

Tannin containing legumes as a model for nutraceuticals against digestive parasites in livestock

Article

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Abstract: Parasitic infections with gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) still represent a worldwide major pathological threat associated with the outdoor production of various livestock species. Because of the widespread resistance to synthetic chemical anthelmintics, there is a strong impetus to explore novel approaches for a more integrated management of the infections. The use of nutraceuticals in the control of GINs is one of the alternatives which has been widely studied for 20 years. The objective of this review are: i) to define and illustrate the concept of 'nutraceutical' in the context of veterinary parasitology based on data obtained on the most studied GIN models in small ruminants, the tannin-containing legumes (Fabaceae); ii) to illustrate how the 'nutraceutical concept' could be expanded to other plants, other livestock production systems and other GI parasitic diseases, and iii) to explain how this concept is opening up new research fields for better understanding the interactions between the host, the digestive parasites and the environment

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Toulouse, the 08th June 2015.

Dear colleague,

Please find enclosed a revised version of the article "*Tannin containing legumes as a model for nutraceuticals against digestive parasites in livestock*" by Hoste H and collaborators which is submitted for publication to Veterinary Parasitology. This review was invited for the Special Issue in preparation for the next WAAVP 2015 meeting in Liverpool.

By comparison to the first version, main changes have been made on i) the main text li) the figure 3 and its caption and iii) 10 references have been added to address some of the referees' comments.

We wish to thank the 2 referees for their inputs and we hope to have addressed their comments. In particular, we have paid special attention to the definition of nutraceutical in the section 2 in order to take into account the comments of the 2 referees

This revised manuscript has been approved by all co-authors.

We are looking forward to receiving your comments

Yours sincerely

Hervé HOSTE

Reviewer #1: This review manuscript is very well written and very thorough on the experimental approach to determine the nutraceutical effect of plants, specifically condensed tannin (CT) containing plants, on small ruminant gastrointestinal nematode (GIN) infections. It is so thorough that it could be condensed, as there is much repetitive information throughout. It would be very useful information in a textbook for veterinary students studying parasitology or animal science students studying production issues. In some instances though, the literature could have been more thoroughly researched rather than only including the authors work. An example of this can be found in Lines 180-184 and L346-348. Some papers that were missed in this discussion include those from Utah State University (even though this is not a tropical area, they do use irrigation and might consider this a model for self-medication - Villalba and Provenza, 2007; Villalba et al., 2010, 2012; Lisonbee et al., 2009; and also, Hutchings et al., 2003 to name another). Minor comments appear below.

The different references mentioned by the referee (and some others) have been now added in the section 5.3 dedicated to the subject of self medication

L80-82: I found this sentence, almost word for word on Wikipedia. I was curious because research and patent regulation concerning nutraceuticals occurred before 1998. See DeFelice, 1995 (Trends in Food Sci. Tech.) or Linko and Hayakawa, 1996 (same journal), or Mee, 1994, Hunt, 1994 concerning regulatory issues.

Because of the comments of the 2 referees, we tried to better defined and clarify in the section 2 the definition of the concept of nutraceuticals in medical and vet sciences and to make clear that we will focus on one subcategory of nutraceuticals, namely those based on PSM containing resources either when directly present or when added to animal feed.

This will be found in section 2 of the current Revised Manuscript (REVMAN)

Text throughout: There seems to be missing "t", "l" and "f" typically in either bold or italicized text throughout on my pdf copy. **We have checked these errors throughout the Revised Manuscript (REVMAN)**

L199-204: On the other hand, is it worth noting that non-native species are considered invasive by environmentalists and ecologists? **The comment has been included in section 3.1.2. of the REVMAN (see line 212-213)**

L390: (e.g., packed cell volume): **This has been added (line 462 in the revised manuscript)**

L386-401: Should effects on toxicology be considered at some point in the experimental protocol?

As stated in the title of section 3.2, we intend and decided to focus only on the efficacy issue

L438, 617: Should non-peer reviewed papers be cited in review articles?

For the references 50 (Klongsiriwet, C., et al 2015) and the reference 85 (Quijada et al. 2015) in the Revised Manuscript = We have now replaced the previous reference to a summary for a conference by a reference to an accepted or submitted article.

For the references 19 (Castañeda-Ramírez, G.S et al. 2014); ref 22 (Covarrubias-Cárdenas, A.G. et al 2013); ref 23 (Desrues et al 2012); ref 30: (Girard et al, 2013), and ref 104 (Vargas-Magaña, J.J. et al, 2014), we will respect the editorial rules and advices of the editor

L450: Not just iso-proteic, but also similar in bypass protein as well. **We agree with the referee that this should be a task. However, it is difficult to assess the amount of increased by-pass proteins because of the presence of CT. We could only say that CT could alter (increase) the quantity of by-pass proteins in the diets (see section 4.1.1. (line 522) and section 4.1.2 (lines 534), in the RevMan).**

L452-459: Already been alluded to in previous paragraph.

L596: "...based on nutritional..." **CORRECTED**

L633: sporulation. **CORRECTED**

L647-648: Burke et al., 2013 fed before and at weaning. **Has been added on line 744 in the Revised Manuscript**

L661: spp. **CORRECTED (line 671)**

L666: However and ,L666-667: Is there something missing after this sentence? **We think to have clarified this sentence now (line 731 to 739 in the Revised Manuscript)**

L668-688: Does not fit the objective of the paper. **The referee is right; however, we wished to illustrate in this section 5.2 that the concept of nutraceutical can be applied to other plant families in relation with other PSM (see the title of section 5.2) (line 726 in the revised manuscript)**

References: Some are not formatted correctly and contain misspellings. **We had checked thoroughly the references and have corrected several errors.**

Figures 2, 3: Why is the male worm depicted as being larger than the female? **The referee is right**

This has been corrected now in the REVMAN

Reviewer #2: General comments are as follows:

This is an interesting review, which summarises a complicated area and makes many valid points. However, it seeks to redefine bioactive forages as nutraceuticals, and in doing so it becomes confusing. The authors defines all nutraceuticals as plant based products containing PSM, and the rest of the paper follows from th is inaccurate assumption. It is broadly accepted that a nutraceutical is a food product or a product derived from food (e.g. vitamins and minerals) which is added to the diet and is perceived to have added health benefits. Usually the beneficial compounds in nutraceuticals do not have pharmacological action against pathogens, rather they help improve host health. Hence bioactive forages presented in this context simply does not work for me. Another broad issue with the review, is that it gives few facts and figures regarding the efficacy of these 'nutraceuticals' and hence leaves you with little sense of how efficacious these plants actually are. To be of interest to a wider audience I would suggest adding in some basic information regarding CT containing forages and their efficacy. For these reasons I suggest moderate revision before acceptance. I suggest that either the definition of nutraceutical is changed, and it is acknowledged that bioactive forages are a very specific type of nutraceutical, or the term nutraceutical is removed altogether.

WE TRIED TO MAKE CLEAR in the TITLE AND in the SECTION 2, THAT IN THIS REVIEW WE WERE FOCUSSED ON BIOACTIVE PLANTS USED AS NUTRACEUTICALS

IN ADDITION, TO ADDRESS ONE OF THE REFEREE, ONE CAN EXPECT THAT ANY EFFECT AGAINST PATHOGENS WILL HELP AT IMPROVING ANIMAL HEALTH

Specific points are as follows:

Line 25 - 'nutraceuticals', should be plural

NOW CORRECTED

Line 26 - 'alternatives', should be plural

NOW CORRECTED

Line 26 - suggest change 'since 20 years' to 'for 20 years' better grammar

NOW CORRECTED

Line 27 - 'objectives', should be plural

NOW CORRECTED

Line 62-63 - This sentence is unclear, consider re-phrase.

THIS HAS BEEN REPHRASED

Line 72-73 - Not sure this sentence quite makes sense - it infers the fabaceae are a GIN model. Suggest rephrase.

THE SENTENCE HAS BEEN MODIFIED

Line 80-92 - I think that the definition of a veterinary nutraceutical here is too narrow. Nutraceuticals are not all bioactive plants with PSMs. Some are derived from other biological materials e.g. glucosamine from shellfish. More accurately bioactive forages are a sub-category of nutraceuticals.

WE HAVE TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT THE REFEREE'S COMMENT AND INCLUDED IT IN THE TEXT (LINE 91-92 in the REVISED MANUSCRIPT)

Line 98-110 - Following on from the point above, referring to bioactive forage as 'nutraceuticals' could be construed as inaccurate

WE HAVE ALSO ADDED SOME PRECISION IN THE TEXT TO CLARIFY THE FACT THAT WE ARE FOCUSSED ON BIOACTIVE FORAGES AS A SUB CATEGORY OF NUTRACEUTICALS

Line 149 - What is IVDMD?

EXPLANATIONS ARE NOW PROVIDED

Line 152 - I'm not sure this is strictly true. Many nutraceuticals are added to animals feeds in specific amounts and their intake is not voluntary. E.g. joint supplements, vitamins and fatty acids

WE HAVE NOW MADE CLEAR THAT THE FOCUS WAS ON BIOACTIVE PLANTS (SEE LINE 91/92 AND 118). IN ADDITION, EVEN IN THE CASE EVOKED BY THE REFEREE, THE EFFECTS WILL DEPEND ON THE CONSUMPTION OF THE FEED BY THE ANIMALS

Line 159 - Please define acronyms (DM, OM) the first time you use them.

THIS HAS BEEN CORRECTED

Line 197-198 - This sentence is unclear - consider rephrase

WE THINK THAT THE SENTENCE IS CLEAR

Line 215 -216 - 'By the overall, logical scheme/organisation and the objectives of each step, the procedure has been adapted...' I am not sure what this means? Please rephrase more clearly

THE SENTENCE HAS BEEN MODIFIED IN ORDER TO CLARIFY THE MEANING

Line 227 - '(see point 4)' it is unclear as to what this is referring to as there are so many points and sub-points in this review

THIS HAS BEEN SUPPRESSED NOW TO AVOID ANY CONFUSION

Line 245-253 - Other studies are referred to but there are no references

REFERENCES HAVE BEEN ADDED

Line 252-253 - This sentence is unclear, do you mean CTs? or Nutraceutical plants?

WE CAN NOT ADDRESS THIS POINT BECAUSE in the SUBMITTED MANUSCRIPT, WE DID NOT FIND REFERENCE NEITHER TO CT NOR TO NUTRACEUTICAL ON LINE 252-253

Line 256-268 - This section needs more references

A REFERENCE HAS BEEN ADDED

Line 268 - Could you discuss further which tests are likely to be most biologically relevant for GINs and why?

AS SPECIFIED IN THE FIRST VERSION (LINE 226 to 228, NOW LINE 259 to 261 in the REVISED MANUSCRIPT) WE HAVE INDICATED THAT *"Since the mode of action of tannin-containing nutraceuticals differs from synthetic chemical AHs, it may be of interest to examine the effects of the same plant extract on different key stages of the GIN life cycle (egg, infective larvae, adult worms)"*

Line 270-279 - In light of this statement, what extraction technique would you recommend and why?

WHAT WE WANT TO ILLUSTRATE WITH THIS SECTION IS THE STATEMENT THAT THE EXTRACTION PROCEDURE IS IMPORTANT TO ADAPT DEPENDING ON THE TYPE OF PSM SUSPECTED AND IN FACT, THAT THERE IS NO "BEST" EXTRACTION TECHNIQUE.

HOWEVER, IT HAS BEEN SPECIFIED (LINE 282-283 in the REVISED MANUSCRIPT) THAT ACETONE:WATER IS THE MOST EFFICIENT SOLVENT FOR TANNINS

Line 282-292 - This section could be more concise. Are there any references to support these observations?

WE THINK THAT THE DIFFERENT POINTS MENTIONED IN THIS SECTION ARE IMPORTANT TO UNDERLINE WHY IT IS DIFFICULT TO INFER *IN VIVO* CONDITIONS FROM THE DATA OBTAINED FROM *IN VITRO* ASSAYS

Line 295-296 - 'In that case, such an approach would not be that of a nutraceutical material' - this sentence requires rephrasing, as it suggests that the nutraceutical material is taking an approach - rather than the scientist.

THE SENTENCE HAS BEEN REPHRASED (LINE 351-356 in the REVISED MANUSCRIPT)

Line 299-300 - Again, not sure about the definition of nutraceutical here - it is generally accepted that dietary supplements containing concentrated compounds from natural sources are also considered to be nutraceuticals - e.g. vitamins, concentrated herbal supplements, glucosamine

Line 315 - The same point as above

FOR THESE 2 LAST POINTS, See COMMENTS MADE TO THE REFEREE FOR LINE 152

Line 403-410 - Not particularly keen on being referred to other studies for this information, could the authors give a brief summary seeing as this is a review?

WE THINK THAT WE HAVEN GIVEN A SUMMARY OF THE MAIN RESULTS ON THE ANTHELMINTIC EFFECTS IN THE REST OF SECTION 4

Line 440-448 - Could the apparent host resilience be a direct result of the effect of CTs on infection intensity?

THE HYPOTHESIS HAS NOW BEEN MENTIONED

Line 457-459 - Is there any evidence for hypothesis no.2 ?

A SECTION WITH REFERENCES HAVE NOW BEEN ADDED (line 368-375) in the REVISED VERSION

Line 545 - 'a considerable amount of results has been' suggest reword to 'a considerable amount of data has been'

CORRECTED

Line 545-549 - Could the authors give an indication of the in vivo efficacy found in the studies referred to here?

SOME VALUES (and CORRESPONDING REFERENCES) HAVE BEEN ADDED IN THE LEGEND OF FIGURE 3

Lines 551-559 - Does this not contradict what was said in lines 293-306? i.e. of you concentrate the active compound and add it to the feed it is a plant extract - not a nutraceutical. N.B. I do not agree with this point anyway - but there is some inconsistency here

AGAIN WE HOPE TO HAVE BETTER DEFINE THE CONCEPT OF NUTRACEUTICALS THAT WE TRIED TO ILLUSTRATE IN THIS REVIEW

THE FACT THAT WE WILL CONSIDER THE POSSIBLE ADDITION OF CONCENTRATED FORM WA PREVIOUSLY MENTIONED AND IS NOW INDICATED CLEARLY IN THE REVISED MANUSCRIPT ON LINE 95-96; see ALSO TABLE 1.

Lines 570-579 - The wine analogy is not necessary to make this point, suggest omit this paragraph

THIS SECTION HAS NOW BEEN SUPPRESSED

Line 608 - suggest use 'areas' instead of 'axes' CORRECTED

Line 609 - Grammar - suggest 'targets for' instead of 'targets with' CORRECTED

Line 624- 625 - are not medicinal plants also technically nutraceuticals?

