS, Sipsas S, Mackintosh JB. The chemical composition and nutritive value of Australian pulses. Grains Research and Development Corporation, Canberra 1997.
- 61. Ramanujam S, Sethi KL, Rao SLN. Stability of neurotoxin content in khesari. Indian J. Genet. Plant Breed 1980;40:300±304
- 62. Rao SLN, Adiga PR, Sarma PS. The isolation and characterization of b-N-oxalyl-L-a, bdiaminopropionic acid: a neurotoxin from the seeds of Lathyrussativus. Biochemistry 1964;3:432±436.
- 63. Rao SLN, Sarma PS, Mani KS, Rao TRR, Sriramachari S. Experimental neurolathyrism in monkeys. Nature 1967;214:610±611.
- 64. Roy DN. Toxic amino acids and proteins from Lathyrus plants and other leguminous species: a literature review. Nutr. Abstr. Rev. Ser. A 1981;51:691±707.
- 65. Roy PK, Ali K, Gupta A, Barat GK, Mehta SL. b-Noxalyl-L-a,b-diaminopropionic acid in somaclones derived from internode explants of Lathyrussativus. J. Plant Biochem. Biotechnol 1993;2:9±13.

- 66. Rotter RG, Marquardt RR, Campbell CG. The nutritional value of low lathyrogenicLathyrus (Lathyrussativus) for growing chicks. Br. Poult. Sci 1991;32:1055±1067.
- 67. Rasmussen MA, Foster JG, Allison MJ. Lathyrussylvestris (atpea) toxicity in sheep and ruminal metabolism of -atpeaneurolathyrogens. In: James, L.F., Keeler, R.F., Bailey, E.M., Cheeke, P.R., Hegarty, M.P. (Eds.), Poisonous Plants. Proceedings of the Third International Symposium. Iowa State University Press, Ames, IA 1992, pp. 377±381.
- Sarker Ashutosh, PoojaSah VK, Yadav MM Das. Grasspea: A potential fodder and feed resources, Sustainability of grasslands-social and policy issues 2010.
- 69. Siddique KHM, Loss SP, Herwig SP, Wilson JM. Growth, yield and neurotoxin (ODAP) concentration of three Lathyrus species in Mediterranean-type environments of Western Australia. Aust. J. Exp. Agric 1996;36:209±218.
- Siddique KHM, Hanbury CD. Introduction, evaluation and utilization of Lathyrusgermplasm in Australia. In: Mathur, P.N., Ramanatha Rao, V., Arora, R.K. (Eds.), Lathyrus Genetic Resources Network in Asia. IPGRI, New Delhi 1998, pp. 42±45.
- Srivastava S, Khokhar S. Effects of processing on the reduction of b-ODAP (b-N-oxalyl-L-2,3diaminopropionic acid) and anti-nutrients of khesari dhal, Lathyrussativus, J. Sci. Food Agric 1996;71:50±58.
- 72. Steyn DG. Lathyrussativus L. (chickling vetch khesari Indian pea) as a stock food. Onderstepoort J. Vet. Sci 1933;1:163±171.
- 73. Stockman R. The poisonous principle of Lathyrus and some other leguminous seeds. J. Hyg 1932;31:550±562.
- 74. Spencer PS, Ludolph A, Dwivedi MP, Roy DN, Hugon J, Schaumburg HH, *et al.* Lathyrism: evidence for role of the neuroexcitary amino acid BOAA. Lancet 1986;2:1066±1067.
- Shobhana S, Sangawan PS, Nainwatee HS, Lal BM. Chemical composition of some improved varieties of pulses. J. Food Sci. Technol 1976;13:49±51.
- 76. Shourie KL. An outbreak of lathyrism in central India. Indian J. Med. Res 1945;33:239±247.
- 77. TekleHaimanot R, Abegaz BM, Wuhib E, Kassina A, Kidane Y, Kebede N, *et al.* Pattern of Lathyrussativus (grass pea) consumption and beta-N-oxalyl-a,b-diaminopropionic acid (bODAP) content of food samples in the lathyrism endemic region of northwest Ethiopia. Nutr. Res 1993;13:1113±1126
- 78. Tay J, Valenzuela A, Venegas F. Collecting and evaluating Chilean germplasm of grasspea (*Lathyrus sativus* L.). FABIS Newsletter, in press 2000.
- Trabaud J, Mouha Èrram. Le lathyrismesyrieestdu au Lathyrussativus. Lathyrisyriensetlibanals. Rev. Med. Franc Ëaise 1932;13:449±450.
- Urga K, Fite A, Kebede B. Nutritional and antinutritional factors of grass pea (Lathyrussativus) germplasms. Bull. Chem. Soc. Ethiop 1995;9:9±16.
- Wadhwan VM. Toxicants in Feed stuffs: Impact on health. Recent Advances in Animal Nutrition Edited by M.P.S. Bakshi and M. Wadhwa. SSPH, New Delhi 2014, 231-241.
- 82. Wang X, Warkentin TD, Briggs CJ, Oomah BD, Campbell CG, Woods S, *et al.* Total phenolics and condensed tannins in **Beld pea** (*Possums sativum* L.) and

grass pea (*Lathyrussativus* L.). Euphytica 1998;101:97 \pm 102.

 Yadav VK, Santha IM, Timko MP, Mehta SL. Metabolism of the Lathyrussativus L. neurotoxin, bNoxalyl-L-a,b-diaminopropionic acid, by a pure culture of a soil-borne microbe. J Plant Biochem. Biotechnol 1992;1:87±92.