THE TERM “MEDICINAL PLANTS” HAS BEEN REPLACED BY “HERBAL REMEDIES” AND REFERENCE MADE TO TABLE 1 WHERE THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HERBAL DRUGS AND NUTRACEUTICALS ARE EXPLAINED

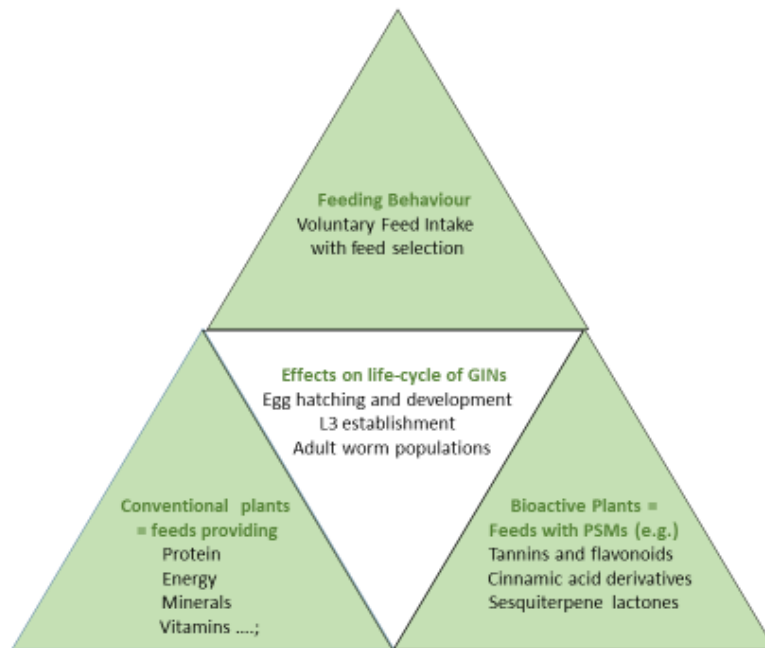
Line 633 - spelling – sporulation CORRECTED

Lines 691-698 - Self-medication is mentioned a couple of times in this review, it is an interesting concept, could the authors briefly summarise the evidence for this taking place with plants containing CTs, even though there has been a recent review?

ACCORDING TO THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE FIRST REFEREE, WE HAVE NOW COMPLETED THIS SECTION 5.3 ON SELF MEDICATION WITH SEVERAL REFERENCES WHICH ILLUSTRATE THE DIFFERENT POINTS EVOKED. IN ADDITION, TWO REVIEWS ON THE SUBJECT ARE MENTIONNED NOW WHERE THE READERS WILL FIND DETAILED INFORMATION. WE THINK THAT DEVELOPMENTS ON THE SELF MEDICATION IS NOT DIRECTLY RELEVANT TO THE OBJECTIVE OF THIS REVIEW.

Line 728 - spelling 'phytochemistry' CORRECTED

TANNIN CONTAINING LEGUMES AS A MODEL FOR NUTRACEUTICALS AGAINST DIGESTIVE PARASITES IN LIVESTOCK



A proposed model of the components defining the concept of nutraceuticals against gastrointestinal parasites in livestock

1 **TANNIN CONTAINING LEGUMES AS A MODEL FOR NUTRACEUTICALS AGAINST DIGESTIVE**
2 **PARASITES IN LIVESTOCK**

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20

21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Parasitic infections with gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) still represent a worldwide major
23 pathological threat associated with the outdoor production of various livestock species. Because of
24 the widespread resistance to synthetic chemical anthelmintics, there is a strong impetus to explore
25 novel approaches for a more integrated management of the infections. The use of nutraceuticals in
26 the control of GINs is one of the alternatives which has been widely studied for since-20 years.
27 The objectives of this review are: i) to define and illustrate the concept of 'nutraceutical' in the
28 context of veterinary parasitology based on data obtained on the most studied GIN models in small
29 ruminants, the tannin-containing legumes (Fabaceae); ii) to illustrate how the 'nutraceutical concept'
30 could be expanded to other plants, other livestock production systems and other GI parasitic
31 diseases, and iii) to explain how this concept is opening up new research fields for better
32 understanding the interactions between the host, the digestive parasites and the environment.

33

34 **KEY WORDS:** Nutraceuticals / Condensed tannins/ Polyphenols / Gastrointestinal nematodes /
35 Antiparasitic effects / Small ruminants.

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43 **1. INTRODUCTION**

44 Parasitic infections with gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) represent a worldwide major pathological
45 threat associated with the outdoor production of various livestock species, particularly ruminants. Up
46 to now, the control of these parasitic helminth diseases has essentially relied on the repeated use of
47 commercial anthelmintic (AH) drugs. However, resistance to these AH drugs is now widespread in
48 worm populations, and the occurrence of multi-resistant strains has become a serious problem in
49 some regions of the world (Kaplan, 2004; Torres-Acosta et al., 2012, Jackson et al., 2012). Moreover,
50 as underscored by Waller (2006), resistance to xenobiotics develops quite rapidly and usually within
51 10 years. This has been illustrated since the recent launch of monepantel (Kaminsky et al., 2008),
52 which is a drug belonging to the Amino Acetonitrile Derivatives (AADs). In spite of the novel mode of
53 action, reports of monepantel resistant *Haemonchus contortus* have already appeared only seven
54 years after the launch of this new drug (Van-den-Brom et al., 2015).

55
56 Therefore, modern parasite management involves an alternative approach seeking to achieve an
57 integrated and more sustainable control of parasite infections by combining the 3 main principles for
58 GIN control, namely **i)** management of grazing systems; **ii)** stimulation of host response and **iii)**
59 modulation of worm biology (Hoste and Torres-Acosta, 2011). This also explains the strong impetus
60 worldwide for exploring and adapting alternative options to different conditions. Among these novel
61 approaches, the long tradition of using bioactive plants for their anti-parasitic properties has been re-
62 explored. ~~It is now and considered identified~~ as one option for improving GIN control, and
63 therefore, to counteract the negative pathophysiological consequences in hosts (Rochfort et al.,
64 2008). Plants are widely used as phytotherapeutic drugs or herbal remedies, and their administration
65 is based on a long tradition of ethno-veterinary or ethno-medicinal applications on all continents
66 (Hammond et al., 1997; Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012). However, over the last 20 years, a novel,
67 **overall** concept of nutraceutical plants **(plants combining positive effects for both animal nutrition**

68 **and health**) has emerged in veterinary science and helminthology for improved controlling livestock
69 parasites (Waller and Thamsborg, 2004; Hoste et al., 2006; Alonso-Diaz et al., 2010b).

70

71 The aim of this review is

72 **1/ to ~~illustrate~~ define** the concept of ‘nutraceutical’ based on resources containing Plant Secondary
73 Metabolites (PSMs) in the context of veterinary parasitology. We will mainly refer to the tannin-
74 containing legumes (Fabaceae) and other plants, which is ~~one of~~ by evaluating the most studied
75 ~~GIN~~ models to control GIN in of small ruminants, ~~i.e. the tannin-containing legumes (Fabaceae) and~~
76 ~~other plants.~~

77 **2/ to ~~show~~ illustrate** how the ‘nutraceutical concept’ could be expanded to other plants, other
78 livestock production systems and other parasitic diseases of the digestive tract.

79 **3/ to explain** how this concept is opening up new research fields for probing the interactions
80 between the host, the parasites of the digestive system, and the environment.

81

82 **2. DEFINITION OF NUTRACEUTICALS**

83 The term “nutraceutical” results from a portmanteau between the words “nutrition” and
84 “pharmaceutical”. ~~It and~~ has sometimes also been described as “functional food”, which was first
85 coined in the context of medical health (Hasler, 1998). ~~Nutraceuticals are nutritional products that~~
86 ~~provide health and medicinal benefits.~~ According to Andlauer and Fürst (2002), a nutraceutical is
87 defined as “any substance that may be considered a food or part of a food which provides health
88 benefits, including the prevention and treatment of disease”. In a similar way, a nutraceutical in
89 veterinary science can be defined as a livestock feed which combines nutritional value with beneficial
90 effects on animal health. In contrast to pharmaceutical drugs, nutraceuticals are not synthetic
91 compounds formulated for specific indications. ~~Instead,~~
92 Here, we will focus on a sub-category of nutraceuticals, i.e. they are plant-based products that
93 contain nutrients and bioactive compounds that can be used **either directly** as part of the

94 ~~animal~~ plant diet or **added in a concentrated form** to another diet after extraction from the bioactive
95 ~~plant~~ or resource. ~~Simply put, a nutraceutical in veterinary science can be defined as a livestock feed~~
96 ~~which combines nutritional value with beneficial effects on animal health~~. This double action is
97 ~~suspected to rely~~ based on the presence of various plant secondary metabolites (PSM) or bioactive
98 compounds.

99 Although the nutraceutical concept sounds simple, it is important to recognise that there are several
100 key differences compared to synthetic AH and phytotherapeutic drugs (Table 1). This makes studying
101 their efficacy a rather complex task. The key points and differences between nutraceuticals and the
102 other options for interfering with the parasite life cycle will be discussed below.

103

104 **1/Nutrition:** Compared to herbal drugs (phytotherapeutic remedies) or synthetic chemicals, a
105 nutraceutical based on bio active plants is not imposed, but offered to animals over a relatively long
106 period (from several days to weeks or months). Therefore, the efficacy of this sort of a nutraceuticals
107 will directly depend on the Voluntary Feed Intake (VFI) of the animal. ~~The interaction between PSM~~
108 ~~ingested from different plants needs also be considered when nutraceutical feeds are supplemented,~~
109 ~~especially when animals are freely grazing/browsing on natural pastures or woodlands.~~

110 **2/ Nature of the bioactive compounds (PSM):** The bioactivity against the parasites is dependent on
111 the presence of natural chemical compounds in plants, which are usually described as Plant
112 Secondary Compounds (PSM). The concentrations of these compounds can be highly variable and
113 may depend on environmental growing conditions, on the plant cultivar, or chemotype. In addition,
114 technological factors (harvesting, processing methods) can also interfere with the preservation of the
115 active compounds.

116 **3/ Effect on animal health:** The effects of nutraceutical feeds and of the associated bioactive
117 compounds against parasitic nematodes differ from the mode of action of synthetic chemicals (see
118 figure 3). This statement implies to develop specific methodologies of measurements of the AH
119 effects.

120

121 **3. TANNIN CONTAINING LEGUMES WITH ANTHELMINTIC PROPERTIES AGAINST GINS IN SHEEP**

122 **AND GOATS: THE MOST STUDIED MODEL OF NUTRACEUTICALS IN VETERINARY PARASITOLOGY.**

123 It is only recently (in the last 20 years) that researchers have obtained enough evidence that supports
124 the use of plants as nutraceutical feeds against GIN. The first evidence originated from research in
125 New Zealand based on empirical results that reported significant reduction of GIN faecal egg counts
126 in sheep when grazing pastures with different legumes, i.e. birdsfoot trefoil and big trefoil (*Lotus*
127 *corniculatus*, *L. pedunculatus*), sulla (*Hedysarum coronarium*) and sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciifolia*),
128 which contain condensed tannins (CTs) (Niezen et al., 1995, 1998, 2002). The information generated
129 by these early field trials started the search for new legumes (Fabaceae) and for other plant
130 candidates elsewhere in the world against GINs in small ruminants. This has become the subject of
131 extensive studies and still represents an important model aiming to explore the concept of using
132 nutraceutical plants against other parasites, with other hosts, and to identify other botanical families
133 with nutraceutical properties (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012).

134 These studies on tannin-containing legumes have led to:

- 135 **1/** the development of several important methodological procedures that are based on *in vitro* and *in*
136 *vivo* methods to evaluate plants as potential nutraceuticals;
137 **2/** a better definition of the difference in effects between nutraceuticals, phytotherapeutic drugs,
138 and synthetic AH chemicals.

139 **3.1. Identification/selection of future potential candidates of nutraceuticals against GINs.**

140 As illustrated in Figure 1, the effects of a nutraceutical against GIN depend on complex interactions.
141 Hence, the selection of a plant candidate as a potential nutraceutical requires good knowledge and
142 interaction between different scientific disciplines, namely livestock nutrition and production,
143 phytochemistry, parasitology, and to some extent, ethology and toxicology. However, the presence
144 of bioactive PSM is a key issue.

145 Identifying viable nutraceutical candidates against parasites is a complex task, and the following
146 steps need to be considered in the selection of nutraceutical materials. This procedure is intended to
147 help in identifying candidate plant materials that can subsequently be explored under *in vivo*
148 conditions.

149 3.1.1 Nutritional issues.

150 Even before the plant materials are tested *in vitro* or *in vivo* for AH activity, information should be
151 gathered (or evaluated) in terms of nutritional value and palatability for the hosts. This information
152 should include:

153 **aA)** *A good macronutrient profile.*

154 Ideally, the feed should have medium to high levels of protein or energy and low lignin. However, not
155 all plants with tannins may have an optimal “nutritional” profile. Therefore, initial selection of such
156 plants should not be based solely on their macronutrient profile, especially if such plants are selected
157 by ruminants during grazing/browsing. The nutritional quality of the plant material that is intended
158 for nutraceutical use should include the determination of its In Vitro Dry Matter Digestibility
159 (IVDMD). This information can help to identify if the plant material could be useful under *in*
160 *vivo* conditions.

161 **bB)** *A feed readily consumed by the animal host.*

162 Since the general definition of a nutraceutical is linked to VFI by animals, this
163 key issue needs to be first considered and then measured during *in vivo* assays. Short intake or
164 preference trials should be carried out before engaging with *in vivo* evaluation of the plant. If the
165 plant is not eaten, it might still be useful in other ways, as PSM could be extracted and then dosed
166 (Phytotherapy).

167 **cC)** *An acceptable in vivo apparent digestibility.*

168 Any plant material that will be used in large quantities or during long periods of time will require an
169 evaluation of its impact on the apparent *in vivo* digestibility, including at least measurements of the
170 dry matter (DM) and the organic matter (OM)-measurements. These data may help to ensure that
171 the nutraceutical material will not cause a severe digestibility reduction.

172 ***dd)*** *Little or no negative known impact on animal production.*

173 Before selecting a nutraceutical plant for AH effects, it is important to collect information on the
174 possible negative impact on production (i.e. growth, milk production, reproduction) or even clinical
175 signs (e.g. abortions or foetus deformities, such as arthrogryposis due to phytoestrogens) or
176 photosensitisation. In such cases, the plant material should not be considered as a viable
177 nutraceutical.

178 3.1.2 PSM issues

179 Since the early results in NZ, several tannin containing legumes (Fabaceae) have been subjected to a
180 wide range of studies as potential nutraceuticals. The focus on these species was not based on prior
181 ethno-botanic information about the action against signs of GIN parasitism (i.e. diarrhoea), or de-
182 wormers used for humans, as in both cases the information could be inadequate for ruminant
183 species (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012).

184 In contrast, they were mainly supported by knowledge and principles of pharmacognosy, based on
185 the assumption that the presence of similar PSMs in the same botanical families (Fabaceae) should
186 achieve similar antiparasitic effects. However, a few results have shown that some plant candidates,
187 which were retained because of the presence of CTs, also corresponded to plants that had been
188 identified based on ethnoveterinary knowledge. This double-sided approach can be of particular
189 interest in many tropical countries.

190 A possible third approach could be based on detailed observational studies to identify plant
191 selection (González-Pech et al, 2014), feeding behaviour, resource selection and possibly self-
192 medication under grazing or browsing conditions. However, such studies are laborious and few exist

193 from tropical regions, where there is a large plant diversity (Novelo-Chi et al, 2014, Retama-Flores et
194 al, 2010 and Ventura-Cordero et al, 2014a, 2014b).

195

196 The Fabaceae family is one of the richest botanical families in terms of species numbers (nearly
197 20,000) and tannin-containing legume and plant resources occur worldwide, just like GINs, and,
198 therefore, the search for possible nutraceuticals has included temperate and tropical tannin-
199 containing plants. These include herbaceous plants, trees, and shrubs, which are perennials or
200 annuals, and which are used by small ruminants in a wide range of feeding systems.

201 In temperate areas, two legume species of the sub family Faboideae, have received special attention
202 and have been the focus of a number of studies. These are, namely sainfoin (*Onobrychis*
203 *viciifoliae*) in Europe (Paolini et al., 2003a, 2005b; Heckendorn et al., 2006, 2007; Manolaraki et al.,
204 2010; <http://sainfoin.eu>; www.legumeplus.eu) and Chinese bush clover or sericea lespedeza
205 (*Lespedeza cuneata*) in the USA and South Africa (Shaik et al., 2006; Joshi et al., 2011; Kommuru et
206 al., 2014; Terrill et al., 2009; 2012 <http://www.acsrpc.org/>). This special attention on these two
207 herbaceous plants is explained by their ability to produce seeds, to be grown (cultivated) efficiently,
208 and to organise their production for farm application on a large scale (see below).

209 It is worth underscoring that this scientific interest is also explained by their other beneficial effects
210 in regards to nutrition and health of ruminants and environmental issues (see reviews by Rochfort et
211 al., 2008, Waghorn, 2008, Mueller Harvey, 2006): i) a reduced use of chemical fertilisers because of
212 biological nitrogen fixation; ii) high palatability for ruminants and feeding values; iii) positive effects
213 to reduce ruminal methane emission and GHG; iv) anti bloat effects; v) switch of nitrogen excretion
214 from urine to faeces. In contrast, it is also worth noting that some non-native species exploited for
215 these properties are considered invasive by environmentalists and ecologists

216 In tropical areas in Africa and Latin America, several genera (shrubs or trees) of the Fabaceae family
217 have been particularly under focus and identified as possible nutraceuticals because of *in vitro* results

218 or *in vivo* reductions in egg excretion; e.g. *Leucaena leucocephala* (Ademola et al., 2006), *Lysiloma*
219 *latisiliquum* (Matínez-Ortíz de Montellano et al., 2010), *Havardia albicans* (Galicía-Aguilar et al., 2012;
220 Méndez-Ortíz et al., 2012), or different *Acacia* species: *Acacia pennatula*, *A. molissima*, *A. karroo*, *A.*
221 *mearnsii*, *Mimosa tenuiflora* (Kahiya et al., 2003; Alonso Diaz et al., 2008a; Minho et al., 2008; Cenci
222 et al., 2007; Oliveira et al., 2013, Murare et al., 2012).

223 3.2 A methodological procedure to confirm the antiparasitic effects.

224 A methodological procedure has progressively emerged from scientific results from different studies
225 to validate the possible efficiency of a wide range of tannin-containing plants as nutraceuticals
226 against GINs. By ~~its~~ overall, logical scheme ~~/organisation and-~~ by the objectives defined for ~~of~~ each
227 step, the procedure has been widely adapted from the WAAVP guidelines to examine the efficiency
228 of synthetic AHs (Wood et al., 1995).

229 The three successive steps are **1/** the *in vitro* screening of plant extracts based on a wide range of
230 assays (Figure 2); **2/** controlled *in vivo* studies on experimentally infected animals to confirm the
231 efficiency of the selected plant candidates; **3/** holistic studies to examine how and when to apply the
232 nutraceuticals in breeding/feeding systems for small ruminants.

233 However, because of the complexity and intrinsic variability of nutraceuticals, which are based on
234 naturally occurring chemicals rather than synthetic anthelmintics (see Table 1, Quality of the
235 compounds and mode of administration), this scheme requires adaptations and critical comments to
236 interpret the results.

237 Since the mode of action of tannin-containing nutraceuticals differs from synthetic chemical AHs,
238 ~~(see point 4)~~ it may be of interest to examine the effects of the same plant extract on different key
239 stages of the GIN life cycle (egg, infective larvae, adult worms) (Figure 2).

240 3.2.1 *The in vitro* screening of plant extracts.

241 Most *in vitro* assays for the primary screening of plant products have been adapted from those
242 developed to assess the efficacy of synthetic AHs against GINs in ruminants (Wood et al., 1995). One
243 exception is the Larval Exsheathment Inhibition Assay, which has been set up specifically (Bahuaud et
244 al., 2006) to reproduce artificially, under *in vitro* conditions, disturbances related to the
245 establishment of infective larvae as measured *in vivo* in sainfoin-fed sheep (Brunet et al., 2007). The
246 detailed methodologies of these different assays, when adapted to plant materials, can be found in
247 Jackson and Hoste (2010). In addition, it is worth mentioning that the model represented by the free
248 living nematode, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, is also increasingly being exploited to screen the AH
249 properties of different plant resources (Katiki et al., 2012, 2013).

250 It is important to emphasise that these different *in vitro* assays, first used to screen potential
251 nutraceutical candidates, have also been exploited for a second main objective: to better understand
252 the mode of action of PSM compounds against GINs. This has been achieved **i)** by applying either
253 isolated and purified tannins, which were selected because of their -different structural features
254 ([Molan et al., 2004](#), [Novobilsky et al., 2013](#), [Quijada et al., 2015](#)), or pure flavonoid compounds
255 ([Molan et al., 2003a](#); [Brunet and Hoste, 2006](#)), and **ii)** by performing detailed studies of the functional
256 and structural changes induced in nematodes ([Hoste et al., 2012](#)). This allowed testing of the “direct”
257 hypothesis (see section 4.1).

258 Most research groups started screening the AH activity of different plant materials under *in vitro*
259 conditions. In most cases, the screening process was developed with plants that had been extracted
260 with different solvents. When tannins are suspected as the main bioactive compounds, extraction
261 with acetone/water (70:30) is the most common and efficient solvent in regard of the yield of
262 extraction. We note that several studies reported drying plant materials at high temperatures and
263 that this may have reduced their AH activity. It is highly recommended that all plant samples should
264 either be freeze-dried or dried below 40 °C in order to preserve polyphenols and tannins, as these
265 are easily oxidised at higher temperatures.

266 In addition, because of the intrinsic variability of the active compounds and/or mode of actions
267 against GINs, many misunderstandings need to be clarified:

268 **a)** *If a plant extract shows an AH effect against a given life stage, it will also show a clear AH effect*
269 *against other life stages of the same parasite, at roughly the same concentrations.*

270 This is not the case. If the same extract from a single plant material is applied to different life stages
271 of a nematodeparasite species under the respective *in vitro* conditions, the AH effect may differ
272 between different life stages (Paolini et al, 2004). For instance, a plant extract may show a clear AH
273 effect against *H. contortus* on a given life stage (i.e. L₃ larvae) and show a mild or no AH effect against
274 another stage (i.e. eggs). Furthermore, the AH effect may only be evident on a certain aspect of the
275 same life stage, such as inhibition of the L₃ exsheathment process, but have no clear effect on
276 another aspect, such as the motility of the same L₃ larvae (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2011). This differential
277 effect on different life stages of GIN has also been recorded for conventional anthelmintics, such as
278 levamisole, that show a clear effect on L₃ motility but fail to show any AH effect on the exsheathment
279 of L₃ or the eclosion of GIN eggs. The latter imply that the selection of candidates for further *in vivo*
280 tests could be judged either on the overall effective concentration (EC 50, 90 or 99%) of different *in*
281 *vitro* tests with the different life stages tested. ~~or, Aa~~ Alternatively, the candidate should be the one
282 showing the lowest EC in the most biologically relevant *in vitro* test chosen by the research group on
283 valid biological grounds, depending on the stage of interest.

284 **b)** *If the plant extract is obtained from the same plant material with a solvent of similar polarity, the*
285 *potential AH effect against GIN will be similar.*

286 This is also not the case. Different extraction procedures, even with solvents of similar polarity (i.e.
287 methanol vs. acetone:water (70:30) applied to the same plant material, will result in different PSM
288 being extracted. As a result, the extracts of the same plant material will show different AH activities
289 even when applied to the same life stage. For example, acetone-water (70:30) extracts of
290 Annonaceae leaves showed limited ovicidal activity and a clear exsheathment inhibition activity,

291 while the methanolic extraction of the same plant material showed good ovicidal activity and less
292 clear exsheathment inhibition activity (Castañeda-Ramírez et al., 2014). Thus, the extraction
293 procedure, even with solvents of similar polarity, can result in marked differences in the extracted
294 PSM.

295 *c) An in vitro screening test will help to decide on the dose or concentration of the nutraceutical*
296 *material that needs to be consumed by the infected animals in order to control GIN infections.*

297 The extrapolation of *in vitro* doses to *in vivo* conditions is more difficult to achieve for plants when
298 used against parasites dwelling in the lumen of the gastrointestinal tract. A plant extract used in vitro
299 contains a concentrated quantity of PSM from the experimental plant material. Those PSM will be
300 present in the *in vitro* assaysystem at a certain quantity and quality that may not be comparable with
301 the *in vivo* conditions, and also during a time span difficult to replicate under *in vivo* conditions.
302 Besides, under *in vivo* conditions, the digestion processes and the conditions occurring in the
303 digestive tract may affect the liberation of the PSM from the plant material. Also, the quantity or
304 structure of PSM may be affected along the digestive tract after the plant is consumed, chewed,
305 ruminated and digested by the ruminant host or gut microflora. Thus, research groups must
306 remember that *in vitro* assays can help at identifying candidates with potential AH activities, but will
307 not produce a dose level that can be used as a starting point for the *in vivo* dose level that should be
308 applied to the various hosts.

309 With the limitations mentioned above, one may think that it might be easier to find a plant extract
310 with excellent *in vitro* activity, validate its 's *in vivo* AH activity against GIN in the relevant host, and
311 then determineidentify a dose that can be used to control their GIN populations. Sn that case, such
312 an approach would not be pertinent for that of a nutraceutical plant material but can. It might be
313 considered for an herbal remedy or phytotherapeutical medicine, and, As such, this will need to be
314 tested as a drug and its efficacy validated using the relevant guidelines for efficacy against GIN
315 (Wood et al., 1995).

316 Why can these extracts not be considered as a nutraceutical? The reason is simple: if the plant
317 material is not providing macronutrients for the animal, then it is not a nutraceutical material. In
318 reality, there may be a more straightforward method for identifying plant materials with potential
319 nutraceutical effects and for investigating the dose level required to control the GIN population:
320 letting the hosts eat the plant material, while evaluating the faecal GIN egg excretion. If animals are
321 able to eat sufficient plant material in the chosen presentation and form and produce a visible AH
322 effect, then such level of ingestion (or dosage) may be suggested against parasites in the test
323 animals.

324

325 3.2. 2 Confirmation of potential nutraceutical candidates, under *in vivo* controlled conditions,
326 based on *in vitro* results.

327

328 As for the 1st step (i.e. *in vitro* screening), the *in vivo* procedures to assess the efficacy of
329 nutraceuticals against GINs are also derived from the general guidelines described for synthetic
330 chemical AHs (Wood et al., 1995). However; it is important to take into account several specificities
331 of the nutraceutical concept (see Figure 1).

332 | a) *A nutraceutical is at first a feed*

333 Therefore, it is essential to evaluate nutritional value by using conventional methodologies. The
334 information should include the macronutrient content of crude protein (CP), metabolisable energy
335 (ME), neutral detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (FDA) and lignin. This information may help
336 to identify plant materials fitting the nutritional characteristics of an edible ruminant feedstuff. The
337 information generated from conventional nutritional methodologies could be correlated with the
338 near infra-red (NIR) spectra. With time, when a large dataset of plant samples are tested, the NIR
339 spectra can be linked with nutritional quality, presence of PSM and related AH effects. This may be
340 automated with other NIR tools in the future. One key aspect of these measurements for controlled

341 *in vivo* studies is to achieve iso-proteic and iso-energetic diets in the groups of animals receiving the
342 control or the nutraceutical diets, in order to really evaluate the role of the PSM and to avoid any
343 confounding effects because of differences in the amount of macronutrients (protein, energy or their
344 balance) (Coop and Kyriazakis, 1999). However, differences in palatability may result in different
345 feeding levels when feed on offer is not controlled.

346 Alternatively, assessing the trade-off of plant selection and intake could be an alternative for when
347 iso-energetic and iso-proteic diets are not attainable. The working hypothesis should be carefully
348 stated in all cases. Nutrient balance studies are needed to contribute to the understanding of
349 parasitism and nutrient costs (for the host) and proper assessment of trade-off of nutraceutical plant
350 intake.

351 | ***b)*** *A nutraceutical should be readily consumed by the relevant host. The effects on health depend on*
352 *the animal feeding behaviour*

353 Most plants materials meant to be used for nutraceutical purposes are not normally included in the
354 diet of the relevant host. Since the general impact of nutraceuticals on animal health stems from the
355 consumption of these materials, it is important: (1) to include in the experimental design of
356 controlled *in vivo* studies a period for animal adaptation to the novel feed, lasting from 10 to 15 days,
357 until experimental animals reach a plateau of consumption; and (2) once this plateau of consumption
358 is reached, to estimate regularly the animal VFI. The evaluation can be as simple as measuring the
359 plant material offered and refused, to determine intake. Under some circumstances, the ingestion of
360 the plant material can be enhanced by means of some additives, such as sugar cane molasses. In
361 such cases, the future use of these plant materials will depend on the availability of the plant *per se*,
362 as well as the existence of the potential feed additive. This could mean an added difficulty for on-
363 farm applications. If possible, plant intake should be evaluated with both infected and non-infected
364 animals with the objective to provide information on self-medication (Martinez-Ortiz-de-Montellano
365 et al, 2010).

366 | c) *The impact of nutraceuticals against the parasite depends on the presence of PSM*

367 | It is essential to obtain a measurement of the potential bioactive PSM before implementing the *in*
368 | *vivo* controlled studies. It is also important to describe the analytical methods used. In the case of
369 | condensed tannins, which cover the core of the current review, a critical description of the different
370 | analytical methods has been reviewed previously (Mueller-Harvey, 2006). One simple
371 | recommendation, when possible, is to try to obtain two different evaluations (usually one chemical
372 | assay and one biological assay in order to estimate the ability of tannins to complex proteins)
373 | (Makkar et al., 2003).

374 | d) *The effects of tannin-containing nutraceuticals differ from synthetic AH*

375 | And this requires adapted experimental designs and measurements. Once the information to
376 | characterise the nutritional value and the PSM content of a nutraceutical have been obtained, valid
377 | *in vivo* assays in controlled conditions can be implemented. Such studies could consider animals with
378 | natural GIN infections. However, artificial infection trials are preferred that focus on the most
379 | prevalent GIN genera and species in the areas of interest.

380 | Within this general experimental context, several factors need to be explored which are specific to
381 | nutraceuticals

382 | • 1) *The multivalent effects on a range of GIN species:*

383 | -As a general recommendation, combined 2) infections with at least one species of the abomasal
384 | and one species of the small intestinal species should be encouraged. The reason for this is that i)
385 | as part of the overall objective, as for synthetic AHs, a multivalent effect can be expected from
386 | nutraceuticals and also, ii) variations in the effect of tannin-containing resources against different
387 | GIN species have been mentioned on several occasions (see Hoste et al., 2006, 2012). Of course,
388 | the choice of the GIN models should be based on epidemiological information, which needs to
389 | identify the most prevalent and pathogenic species in the regional areas.

390 • ~~2/~~ *The multivalent effects on different GIN stages:*

391 As ~~shown~~illustrated in below (section 4, Figure 3), the ~~ee~~-consequences of ~~_~~nutraceuticals and
392 related PSMs on GINs (at least for the tannin-containing legume models), result from a
393 combination of effects on 3 key stages of the GIN life cycle. Therefore, when possible, it is
394 important to design experimental studies that examine the effects on these different stages
395 (Castañeda-Ramírez et al., 2014; Vargas-Magaña et al., 2014a, 2014b).

396 • ~~3/~~ *The role of quantity and/or time period for offering tannin-containing resources in the diet*
397 *to optimise effects against GINs in small ruminants*

398 After completing initial simple experimental designs that validate the effects of tannin-containing
399 nutraceuticals against different genera and/or stages of GINs in small ruminants, some additional
400 studies are worth designing in order to help in evaluating the effect of two factors which can
401 influence the efficacy of nutraceuticals against GINs, namely the proportions of nutraceuticals and
402 the related concentration of CTs in the feed (Athanasiadou et al., 2001, Brunet et al., 2007, Terrill et
403 al., 2009) and the length of distribution.

404 • ~~4/~~ *Specificities in the evaluation of the parasitological and pathophysiological consequences*

405 During the whole evaluation period in studies based on experimental infections, animals should be
406 monitored regularly in terms of **i**) repeated parasitological measurements (faecal excretion of GIN
407 eggs), **ii**) pathophysiological measurements to establish the effects on host resilience based on
408 quantitative and/or semi-quantitative measurements of the (sub)clinical effects of infection (e.g.
409 Packed Cell Volume = PCV).

410 Because of the variations in the PSM effects, which can depend on the nematode species and/or
411 stages (see Figure 3), two experimental measurements are worth considering to complete the
412 information obtained from experimental *in vivo* studies: 1/ it is recommended that these
413 methodologies need to differentiate effects from different GIN species in case of multispecific

414 experimental infections; and 2/ whenever possible, to measure also effects on egg hatching and
415 development.

416 Ideally, the studies in controlled conditions should be complemented with post-mortem evaluations
417 of the worm populations. The latter will help to strengthen the parasitological protocol by defining if
418 the effect on GIN egg excretion is due to the reduction of GIN populations, proportions of species,
419 sex ratio, or reduction in female worm fecundity (Martinez-Ortiz de Montellano et al., 2010; Galicia-
420 Aguilar et al., 2012).

421 **4 TANNIN-CONTAINING LEGUME NUTRACEUTICALS AGAINST GIN~~S~~ IN RUMINANTS**

422 Several (recent) reviews have summarised the existing results on the potential of tannin containing
423 legumes as nutraceuticals. Their focus concerns three different aspects:

- 424 • the overall effects on ruminant nutrition, health and production (e.g. Waghorn, 2008;
425 Mueller-Harvey, 2006; Rochfort et al., 2008 ; Wang et al., 2015)
- 426 • the specific AH effects (Min and Hart, 2003; Hoste et al., 2006, 2012)
- 427 • the mode of action against the GINs by understanding the nature of active compounds
428 (tannins and flavonoids) (Mueller-Harvey, 2006) and their possible effects on the worms
429 (Hoste et al., 2012).

430 The readers are invited to refer to these different reviews. The aims of this section will be **i)** to
431 provide an updated summary of the main results of basic research studies that describe the
432 antiparasitic bioactivity of tannin-containing legumes against GIN nematodes in small ruminants and
433 the current hypotheses on their mechanisms of action; and **ii)** to illustrate possible on-farm
434 applications, which are starting to be developed.

435 **4.1 Updated summary of the main effects on the GIN life cycle and hypotheses on their modes of** 436 **action.**

437 **4.1.1. Impact on the GIN life cycle**

438 Three main potential impacts have been linked to the intake of tanniniferous plants by infected
439 ruminants (Hoste et al., 2012) on the GIN life cycle (illustrated in Figure 3)

- 440 1/ lower establishment of the infective third-stage larvae in the host.
- 441 2/ lower excretion of nematode eggs by adult worms, related either to a reduction in worm numbers
442 or lower fertility of female worms; and
- 443 3/ impaired development of eggs into third-stage larvae.

444 Point 1 leads to reduced host invasion by third stage larvae. Steps 2 and 3 both contribute to
445 reducing the environmental contamination with parasitic elements and thus to reduce the risks for
446 hosts.

447 To summarise, tanniniferous nutraceuticals do not lead to a 100 % elimination of worms, but they
448 can interfere with the life cycle; whereas the main goal of synthetic AHs is to completely break the
449 parasitic life cycle. The role of nutraceuticals can be linked to severely impairing several key biological
450 stages of the life cycle (eggs, infective larvae, adult worms). The potential combined effect of these
451 separate impacts contributes to slowing down the dynamics of the infection and to lowering the rate
452 of infection to levels that enable acceptable productivity and animal welfare. This also provides an
453 opportunity for the animal to develop its own immunity to the parasites.

454

455 Similar effects have been observed with the main nematode genera that infect the abomasum and
456 small intestine of small ruminants (*Haemonchus* spp, *Teladorsagia* spp, *Trichostrongylus* spp). Some
457 recent results (Gaudin et al, 2015 Abstract to WAAVP 2015) have demonstrated that significant
458 reductions in egg excretion also occurred with a multi-resistant isolate of *Haemonchus contortus* in
459 the presence of nutraceutical plants. This confirmed that tanniniferous nutraceuticals do indeed
460 represent an alternative solution to AH resistance that is worth exploring further.

461 It is worth mentioning that these AH effects that affect the worm biology have also repeatedly been
462 linked to positive effects on host resilience (e.g. better production parameters, less severe signs of
463 diarrhoea or anaemia, lower mortality under parasitic challenge) ever since the early studies in NZ

464 (Niezen et al, 1996). The mechanisms explaining this improved resilience remain obscure but can
465 partly be explained by the effects on reducing the worm population as well as by the nutritive value
466 of legumes (i.e. higher protein content) and the rumen-escape effect that occurs in the presence of
467 certain types of tannins, which are able to protect dietary proteins (Waghorn, 2008). Identification of
468 which particular tannins are best able to improve host resilience remains an outstanding research
469 goal. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to underline the need to achieve iso-proteic and iso-
470 energetic diets in control vs nutraceutical diets that are fed to sheep or goats in controlled *in vivo*
471 studies.

472 4.1.2. Hypotheses on the modes of action

473 Two non-exclusive general hypotheses have been proposed to explain the activity of bioactive tannin
474 containing feeds against gastrointestinal parasitic worms (Hoste et al., 2012):

475 1/ The “direct” hypothesis is based on pharmacological-type of interactions between the various
476 polyphenols and the different stages of gastrointestinal nematodes.

477 2/ The “indirect” hypotheses assumes a possible improvement of the host resistance (i.e. an
478 immunologically based response) because of the effects of tannin-containing feeds that can improve
479 the overall host protein nutrition by increasing the amount of by-pass proteins.

480 It is clear that the bulk of *in vitro* data obtained so far with different tannin-containing extracts
481 support the hypothesis of “pharmacological-like” effects.

482 As previously stated (Hoste et al, 2012), numerous studies on GIN from small ruminants strongly
483 suggest that both CTs **and** various flavonoids (at least some flavanols) contribute to the AH action
484 (Molan et al., 2004, Brunet and Hoste, 2006). This has been supported also by recent results on
485 another nematode model (e.g. *Ascaris suum* in pigs; Williams et al., 2014b). New evidence is also
486 starting to emerge that tannins and other flavonoids in combination can generate either favourable

487 (synergistic) or unfavourable (e.g. antagonistic) interactions (Klongsiriwet et al., 2014; Vargas-
488 Magana et al., 2014a).

489 A dose-dependent relationship between tannins and/or flavonoid monomers and their *in vitro*
490 effects has been found on several occasions with different assays and GIN species (see review by
491 Hoste et al., 2012). A few *in vivo* studies have also described such relationships, where effects of a
492 tanniferous source on infective L3 larvae (Brunet et al., 2007) or on adult worm populations
493 (Athanasiadou et al, 2001, Terrill et al., 2009) were examined. Taken together, it would appear that a
494 CT threshold needs to be reached in the diet in order to achieve AH effects against the worms.

495 In addition, evidence is now accumulating from various *in vitro* studies which have sought to unravel
496 the mode of action by tannins on the worms, that, besides quantitative factors (i.e. concentrations),
497 qualitative factors (i.e. compound structures) can also modulate the bioactivity. Recent data
498 obtained with GIN models from cattle, small ruminants, and pigs (Novobilsky et al., 2011, 2013;
499 Quijada et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2014a) lend support to the hypothesis first raised by Molan et al.
500 (2003) that bioactivity is linked to the prodelphinidin/procyanidin (PD/PC) ratio in plants. These
501 recent studies have also revealed that tannin size is an important structural feature that contributes
502 to the extent of the AH effects. As CTs usually occur in complex mixtures of closely related tannin
503 compounds, their average polymer size is measured and reported as their mean degree of
504 polymerisation (Gea et al., 2011).

505

506 Less studies have examined the “indirect” hypothesis, based on long –term studies and by
507 measuring different effectors cells (mast cells, globule leucocytes, eosinophils, goblet cells) along the
508 digestive tract in sheep (Tzamaloukas et al., 2006a and b; Martínez-Ortíz-De-Montellano et al., 2010;
509 Rios de Alvarez et al., 2010) and goats (Paolini et al., 2003) when receiving different TR
510 resources. Some of the most convincing evidence to support the “indirect hypothesis” is that some

511 measurements indicating an enhanced local immune response (significantly higher numbers of mast
512 cells and globule leucocytes) (Tzamaloukas et al.,2006) has been shown when lambs were
513 consuming sulla or chicory and had a reduced development of worms.

514 ~~Figure 3: Three key stages of the GIN life cycle have been identified as possible targets when~~
515 ~~tanniferous plants are consumed by infected small ruminants: 1/ a reduced excretion of nematode~~
516 ~~eggs by the adult worms; 2/ a reduced establishment of the infective third stage larvae in the host;~~
517 ~~and 3/ a reduced development of eggs to third stage larvae.~~

518 **4.2 Strategies to apply tannin-containing nutraceutical materials on-farm**

519 The bulk of current data on potential nutraceuticals stems from *in vitro* assays. These results
520 provided preliminary information on the future use of various plants or plant resources. However,
521 gaps remain between *in vitro* results and on-farm application and these are outlined in section 3.

522 A few resources have been investigated more thoroughly through extensive approaches that
523 included a succession or combination of *in vitro* assays, controlled *in vivo* studies and sometimes
524 holistic studies in farming systems in order to prepare for implementation under field conditions.
525 Fortunately, these specific plants illustrate various options that can be used to exploit tannin-
526 containing resources as nutraceuticals.

527 **4.2.1 Cultivating legumes as nutraceuticals**

528 The availability of the plant material can be considered as the main constraint for using a
529 nutraceutical material on-farm. If the plant material is not widely available, or the cost and effort of
530 producing such material is high, then there will be insufficient quantities and it will be unlikely that
531 farmers can adopt it. Up to now, very few plants exist that have potential for nutraceutical
532 exploitations and that benefit from the availability of solid agronomic information suitable for large-
533 scale production.

534 In some parts of the world, where nutraceutical legume plants can be sown in conventional pastures,
535 animals may consume the nutraceutical plant together with the normal grass or herbs. In other
536 areas, farmers may not be able to overseed their paddocks or may decide to dedicate a certain
537 paddock to produce only the nutraceutical plant (i.e. monoculture). In that case, the nutraceutical
538 material can be offered in the form of hay, silage or pellets. These types of R&D studies have been
539 developed or seem best suited for farmers who are looking for alternative GIN control measures.
540 This is particularly the case of organic farming or milk production systems based on small ruminants.

541 In the temperate areas, as mentioned above, two legume forages have been the subject of extensive
542 studies, namely sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciifolia*) in Europe and sericea lespedeza (*Lespedeza cuneata*)
543 in South Africa and USA. These studies have involved a wide range of disciplines: phytochemistry,
544 agronomy, animal production, ruminant physiology and parasitology. Both of these tanniniferous
545 legume species have also been the preferred model for exploring the mode of action of polyphenols
546 against the different stages of GINs (see Hoste et al., 2012). In addition, R&D studies for nearly 20
547 years on *O. viciifolia* or *L. cuneata* have examined and compared different forms of exploitation,
548 namely direct grazing, conservation as hay or silage (Paolini et al, 2005, Heckendorn et al, 2006, Shaik
549 et al., 2006, Werne et al, 2013) or more recently with dehydrated pellets (Terrill et al., 2007, Gujja et
550 al., 2013, Girard et al., 2013, Kommuru et al., 2014).

551 4.2.2 Exploiting rangelands and their biodiversity of plant resources

552 In most tropical parts of the world, the ecosystems present a wide plant biodiversity and include
553 several plant species with nutraceutical potential as natural forage. However, for many of those plant
554 species, there is no information on their agronomy or on possible propagation methods. There are,
555 however, a few exceptions, such as *Leucaena leucocephala*, *Arachis pintoi*, *Gliricidia sepium* or
556 *Cratylia argentea* (von son de Ferneix et al., 2014); all are from the Fabaceae family and are exploited
557 i) in plantations, ii) in silvo-pastoral systems that consist of rows of grass and trees, or iii) in so-called
558 “fodder banks” that are tree plantations in a very dense system that are not allowed to grow beyond

559 approximately 2 m in height. Thus, nutraceutical forages in tropical areas could offer a variety of
560 situations for their production. However, most farmers currently are relying on the natural
561 availability of nutraceutical plants. Meanwhile, the few people who can invest money in their farms
562 may also be able to build silvo-pastoral systems or fodder banks. Irrespective of the production
563 strategy, such plants may be used for direct browsing or in a cut-and-carry system.

564 At the moment, most farmers let their animals browse the natural vegetation. Under such
565 conditions, it is not possible to determine whether animals have consumed enough nutraceutical
566 material to obtain the desired AH effect. Cut-and-carry systems could instead be the answer to
567 ensure that animals are exposed to sufficient nutraceutical material. However, these systems are
568 constrained by time spent by farmers to harvest enough plant material for all animals, the need for a
569 vehicle to move sufficient plant material, and difficulties with harvesting (e.g. thorns). In any case,
570 such management strategies could eventually deplete the resource. Thus, the creation of low-cost
571 fodder banks represents a more sustainable option, but it poses considerable challenges in terms of
572 investment and technical knowledge that is beyond the capability of most small farmers at present.

573 | For the tropical areas, a considerable amount of [dataresults](#) has been acquired in Mexico for tannin-
574 containing leguminous trees, such as *Havardia albicans* and *Lysiloma latisiliquum*. These materials
575 were tested first under *in vitro* conditions (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2008a, 2008b; Hernández-Orduño et
576 al., 2008) and their promising results led to subsequent *in vivo* studies with sheep (Martínez-Ortíz de
577 Montellano et al., 2010; Galicia-Aguilar et al., 2012; Mendez-Ortíz et al., 2012) (see section 3.1.2).

578 4.2.3 Exploring the value of agro industrial by-products

579 In different areas of the world, interest has also been growing in exploring the potential of tannin-
580 containing 'waste' or by-products from agro-industries. These represent an alternative option to
581 "natural" nutraceuticals, in the sense that the PSM can be extracted from the by-products and then
582 added to an existing feed (see Table 1). Transforming 'waste' tannin-rich materials into nutraceutical
583 feeds with antiparasitic properties could have several advantages. First, this represents a viable

584 alternative to add value to agro-industrial waste products; secondly, it may help to solve the problem
585 of the inherent variability of PSM content (see below) in nutraceutical plants, as it would allow
586 adjusting the bioactive PSM concentration(s) in feeds (Girard et al., 2013). Consequently, it may also
587 help to avoid any negative consequences caused by an excess of PSM in the feed.

588 Some examples of tannin-containing plant by-products that have been under recent investigation for
589 their AH activities are: 1/ by products from the nut industry in temperate areas (Desrués et al., 2012),
590 2/ carob pods (Manolaraki et al., 2010; Arroyo-Lopez et al., 2014) in the Mediterranean region, and
591 3/ coffee by-products and cocoa fruit husks and leaves in Yucatan, Mexico (Covarrubias-Cárdenas et
592 al., 2013; Vargas-Magaña et al., 2014a, 2014b).

593 4.2.4 Inherent variability of nutraceutical plant materials

594 Whatever the mode of exploitation (grown, browsed, or by-products), once a plant species has been
595 identified through *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies as a potential candidate for use as a nutraceutical, it is
596 still important to consider the inherent variability caused by several factors which can influence the
597 quantity and/or quality of PSMs content and hence their antiparasitic effects of nutraceutical
598 candidates.

599 ~~Nutraceutical plants should be considered in the same manner as grapes that are produced for wine-~~
600 ~~making. It is evident that certain types of grapes result, generally speaking, in good wines. However,~~
601 ~~wine-makers and wine-connoisseurs are aware of the existence of many factors that affect the~~
602 ~~quality of the wine, some of which are not in the control of the producer. Thus, variation can result~~
603 ~~from the climate, amount of sun radiation and rainfall, timing of the rainfall, agronomic conditions of~~
604 ~~the vineyard, etc. This will result in varying contents of macronutrients, e.g. sugar in the case of~~
605 ~~grapes, which is a relatively stable feature of feeds, and variation of the content and composition of~~
606 ~~plant secondary compounds (e.g. tannins), which can be prone to a wide range of variation. Even the~~
607 ~~best vineyards in the world, with a long tradition of wine-making, accept that PSM variability will~~
608 ~~result in an excellent wine, a good wine or an average wine depending on the year.~~

609 ~~Several data are now available, which show that similar questions also apply to nutraceutical~~
610 ~~candidates.~~ Sainfoin (*O. viciifolia*) has been extensively studied to explore the factors that influence
611 PSM contents and composition and related AH activities (Manolaraki et al., 2011). Three main factors
612 have been identified: environmental conditions (e.g. phenological stages, areas or soil conditions for
613 growth, climate and seasons), genetic factors (cultivars or chemotypes) (Azuhwi et al., 2013;
614 Stringano et al., 2012) and also technological processes (e.g. fresh versus hay, silage and pellet
615 samples).

616 It is possible that this issue of variability caused by the different factors is also important for growing
617 sericea lespedeza (Muir et al., 2014), or for the leaves of *L. leucocephala* or *Manihot esculenta* that
618 originate from plantations in tropical zones. Variation of PSM contents may be even more evident in
619 plants that grow in the native vegetation. Under such conditions, variation of PSM content is
620 significant between individuals even during the same season in the geographical region (Alonso-Díaz
621 et al., 2010b).

622 Further factors, which are frequently not considered include variation in harvesting methods by
623 farmers, such as the leaf:stem ratio that results from pruning only young leaves (branch tip) or
624 complete branches (often based on biomass feed requirement), and post-harvest practices, such as
625 sun drying, wilting, which are often based on nutritional advice, but may not have considered the
626 effects on the bioactive compounds, such as their reduced content or activity in the feed. As the
627 common and traditional view is that PSMs are anti-nutritional factors, this type of advice will need to
628 be modified for nutraceuticals.

629 However, as far as we are aware, hardly any research has been conducted on selecting or breeding
630 for bioactive plants with stable tannin or other PSM compositions. This seems to be an opportunity
631 that would be worth exploring as we have shown that a few relatively 'robust' sainfoin and sorghum
632 chemovars chemotypes used earlier exist, where the PSM composition was much less dependent on
633 the environment (Azuhwi et al., 2013a; Mueller-Harvey and Dhanoa, 1991).

634 5. PERSPECTIVES

635 Based on the previous description of tannin-containing legumes against GIN in small ruminants and
636 the development of methodological approaches for exploring the nutraceutical concept, several
637 ~~areas~~ for future research have been identified that focus on on-farm applications.

638 5.1 What else? Novel parasitic “targets” ~~for~~with tannin-containing legumes

639 5.1.1 Against GINs in other host species.

640 Several recent *in vitro* results have shown that tanniniferous legumes can also regulate worm biology
641 of the main genera of GINs in cattle (see review by Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012). Significant results
642 were obtained with extracts of sainfoin (*O. viciifolia*); *L. corniculatus* and *L. pedunculatus* against
643 *Ostertagia ostertagii* and *Cooperia oncophora* (Novobilsky et al, 2011, 2013). These data are offering
644 opportunities for *in vivo* studies and to promote the combined control of bloat and GINs in cattle
645 production. Recently, a 50% reduction in worm burden was obtained in calves infected with *O.*
646 *ostertagi* and fed sainfoin pellets (Desrues et al, 2015 WAAVP_2015 abstract).

647 In fact, attempts have been made in South Africa to regularly include wattle (*A. karroo*) as a
648 supplementary feed for cattle that are infected with *Haemonchus* sp and *Oesophagostomum*
649 *columbianum*. These studies reported a reduction in egg excretion (Xhomfulana et al., 2009).

650 Two recent studies, based on *in vitro* assays, have also underscored that different tanniniferous plant
651 sources could be used against GIN in monogastric livestock hosts given the positive assessment of AH
652 effects against *Oesophagostomum dentatum* and *Ascaris suum* in pigs (Williams et al., 2014a and b).

653 However, it remains to be seen whether these tannin resources will be used as herbal remedies
654 ~~medicinal plants~~ or as nutraceuticals (see Table 1). However, these *in vitro* data are supported by a
655 field observation study that examined the effects of acorns (*Quercus robur*) fed to outdoor pigs
656 which had been raised with a natural nematode infection. The results indicated a dramatic reduction
657 (> 90 %) in GIN faecal egg count (Salajpal et al., 2004).

658

659 5.1.2. Against other digestive parasites

660 Recent investigations have also assessed the effects of tannin-containing plants against *Eimeria*
661 infections in small ruminants. Although results were disappointing from an *in vitro* assay that
662 examined a wide range of sainfoin extracts for their capacity to inhibit oocyst sporulation (Saratsis et
663 al., 2012), the results of *in vivo* studies on natural infection were much more encouraging. These
664 studies evaluated sainfoin fed to lambs (Saratsis et al., 2012), and sericea lespedeza (*Lespedeza*
665 *cuneata*) fed to either lambs (Burke et al., 2013) fed before and at weaning or kids (Kommuru et al.,
666 2014). Moreover, some early results are also available that examined the effect of *Pistacia lentiscus*
667 in young goats (Markovics et al., 2012).

668
669 In most of these trials, significant reductions in oocyst excretion were measured when young animals
670 were fed with legumes, in particular, kids fed with *L. cuneata* showed reductions greater than 90 %.
671 In addition, there was some evidence that sericea lespedeza had a positive effect on host resilience,
672 as it led to a lower requirement for anti-coccidian treatments. These promising results suggest that
673 tannin containing legumes, in particular pellets of sericea lespedeza, represent an option for a plant-
674 based control of coccidiosis in small ruminants around weaning time.

675
676 The ability lambs and kids to consume sufficient nutraceutical amounts to prevent coccidiosis around
677 weaning could be a limiting factor that will need to be considered. However, results of a recent
678 experiment with calves, which were under 15-day old, are promising: supplementation of milk with
679 concentrated pomegranate extract may, depending on the concentration, reduce faecal oocyst count
680 and diarrhoea intensity and duration because of *Cryptosporidium parvum* infection (Weyl-Feinstein
681 et al., 2014) [it should be noted, however, that pomegranate contains mostly ellagitannins – and not
682 CTs].

683

684 **5.2. Exploring plant resources as nutraceuticals: example of other plant families, other bioactive**
685 **PSMs.**

686 The logical and successive steps described in section 3 have helped to identify other botanical
687 resources, which could be exploited as nutraceuticals. Two examples that meet the general criteria of
688 nutraceuticals as defined in Table 1 will be mentioned here to illustrate these issues:

689 An impressive range of studies has been performed in Spain that investigated the AH effects of
690 different heather species that belong to three *Erica spp* and one *Caluna sp* (Ericaceae) and are
691 browsed by Cashmere goats (Moreno-Gonzalo et al., 2012). This is a first example for which a whole
692 series of results were obtained based on a range of studies that covered *in vitro* assays (e.g. Moreno-
693 Gonzalo et al., 2013), controlled *in vivo* studies with experimental infections in confined conditions
694 (Frutos et al., 2008; Moreno-Gonzalo et al., 2014) and systemic studies with natural infections (Osoro
695 et al., 2009). ~~These studies confirmed their AH effects. However, Caluna is known to contain CTs and~~
696 ~~other flavonoids and these are likely to contribute to their bioactivity.~~

697 Chicory (*Cichorium intybus*) (Asteraceae), when used as a forage for ruminants, represents another
698 AH example, which has illustrated the “robustness” of the methodological approach described in
699 section 3. Chicory has been shown to possess AH properties based on experiments that ranged from
700 *in vitro* assays (Molan et al., 2003b; Foster et al., 2011 a,b), simple *in vivo* studies (Peña-Espinoza et
701 al., 2015 WAAVP2015 abstract), to systemic studies (Athanasiadou et al., 2007; Tzamaloukas et al.,
702 2006 a,b; Nielsen et al., 2009).

703

704 Two other points are worth mentioning in comparison of chicory and the legume models and
705 illustrate which additional studies are required to expand the nutraceutical concept for tackling
706 digestive parasites in infected livestock.

707

- 708 • Based on several *in vitro* results, the nature of the AH PSMs of chicory seems to stem from
709 sesquiterpene lactones and not from CTs and related polyphenols (Molan et al., 2003b,
710 Foster et al., 2006, 2011a and b).
- 711
- 712 • Despite the different PSMs, results acquired with chicory forages also illustrated that
713 environmental and genetic factors affected the anti-parasitic activity and were linked to
714 variations in PSM quantity or composition. This is evidenced by marked differences between
715 cultivars (Miguel Peña-Espinoza, personal communication, 2015). Therefore, these factors
716 require addressing before to seeking on-farm implementations for such nutraceuticals
717 (Foster et al., 2006, 2011a).

718 **5.3. Self-medication and nutraceuticals: a novel field for basic researches on the host-gastro**
719 **intestinal nematode interactions.**

720 Given that the antiparasitic effects of nutraceuticals depend on the PSM concentration in a feed and
721 length of consumption by the infected host, the tannin-containing legumes provide a valuable model
722 to explore the host-parasite (GIN) interactions in regard of regulation related to the host feeding
723 behaviour and /or to assess the balance between host immunity and behaviour (Hoste et al., 2010)
724 (especially when testing conserved forms, which can be used under controlled conditions)-.
725 Interesting studies can and have yet been performed that examine 1/ the ability of the host to select
726 a feed with AH properties when hosts are infected or not with GINs (=self-medication) (Lisonbee et
727 al, 2009; Villalba et al, 2013, Junkhe et al, 2012); 2/ the influence of various host or parasite factors
728 on the self-medication behaviour (Amit et al, 2013); and 3/ the trade-offs between negative
729 nutritional effects and beneficial health effects that accrue from the consumption of nutraceuticals
730 (Frutos et al, 2008).

731

732 It is important to indicate, however, that the influence of GIN on the ingestion of nutraceutical plant
733 materials is not easy to evaluate in regard of methodological issues. Attempts to evaluate this
734 phenomenon using cafeteria studies, where animals are exposed to different types of plant
735 materials, or direct observation methods in the field, that compare animals with and without
736 parasites, will be influenced by the quantity of parasites present in the animals (light to heavy
737 burdens), the time that animals had been naturally infected with GIN before the study began (naïve
738 or immune competent animals), the existing feeding experience , physiological adaptations (e.g.
739 tannin binding saliva) of the animals investigated, amongst several other aspects that are difficult to
740 control (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2010a; Vargas-Magaña et al., 2013). Because self-medication has been the
741 subject of [a recent review \(Villalba and Provenza, 2007; Villalba et al., 2014\)](#), this issue will not be
742 developed further.

743 6. CONCLUSIONS.

- 744 • Because of the constant, worldwide, rapid development of resistance to synthetic chemical
745 AHs, especially, and also because of societal demand, there is nowadays a clear and urgent
746 need to explore and validate alternative options for specific livestock systems (e.g. organic
747 farming systems, small dairy ruminant systems in EU or in caprine breeding).
- 748 • For these reasons, in regard of the control of GINs in livestock, as previously evoked
749 (Thamsborg et al., 1999) in the 21st century, we are now probably entering the post-
750 anthelmintic era and are moving from relatively simple solutions for on-farm applications
751 (use of synthetic AHs) towards much more complex options.
- 752 • The development of nutraceutical products with real potential for the control of GIN in
753 ruminants is a possibility that is well underway of becoming a reality in different parts of the
754 world for different livestock breeding systems and relying on different plant materials.
- 755 • The complexity of the scientific questions which need to be addressed are intrinsic to
756 nutraceuticals. Therefore, the possibility of developing on-farm applications against digestive

757 parasites requires a multidisciplinary approach between scientists with expertise in
758 parasitology, but also phytochemistry animal production, digestive physiology, ethology and
759 others.

760 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

761 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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1143 **Table 1:** The criteria defining the main concepts of xenobiotics and plant secondary metabolites for
 1144 controlling gastrointestinal nematodes of livestock (VFI = voluntary feed intake).

Nature of the bioactive compounds	Synthetic chemical compounds		Natural chemical compounds (Plant secondary metabolites)	
	Therapeutic drugs	Chemical additives (supplements)	Herbal drugs	Nutraceuticals
Formulations	Forced Administration	Added to the feed	Forced administration	PSMs Included in and/or added to the feed
Mode of administration	Independent of VFI	Dependent of VFI	Independent of VFI	Dependent of Voluntary Feed Intake (VFI)
	Short term	Long term	Short term	Long term
	Well defined posology	Posology defined by a range within the feed		
Objective	Curative / (preventive)	Preventive	Curative/ (preventive)	Preventive/ (curative)
Quality of the active compounds	Standardised Identified	Standardised Identified	Variable Usually non identified	Variable Identification of the family of phytochemical compounds

Mode of action	Usually, well identified	Usually, well identified	Unknown	Hypotheses
Development of resistance	High	High	Unknown	Suspected

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1 **TANNIN CONTAINING LEGUMES AS A MODEL FOR NUTRACEUTICALS AGAINST DIGESTIVE**
2 **PARASITES IN LIVESTOCK**

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Parasitic infections with gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) still represent a worldwide major
23 pathological threat associated with the outdoor production of various livestock species. Because of
24 the widespread resistance to synthetic chemical anthelmintics, there is a strong impetus to explore
25 novel approaches for a more integrated management of these infections. The use of nutraceuticals in
26 the control of GINs is one of the alternatives which has been widely studied for 20 years.

27 The objectives of this review are: **i)** to define and illustrate the concept of ‘nutraceutical’ in the
28 context of veterinary parasitology based on data obtained on the most studied models to control
29 GINs in small ruminants, the tannin-containing legumes (Fabaceae); **ii)** to illustrate how the
30 ‘nutraceutical concept’ could be expanded to other plants, other livestock production systems and
31 other GI parasitic diseases, and **iii)** to explain how this concept is opening up new research fields for
32 better understanding the interactions between the host, the digestive parasites and the
33 environment.

34

35 **KEY WORDS:** Nutraceuticals / Condensed tannins/ Polyphenols / Gastrointestinal nematodes /
36 Antiparasitic effects / Small ruminants.

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44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

45 Parasitic infections with gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) represent a worldwide major pathological
46 threat associated with the outdoor production of various livestock species, particularly ruminants. Up
47 to now, the control of these parasitic helminth diseases has essentially relied on the repeated use of
48 commercial anthelmintic (AH) drugs. However, resistance to these AH drugs is now widespread in
49 worm populations, and the occurrence of multi-resistant strains has become a serious problem in
50 some regions of the world (Kaplan, 2004; Torres-Acosta et al., 2012, Jackson et al., 2012). Moreover,
51 as underscored by Waller (2006), resistance to xenobiotics develops quite rapidly in pathogens and
52 usually within 10 years. This has been illustrated since the recent launch of monepantel (Kaminsky et
53 al., 2008), which is a drug belonging to the Amino Acetonitrile Derivatives (AADs). In spite of the
54 novel mode of action, reports of monepantel resistant *Haemonchus contortus* have already appeared
55 only seven years after the launch of this new drug (Van-den-Brom et al., 2015).

56
57 Therefore, modern parasite management involves alternative approaches seeking to achieve an
58 integrated and more sustainable control of helminth infections by combining the 3 main principles
59 for GIN control, namely **i)** management of grazing systems; **ii)** stimulation of host response and **iii)**
60 modulation of worm biology (Hoste and Torres-Acosta, 2011). This also explains the strong impetus
61 worldwide for exploring and adapting alternative options to different conditions. Among these novel
62 approaches, the long tradition of using bioactive plants for their anti-parasitic properties has been re-
63 explored. It is now considered as one option for improving GIN control, and therefore, to counteract
64 the negative pathophysiological consequences in hosts (Rochfort et al., 2008). Plants are widely used
65 as phytotherapeutic drugs or herbal remedies, and their administration is based on a long tradition
66 of ethno-veterinary or ethno-medicinal applications on all continents (Hammond et al., 1997;
67 Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012). However, over the last 20 years, a novel, overall concept of
68 nutraceutical plants (plants combining positive effects for both animal nutrition and health) has

69 emerged in veterinary science and helminthology for improved controlling livestock parasites (Waller
70 and Thamsborg, 2004; Hoste et al., 2006; Alonso-Diaz et al., 2010b).

71

72 The aim of this review is

73 **1/** to illustrate the concept of ‘nutraceutical’ based on resources containing Plant Secondary
74 Metabolites (PSMs) in the context of veterinary parasitology. We will mainly refer to the tannin-
75 containing legumes (Fabaceae) and other plants, which is one of the most studied models of
76 nutraceuticals to control GIN in small ruminants.

77 **2/** to show how the ‘nutraceutical concept’ could be expanded to other plants, other livestock
78 production systems and other parasitic diseases of the digestive tract.

79 **3/** to explain how this concept is opening up new research fields for probing the interactions
80 between the host, the parasites of the digestive system, and the environment.

81

82 **2. DEFINITION OF NUTRACEUTICALS**

83 The term “nutraceutical” results from a portmanteau between the words “nutrition” and
84 “pharmaceutical”. It has sometimes also been described as “functional food”, which was first coined
85 in the context of medical health (Hasler, 1998). According to Andlauer and Fürst (2002), a
86 nutraceutical is defined as “any substance that may be considered a food or part of a food which
87 provides health benefits, including the prevention and treatment of disease”.

88 In a similar way, a nutraceutical in veterinary science can be defined as a livestock feed which
89 combines nutritional value with beneficial effects on animal health. This double action is suspected
90 to rely on the presence of various plant secondary metabolites (PSM) or bioactive compounds. In
91 contrast to pharmaceutical drugs, nutraceuticals are not synthetic compounds formulated for
92 specific indications.

93 Here, we will focus on a sub-category of nutraceuticals, i.e. plant-based products that contain
94 nutrients and bioactive compounds that can be used **either directly** as part of the animal diet or
95 **added in a concentrated form** to another diet after extraction from the bioactive plant or resource.
96 Although the nutraceutical concept sounds simple, it is important to recognise that there are several
97 key differences compared to synthetic AH and phytotherapeutic drugs (Table 1). This makes studying
98 their efficacy a rather complex task. The key points and differences between nutraceuticals and the
99 other options for interfering with the parasite life cycle will be discussed below.

100

101 **1/Nutrition:** Compared to herbal drugs (phytotherapeutical remedies) or synthetic chemicals, a
102 nutraceutical based on bio active plants is not imposed, but offered to animals over a relatively long
103 period (from several days to weeks or months). Therefore, the efficacy of this sort of nutraceuticals
104 will directly depend on the Voluntary Feed Intake (VFI) of the animal.

105 **2/ Nature of the bioactive compounds (PSM):** The bioactivity against the parasites is dependent on
106 the presence of natural chemical compounds in plants, which are usually Plant Secondary
107 Compounds (PSM). The concentrations of these compounds can be highly variable and may depend
108 on environmental growing conditions, on the plant cultivar, or chemotypes. In addition, technological
109 factors (harvesting, processing methods) can also interfere with the preservation of the active
110 compounds.

111 **3/ Effect on animal health:** The effects of nutraceutical feeds and of the associated bioactive
112 compounds against parasitic nematodes differ from the mode of action of synthetic chemicals (see
113 figure 3). This statement implies to develop specific methodologies of measurements of the AH
114 effects.

115

116 **3. TANNIN CONTAINING LEGUMES WITH ANTHELMINTIC PROPERTIES AGAINST GINS IN SHEEP**
117 **AND GOATS: THE MOST STUDIED MODEL OF NUTRACEUTICALS IN VETERINARY PARASITOLOGY.**

118 It is only recently (in the last 20 years) that researchers have obtained enough evidence that supports
119 the use of plants as nutraceutical feeds against GIN. The first evidence originated from research in
120 New Zealand based on empirical results that reported significant reduction of GIN faecal egg counts
121 in sheep when grazing pastures with different legumes, i.e. birdsfoot trefoil and big trefoil (*Lotus*
122 *corniculatus*, *L. pedunculatus*), sulla (*Hedysarum coronarium*) and sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciifolia*),
123 which contain condensed tannins (CTs) (Niezen et al., 1995, 1998, 2002). The information generated
124 by these early field trials started the search for new legumes (Fabaceae) containing the same PSMs
125 and for other plant candidates elsewhere in the world against GINs in small ruminants. This has
126 become the subject of extensive studies and still represents an important model aiming to explore
127 the concept of using nutraceutical plants against other parasites, with other hosts, and to identify
128 other botanical families with nutraceutical properties (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012).

129 These studies on tannin-containing legumes have led to:

- 130 **1/** the development of several important methodological procedures that are based on *in vitro* and *in*
131 *vivo* methods to evaluate plants as potential nutraceuticals;
- 132 **2/** a better definition of the difference in effects between nutraceuticals, phytotherapeutic remedies,
133 and synthetic AH chemical drugs.

134 **3.1. Identification/selection of future potential candidates of nutraceuticals against GINs.**

135 As illustrated in Figure 1, the effects of a nutraceutical against GIN depend on complex interactions.
136 Hence, the selection of a plant candidate as a potential nutraceutical requires good knowledge and
137 interaction between different scientific disciplines, namely livestock nutrition and production,
138 phytochemistry, parasitology, and to some extent, ethology and toxicology. However, the presence
139 of bioactive PSM is a key issue.

140 Identifying viable nutraceutical candidates against parasites is a complex task, and the following
141 steps need to be considered in the selection of potential materials. This procedure is intended to

142 help in identifying candidate plant materials that can subsequently be explored under *in vivo*
143 conditions.

144 3.1.1 Nutritional issues.

145 Even before the plant materials are tested *in vitro* or *in vivo* for AH activity, information should be
146 gathered in terms of nutritional value and palatability for the hosts. This information should include:

147 **a) A good macronutrient profile.**

148 Ideally, the feed should have medium to high levels of protein or energy and low lignin. However, not
149 all plants with tannins may have an optimal “nutritional” profile. Therefore, initial selection of such
150 plants should not be based solely on their macronutrient profile, especially if such plants are selected
151 by ruminants during grazing/browsing. The nutritional quality of the plant material that is intended
152 for nutraceutical use should include the determination of its *In Vitro* Dry Matter Digestibility
153 (IVDMD). This information can help to identify if the plant material could be further useful under *in*
154 *vivo* conditions.

155 **b) A feed readily consumed by the animal host.**

156 Since the general definition of a nutraceutical is linked to VFI by animals, this key issue needs to be
157 first considered and then measured during *in vivo* assays. Short intake or preference trials should be
158 carried out before engaging with *in vivo* evaluation of the plant. If the plant is not eaten, it might still
159 be useful in other ways, as the active PSMs could be extracted and then dosed to animals
160 (Phytotherapy).

161 **c) An acceptable *in vivo* apparent digestibility.**

162 Any plant material that will be used in large quantities or during long periods of time will require an
163 evaluation of its impact on the apparent *in vivo* digestibility, including at least measurements of the
164 dry matter (DM) and the organic matter (OM). These data may help to ensure that the nutraceutical
165 material will not cause a severe reduction of digestibility.

166 **d) Little or no negative known impact on animal production.**

167 Before selecting a nutraceutical plant for AH effects, it is important to collect information on the
168 possible negative impact on production (i.e. growth, milk production, reproduction) or even clinical
169 signs (e.g. abortions or foetus deformities, such as arthrogryposis due to phytoestrogens) or
170 photosensitisation. In such cases, the plant material should not be considered as a viable
171 nutraceutical.

172 3.1.2. PSM issues

173 Since the early results in NZ, several tannin containing legumes (Fabaceae) have been subjected to a
174 wide range of studies as potential nutraceuticals. The focus on these species was usually not based
175 on prior ethno-botanic information about the action against signs of GIN parasitism (i.e. diarrhoea),
176 or de-wormers used for humans, as in both cases the information could be inadequate for ruminant
177 species (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012).

178 In contrast, they were mainly supported by knowledge and principles of pharmacognosy, based on
179 the assumption that the presence of similar PSMs in the same botanical families (Fabaceae) should
180 achieve similar antiparasitic effects. However, a few results have shown that some plant candidates,
181 which were retained because of the presence of CTs, also corresponded to plants that had been
182 identified based on ethnoveterinary knowledge. This double-sided approach can be of particular
183 interest in many tropical countries.

184 A possible third approach could be based on detailed observational studies to identify plant selection
185 (González-Pech et al, 2014), feeding behaviour, resource selection and possibly self-medication
186 under grazing or browsing conditions. However, such studies are laborious and few exist from
187 tropical regions, where there is a large plant diversity (Novelo-Chi et al, 2014, Retama-Flores et al,
188 2010 and Ventura-Cordero et al, 2014a, 2014b).

189

190 The Fabaceae family is one of the richest botanical families in terms of species numbers (nearly
191 20,000) and tannin-containing legume and plant resources occur worldwide, just like GINs.
192 Therefore, the search for possible nutraceuticals has included temperate and tropical tannin-
193 containing plants. These include herbaceous plants, trees, and shrubs, which are perennials or
194 annuals, and which are used by small ruminants in a wide range of feeding systems.

195 In temperate areas, two legume species of the sub family Faboideae, have received special attention
196 and have been the focus of a number of studies. These are the sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciifoliae*) in
197 Europe (Paolini et al., 2003a, 2005b; Heckendorn et al., 2006, 2007; Manolaraki et al., 2010;
198 <http://sainfoin.eu>; www.legumeplus.eu) and the Chinese bush clover or sericea lespedeza (*Lespedeza*
199 *cuneata*) in the USA and South Africa (Shaik et al., 2006; Joshi et al., 2011; Kommuru et al., 2014;
200 Terrill et al., 2009; 2012 <http://www.acsrpc.org/>). This special attention on these two herbaceous
201 plants is explained by their ability to produce seeds, to be grown (cultivated) efficiently, and to
202 organise their production for farm application on a large scale (see below).

203 It is worth underscoring that this scientific interest is also explained by their other beneficial effects
204 in regards to nutrition and health of ruminants and environmental issues (see reviews by Rochfort et
205 al., 2008, Waghorn, 2008, Mueller Harvey, 2006) which are : **i**) a reduced use of chemical fertilisers
206 because of biological nitrogen fixation; **ii**) high palatability for ruminants and feeding values; **iii**)
207 positive effects to reduce ruminal methane emission and GHG; **iv**) anti bloat effects; **v**) switch of
208 nitrogen excretion from urine to faeces. In contrast, it is also worth noting that some non-native
209 species exploited for these properties are considered invasive by environmentalists and ecologists

210 In tropical areas in Africa and Latin America, several genera (shrubs or trees) of the Fabaceae family
211 have been particularly under focus and identified as possible nutraceuticals because of *in vitro* results
212 or *in vivo* data indicating reductions in egg excretion; e.g. *Leucaena leucocephala* (Ademola et al.,
213 2006), *Lysiloma latisiliquum* (Matínez-Ortíz de Montellano et al., 2010), *Havardia albicans* (Galicia-
214 Aguilar et al., 2012; Méndez-Ortíz et al., 2012), or different Acacia species: *Acacia pennatula* , A.

215 *molissima*, *A. karroo*, *A. mearnsii*, *Mimosa tenuiflora* (Kahiya et al., 2003; Alonso Diaz et al., 2008a;
216 Minho et al., 2008; Cenci et al., 2007; Oliveira et al., 2013, Murare et al., 2012).

217 **3.2. A methodological procedure to confirm the antiparasitic effects.**

218 An overall methodological procedure has progressively emerged from scientific results from different
219 studies to validate the possible efficiency of a wide range of tannin-containing plants as
220 nutraceuticals against GINs. By its logical scheme and by the objectives defined for each step, the
221 procedure has been widely derived from the WAAVP guidelines to examine the efficiency of
222 synthetic AHs (Wood et al., 1995).

223 The three successive steps are **1/** the *in vitro* screening of plant extracts based on a wide range of
224 assays (Figure 2); **2/** controlled *in vivo* studies on experimentally infected animals in confined
225 conditions to confirm the efficiency of the selected plant candidates; **3/** holistic studies to examine
226 how and when to apply the nutraceuticals in breeding/feeding systems for small ruminants.

227 However, because of the complexity and intrinsic variability of nutraceuticals, which are based on
228 naturally occurring chemicals rather than synthetic anthelmintics (see Table 1, Quality of the
229 compounds and mode of administration), this scheme requires adaptations and critical comments to
230 interpret the results.

231 Since the mode of action of tannin-containing nutraceuticals differs from synthetic chemical AHs, it
232 is of interest to examine the effects of the same plant extract on different key stages of the GIN life
233 cycle (egg, infective larvae, adult worms) (Figure 2).

234 **3.2.1 The *in vitro* screening of plant extracts.**

235 Most *in vitro* assays for the primary screening of plant products have been adapted from those
236 developed to assess the efficacy of synthetic AHs against GINs in ruminants (Wood et al., 1995). One
237 exception is the Larval Exsheathment Inhibition Assay, which has been set up specifically (Bahuaud et

238 al., 2006) to reproduce artificially, under *in vitro* conditions, the disturbances related to the
239 establishment of infective larvae as measured *in vivo* in sainfoin-fed sheep (Brunet et al., 2007).

240 The detailed methodologies of these different assays, when adapted to plant materials, can be found
241 in Jackson and Hoste (2010). In addition, it is worth mentioning that the model represented by the
242 free living nematode, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, is also increasingly being exploited to screen the AH
243 properties of different plant resources (Katiki et al., 2012, 2013).

244 It is important to emphasise that these different *in vitro* assays, first used to screen potential
245 nutraceutical candidates, have also been exploited for a second main objective: to better understand
246 the mode of action of PSM compounds against GINs. This has been achieved **i)** by applying either
247 isolated and purified tannins, which were selected because of their different structural features
248 (Molan et al., 2004, Novobilsky et al., 2013, Quijada et al., 2015), or pure flavonoid compounds
249 (Molan et al, 2003a; Brunet and Hoste, 2006), and **ii)** by performing detailed studies of the functional
250 and structural changes induced in nematodes (Hoste et al., 2012). This allowed testing of the “direct”
251 hypothesis (see section 4.1).

252 Most research groups started screening the AH activity of different plant materials under *in vitro*
253 conditions. In most cases, the screening process was developed with plants that had been extracted
254 with different solvents. When tannins are suspected as the main bioactive compounds, extraction
255 with acetone/water (70:30) is the most common and efficient solvent in regard of the yield of
256 extraction. We note that several studies reported drying plant materials at high temperatures and
257 that this may have reduced the AH activity. It is highly recommended that all plant samples should
258 either be freeze-dried or dried below 40 °C in order to preserve polyphenols and tannins, as these
259 are easily oxidised at higher temperatures.

260 In addition, because of the intrinsic variability of the active compounds and/or mode of actions
261 against GINs, many misunderstandings need to be clarified:

262 **a)** *If a plant extract shows an AH effect against a given life stage, it will also show a clear AH effect*
263 *against other life stages of the same parasite, at roughly the same concentrations.*

264 This is not the case ! If the same extract from a single plant material is applied to different life stages
265 of a nematode species under the respective *in vitro* conditions, the AH effect may differ between
266 different life stages (Paolini et al, 2004). For instance, a plant extract may show a clear AH effect
267 against *H. contortus* on a given life stage (i.e. L₃ larvae) and show a mild or no AH effect against
268 another stage (i.e. eggs). Furthermore, the AH effect may only be evident on a certain aspect of the
269 same life stage, such as inhibition of the L₃ exsheathment process, but have no clear effect on
270 another aspect, such as the motility of the same L₃ larvae (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2011).

271 Such differential effects depending on the life stages of GIN have also been recorded for
272 conventional anthelmintics, such as levamisole, that shows a clear effect on L₃ motility but fails to
273 show any AH effect on the exsheathment of L₃ or the eclosion of GIN eggs.

274 These comments imply that the selection of candidates for further *in vivo* tests could be judged
275 either on the overall effective concentration (EC 50, 90 or 99%) of different *in vitro* tests with the
276 different life stages tested or alternatively, that the candidate should be the one showing the lowest
277 EC in the most biologically relevant *in vitro* test chosen based on valid biological grounds, depending
278 on the stage of interest for the designed study.

279 **b)** *If the plant extract is obtained from the same plant material with a solvent of similar polarity, the*
280 *potential AH effect against GIN will be similar.*

281 Again, this is not the case ! Different extraction procedures, even with solvents of similar polarity [i.e.
282 methanol vs. acetone:water (70:30)] applied to the same plant material, can result in different
283 profiles of PSMs being extracted. As a result, the extracts of the same plant material will show
284 different AH activities when applied to the same life stage. For example, acetone-water (70:30)
285 extracts of Annonaceae leaves showed limited ovicidal activity and a clear exsheathment inhibition
286 activity, while the methanolic extracts of the same plant material showed significant ovicidal activity

287 but was less efficient to inhibit the exsheathment of larvae (Castañeda-Ramírez et al., 2014). Thus,
288 the extraction procedure and the choice of solvent, even with similar polarity, can result in marked
289 differences in the extracted PSMs.

290 *c) An in vitro screening test will help to decide on the dose or concentration of the nutraceutical*
291 *material that needs to be consumed by the infected animals in order to control GIN infections.*

292 The extrapolation of *in vitro* doses to *in vivo* conditions is more difficult to achieve for plants when
293 used against parasites dwelling in the lumen of the gastrointestinal tract. A plant extract prepared for
294 *in vitro* use contains a concentrated quantity of PSM from the experimental plant material. Hence,
295 those PSMs will be present in the *in vitro* assay at a certain quantity and quality that may not be
296 comparable with the *in vivo* conditions, and also during a time span difficult to replicate under *in vivo*
297 conditions. Moreover, under *in vivo* conditions, the digestion processes and the conditions occurring
298 in the digestive tract may affect the liberation of the bioactive PSMs from the plant material. Also,
299 the quantity or structure of PSM may be affected along the digestive tract after the plant is
300 consumed, chewed, ruminated and digested by the ruminant host or gut microflora. Thus, it should
301 be remembered that *in vitro* assays can help at identifying candidates with potential AH activities,
302 but will not produce indications on a dose level that can be used as a starting point for the *in vivo*
303 dose level that should be applied to the various hosts.

304 With the limitations mentioned above, one may think that it might be easier to find a plant extract
305 with excellent *in vitro* activity, validate its *in vivo* AH activity against GIN in the relevant host, and
306 then determine a dose that can be used to control their GIN populations. Such an approach would
307 not be pertinent for a nutraceutical plant material but can be considered for an herbal remedy or
308 phytotherapeutical medicine. As such, this will need to be tested as a drug and its efficacy validated
309 using the relevant guidelines for efficacy against GIN (Wood et al., 1995).

310 Why can these extracts not be considered as a nutraceutical? The reason is simple: if the plant
311 material is not providing macronutrients for the animal, then it is not a nutraceutical material. In

312 reality, there may be a more straightforward method for identifying plant materials with potential
313 nutraceutical effects and for investigating the dose level required to control the GIN population:
314 letting the hosts eat the plant material, while evaluating the faecal GIN egg excretion. If animals are
315 able to eat sufficient plant material in the chosen presentation and form and produce a visible AH
316 effect, then such level of ingestion (or dosage) may be suggested against parasites in the test
317 animals.

318 3.2. 2 Confirmation of potential nutraceutical candidates, under *in vivo* controlled conditions,
319 based on *in vitro* results.

320 As for the 1st step (i.e. *in vitro* screening), the *in vivo* procedures to assess the efficacy of
321 nutraceuticals against GINs are also derived, to some extent, from the general guidelines described
322 for synthetic chemical AHs (Wood et al., 1995). However; it is important to take into account several
323 specificities of the nutraceutical concept (see Figure 1).

324 **a) A nutraceutical is at first a feed**

325 Therefore, it is essential to evaluate its nutritional value by using conventional methodologies. The
326 information should include the macronutrient content of crude protein (CP), metabolisable energy
327 (ME), neutral detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (FDA) and lignin. This information may help
328 to identify plant materials fitting the nutritional characteristics of an edible ruminant feedstuff. The
329 information generated from conventional nutritional methodologies could be correlated with near
330 infra-red (NIR) spectra. With time, when a large dataset of plant samples are tested, the NIR spectra
331 can be linked with nutritional quality, presence of PSM and related AH effects. This may be
332 automated with other NIR tools in the future.

333 One key aspect of these measurements for controlled *in vivo* studies is to achieve iso-proteic and iso-
334 energetic diets in the groups of animals receiving the control or the nutraceutical diets, in order to
335 specifically evaluate the role of the PSMs and to avoid any confounding effects because of
336 differences in the amount of macronutrients (protein, energy or their balance) (Coop and Kyriazakis,

337 1999). However, differences in palatability may result in different feeding levels when feed on offer
338 is not controlled.

339 Alternatively, assessing the trade-off of plant selection and intake could be an alternative for when
340 iso-energetic and iso-proteic diets are not attainable. The working hypothesis should be carefully
341 stated in all cases. Nutrient balance studies are needed to contribute to the understanding of
342 parasitism and nutrient costs (for the host) and proper assessment of trade-off of nutraceutical plant
343 intake.

344 ***b) A nutraceutical should be readily consumed by the relevant host since the effects on health depend***
345 ***on the animal feeding behaviour***

346 Most plants materials meant to be used for nutraceutical purposes are not normally included in the
347 diet of the relevant host. Since the general impact of nutraceuticals on animal health stems from the
348 consumption of these materials, it is important: (1) to include in the experimental design of
349 controlled *in vivo* studies a period for animal adaptation to the novel feed, lasting from 10 to 15 days,
350 until experimental animals reach a plateau of consumption; and (2) once this plateau of consumption
351 is reached, to estimate regularly the animal VFI. The evaluation can be as simple as measuring the
352 plant material offered and refused, to determine intake. Under some circumstances, the ingestion of
353 the plant material can be enhanced by means of some additives, such as sugar cane molasses. In
354 such cases, the future use of these plant materials will depend on the availability of the plant *per se*,
355 as well as the existence of the potential feed additive. This could mean an added difficulty for on-
356 farm applications. If possible, plant intake should be evaluated with both infected and non-infected
357 animals with the objective to provide information on self-medication (Martinez-Ortiz-de-Montellano
358 et al, 2010).

359 ***c) The impact of nutraceuticals against the parasite depends on the presence of PSM***

360 It is essential to obtain a measurement of the potential bioactive PSM before implementing the *in*
361 *vivo* controlled studies. It is also important to describe the analytical methods used. In the case of

362 condensed tannins, which cover the core of the current review, a critical description of the different
363 analytical methods has been reviewed previously (Mueller-Harvey, 2006). One simple
364 recommendation, when possible, is to try to obtain two different evaluations (usually one chemical
365 assay and one biological assay in order to estimate the ability of tannins to complex proteins)
366 (Makkar et al., 2003).

367 **d) *The effects of tannin-containing nutraceuticals differ from synthetic AH***

368 This requires adapted experimental designs and measurements. Once the information to
369 characterise the nutritional value and the PSM content of a nutraceutical have been obtained, valid
370 *in vivo* assays in controlled conditions can be implemented. Such studies could consider animals with
371 natural GIN infections. However, artificial infection trials are preferred that focus on the most
372 prevalent GIN genera and species in the areas of interest.

373 Within this general experimental context, several factors need to be explored which are specific to
374 nutraceuticals

375 • *The multivalent effects on a range of GIN species:*

376 As a general recommendation, combined infections with at least one species of the abomasal plus
377 one species of the small intestinal species should be encouraged. The reason for this is that i) as part
378 of the overall objective, as for synthetic AHs, a multivalent effect can be expected from
379 nutraceuticals and also, ii) variations in the effect of tannin-containing resources against different
380 GIN species have been mentioned on several occasions (see Hoste et al., 2006, 2012). Of course, the
381 choice of the GIN models should be based on epidemiological information, which needs to identify
382 the most prevalent and pathogenic species in the regional areas.

383 • *The multivalent effects on different GIN stages:*

384 As shown in Figure 3, the consequences of nutraceuticals and related PSMs on GINs (at least for the
385 tannin-containing legume models), result from a combination of effects on 3 key stages of the GIN

386 life cycle. Therefore, when possible, it is important to design experimental studies that examine the
387 effects on these different stages (Castañeda-Ramírez et al., 2014; Vargas-Magaña et al., 2014a,
388 2014b).

- 389 • *The role of quantity and/or time period for offering tannin-containing resources in the diet to*
390 *optimise effects against GINs in small ruminants*

391 After completing initial simple experimental designs that validate the effects of tannin-containing
392 nutraceuticals against different genera and/or stages of GINs in small ruminants, some additional
393 studies are worth designing in order to help in evaluating the effect of two factors which can
394 influence the efficacy of nutraceuticals against GINs, namely the proportions of nutraceuticals and
395 the related concentration of CTs in the feed (Athanasiadou et al., 2001, Brunet et al., 2007, Terrill et
396 al., 2009) and the length of distribution.

- 397 • *Specificities in the evaluation of the parasitological and pathophysiological consequences*

398 During the whole evaluation period in studies based on experimental infections, animals should be
399 monitored regularly in terms of **i)** repeated parasitological measurements (faecal excretion of GIN
400 eggs), **ii)** pathophysiological measurements to establish the effects on host resilience based on
401 quantitative and/or semi-quantitative measurements of the (sub)clinical effects of infection (e.g.
402 Packed Cell Volume = PCV, FAMACHA Score).

403 Because of the variations in the PSM effects, which can depend on the nematode species and/or
404 stages (see Figure 3), two experimental measurements are worth considering to complete the
405 information obtained from experimental *in vivo* studies: 1/ it is recommended that these
406 methodologies need to differentiate effects from different GIN species in case of multispecific
407 experimental infections; and 2/ whenever possible, to measure also effects on egg hatching and
408 development.

409 Ideally, the studies in controlled conditions should be complemented with post-mortem evaluations
410 of the worm populations. The latter will help to strengthen the parasitological protocol by defining if
411 the effect on GIN egg excretion is due to the reduction of GIN populations, proportions of species,
412 sex ratio, or reduction in female worm fecundity (Martinez-Ortiz de Montellano et al., 2010; Galicia-
413 Aguilar et al., 2012).

414 **4 . TANNIN-CONTAINING LEGUME NUTRACEUTICALS AGAINST GINs IN RUMINANTS**

415 Several (recent) reviews have summarised the existing results on the potential of tannin containing
416 legumes as nutraceuticals. Their focus concerns three different aspects:

- 417 • the overall effects on ruminant nutrition, health and production (e.g. Waghorn, 2008;
418 Mueller-Harvey, 2006; Rochfort et al., 2008 ; Wang et al., 2015)
- 419 • the specific AH effects (Min and Hart, 2003; Hoste et al., 2006, 2012)
- 420 • the mode of action against the GINs by understanding the nature of active compounds
421 (tannins and flavonoids) (Mueller-Harvey, 2006) and their possible effects on the worms
422 (Hoste et al., 2012).

423 The readers are invited to refer to these different reviews. The aims of the current section will be **i)**
424 to provide an updated summary of the main results of basic research studies that describe the
425 antiparasitic bioactivity of tannin-containing legumes against GIN nematodes in small ruminants and
426 the current hypotheses on their mechanisms of action; and **ii)** to illustrate possible on-farm
427 applications, which are starting to be developed.

428 **4.1 Updated summary of the main effects on the GIN life cycle and hypotheses on their modes of** 429 **action.**

430 4.1.1. Impact on the GIN life cycle

431 Three main potential impacts have been linked to the intake of tanniniferous plants by infected
432 ruminants (Hoste et al., 2012) on the GIN life cycle (illustrated in Figure 3)

433 | **1/** lower establishment of the infective third-stage larvae (L3) in the host.

434 | **2/** lower excretion of nematode eggs by adult worms, related either to a reduction in worm numbers

435 | or lower fertility of female worms; and

436 | **3/** impaired development of eggs into third-stage larvae.

437 | Point 1 leads to reduced host invasion by L3. Steps 2 and 3 both contribute to reducing the

438 | environmental contamination with parasitic elements and thus to reduce the risks for hosts.

439 | To summarise, tanniniferous nutraceuticals do not lead to a 100 % elimination of worms, but they

440 | can interfere with the life cycle; whereas the main goal of synthetic AHs is to completely break the

441 | parasitic life cycle. The role of nutraceuticals can be linked to severely impairing several key biological

442 | stages of the life cycle (eggs, infective larvae, adult worms). The potential combined effect of these

443 | separate impacts contributes to slowing down the dynamics of the infection and to lowering the rate

444 | of infection to levels that enable acceptable productivity and animal welfare. This also provides an

445 | opportunity for the animal to develop its own immunity to the parasites. Similar effects have been

446 | observed with the main nematode genera that infect the abomasum and small intestine of small

447 | ruminants (*Haemonchus* spp, *Teladorsagia* spp, *Trichostrongylus* spp). Some recent results (Gaudin et

448 | al, 2015 Abstract to WAAVP 2015) have demonstrated that significant reductions in egg excretion

449 | also occurred with a multi-resistant isolate of *Haemonchus contortus* in the presence of nutraceutical

450 | plants. This confirmed that tanniniferous nutraceuticals do indeed represent an alternative solution

451 | to AH resistance that is worth exploring further.

452 | It is worth mentioning that these AH effects that affect the worm biology have also repeatedly been

453 | linked to positive effects on host resilience (e.g. better production parameters, less severe signs of

454 | diarrhoea or anaemia, lower mortality under parasitic challenge) ever since the early studies in NZ

455 | (Niezen et al, 1996). The mechanisms explaining this improved resilience remain obscure but can

456 | partly be explained by the effects on reducing the worm population as well as by the nutritive value

457 | of legumes (i.e. higher protein content) and the rumen-escape effect that occurs in the presence of

458 | certain types of tannins, which are able to protect dietary proteins (Waghorn, 2008). Identification of

459 which particular tannins are best able to improve host resilience remains an outstanding research
460 goal. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to underline the need to achieve iso₂-proteic and iso₂-
461 energetic diets in control vs nutraceutical diets that are fed to sheep or goats in controlled *in vivo*
462 studies.

463 4.1.2. Hypotheses on the modes of action

464 Two non-exclusive general hypotheses have been proposed to explain the activity of bioactive tannin
465 containing feeds against gastrointestinal parasitic worms (Hoste et al., 2012):

466 1/ The “direct” hypothesis is based on pharmacological-type of interactions between the various
467 polyphenols and the different stages of gastrointestinal nematodes.

468 2/ The “indirect” hypotheses assumes a possible improvement of the host resistance (i.e. an
469 immunologically based response) because of the effects of tannin-containing feeds that can improve
470 the overall host protein nutrition by increasing the amount of by-pass proteins

471 It is clear that the bulk of *in vitro* data obtained so far with different tannin-containing extracts
472 support the hypothesis of “pharmacological-like” effects.

473 As previously stated (Hoste et al, 2012), numerous studies on GIN from small ruminants strongly
474 suggest that both CTs and various flavonoids (at least some flavanols) contribute to the AH action
475 (Molan et al., 2004, Brunet and Hoste, 2006). This has been supported also by recent results on
476 another nematode model (e.g. *Ascaris suum* in pigs; Williams et al., 2014b). New evidence is also
477 starting to emerge that tannins and other flavonoids in combination can generate either favourable
478 (synergistic) or unfavourable (e.g. antagonistic) interactions (Klongsiriwet et al., 2014; Vargas-
479 Magana et al., 2014a).

480 A dose-dependent relationship between tannins and/or flavonoid monomers and their *in vitro*
481 effects has been found on several occasions with different assays and GIN species (see review by
482 Hoste et al., 2012). A few *in vivo* studies have also described such relationships, where effects of a

483 tanniniferous source on infective L3 larvae (Brunet et al., 2007) or on adult worm populations
484 (Athanasiadou et al, 2001, Terrill et al., 2009) were examined. Taken together, it would appear that a
485 CT threshold needs to be reached in the diet in order to achieve AH effects against the worms.

486 In addition, evidence is now accumulating from various *in vitro* studies which have sought to unravel
487 the mode of action by tannins on the worms, that, besides quantitative factors (i.e. concentrations),
488 qualitative factors (i.e. compound structures) can also modulate the bioactivity. Recent data
489 obtained with GIN models from cattle, small ruminants, and pigs (Novobilsky et al., 2011, 2013;
490 Quijada et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2014a) lend support to the hypothesis first raised by Molan et al.
491 (2003) that bioactivity is linked to the prodelphinidin/procyanidin (PD/PC) ratio in plants. These
492 recent studies have also revealed that tannin size is an important structural feature that contributes
493 to the extent of the AH effects. As CTs usually occur in complex mixtures of closely related tannin
494 compounds, their average polymer size is measured and reported as their mean degree of
495 polymerisation (Gea et al., 2011).

496 Less studies have examined the “indirect” hypothesis, based on long –term studies and by
497 measuring different effectors cells (mast cells, globule leucocytes, eosinophils, goblet cells) along the
498 digestive tract in sheep (Tzamaloukas et al., 2006a and b; Martínez-Ortíz-De-Montellano et al., 2010;
499 Rios de Alvarez et al., 2010) and goats (Paolini et al., 2003) when receiving different TR resources.

500 Some of the most convincing evidence to support this “indirect hypothesis” is that some
501 measurements indicating an enhanced local immune response (significantly higher numbers of mast
502 cells and globule leucocytes) (Tzamaloukas et al.,2006) has been shown when lambs were
503 | consuming sulla or chicory and had a reduced development of worms.

504

505 **4.2 Strategies to apply tannin-containing nutraceutical materials on-farm**

506 The bulk of current data on potential nutraceuticals stems from *in vitro* assays. These results
507 provided preliminary information on the future use of various plants or plant resources. However,
508 gaps remain between *in vitro* results and on-farm application. These are outlined in section 3.

509 A few resources have been investigated more thoroughly through extensive approaches that
510 included a succession or combination of *in vitro* assays, controlled *in vivo* studies and sometimes
511 holistic studies in farming systems in order to prepare for implementation under field conditions.
512 Fortunately, these specific plants illustrate various options that can be used to exploit tannin-
513 containing resources as nutraceuticals.

514 4.2.1 Cultivating legumes as nutraceuticals

515 The availability of the plant material can be considered as the main constraint for using a
516 nutraceutical material on-farm. If the plant material is not widely available, or the cost and effort of
517 producing such material is high, then there will be insufficient quantities and it will be unlikely that
518 farmers can adopt it. Up to now, very few plants exist that have potential for nutraceutical
519 exploitations and that benefit from the availability of solid agronomic information suitable for large-
520 scale production.

521 In some parts of the world, where nutraceutical legume plants can be sown in conventional pastures,
522 animals may consume the nutraceutical plant together with the normal grass or herbs. In other
523 areas, farmers may not be able to oversee their paddocks or may decide to dedicate a certain
524 paddock to produce only the nutraceutical plant (i.e. monoculture). In that case, the nutraceutical
525 material can be offered in the form of hay, silage or pellets. These types of R&D studies have been
526 developed or seem best suited for farmers who are looking for alternative GIN control measures.

527 This is particularly the case of organic farming or milk production systems based on small ruminants.

528 In the temperate areas, as mentioned above, two legume forages have been the subject of extensive
529 studies, namely sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciifolia*) in Europe and sericea lespedeza (*Lespedeza cuneata*)
530 in South Africa and USA. These studies have involved a wide range of disciplines: phytochemistry,

531 agronomy, animal production, ruminant physiology and parasitology. Both of these tanniniferous
532 legume species have also been the preferred model for exploring the mode of action of polyphenols
533 against the different stages of GINs (see Hoste et al., 2012). In addition, R&D studies for nearly 20
534 years on *O. vicifolia* or *L. cuneata* have compared different forms of exploitation, namely direct
535 grazing, conservation as hay or silage (Paolini et al, 2005, Heckendorn et al, 2006, Shaik et al., 2006,
536 Werne et al, 2013) or more recently with dehydrated pellets (Terrill et al., 2007, Gujja et al., 2013,
537 Girard et al., 2013, Kommuru et al., 2014).

538 4.2.2 Exploiting rangelands and their biodiversity of plant resources

539 In most tropical parts of the world, the ecosystems present a wide plant biodiversity and include
540 several plant species with nutraceutical potential as natural forages. However, for many of those
541 plant species, there is no information on their agronomy or on possible propagation methods. There
542 are, however, a few exceptions, such as *Leucaena leucocephala*, *Arachis pintoii*, *Gliricidia sepium* or
543 *Cratylia argentea* (von son de Ferneix et al., 2014). All are from the Fabaceae family and are
544 exploited **i)** in plantations, **ii)** in silvo-pastoral systems that consist of rows of grass and trees, or **iii)** in
545 so-called “fodder banks” that are tree plantations in a very dense system that are not allowed to
546 grow beyond approximately 2 m in height. Thus, nutraceutical forages in tropical areas could offer a
547 variety of situations for their production. However, most farmers currently are relying on the natural
548 availability of nutraceutical plants. Meanwhile, the few people who can invest money in their farms
549 may also be able to build silvo-pastoral systems or fodder banks. Irrespective of the production
550 strategy, such plants may be used for direct browsing or in a cut-and-carry system.

551 At the moment, most farmers let their animals browse the natural vegetation. Under such
552 conditions, it is not possible to determine whether animals have consumed enough nutraceutical
553 material to obtain the desired AH effect. Cut-and-carry systems could instead be the answer to
554 ensure that animals are exposed to sufficient nutraceutical material. However, these systems are
555 constrained by time spent by farmers to harvest enough plant material for all animals, the need for a

556 vehicle to move sufficient plant material, and difficulties with harvesting (e.g. thorns). In any case,
557 such management strategies could eventually deplete the resource. Thus, the creation of low-cost
558 fodder banks represents a more sustainable option. However, it poses considerable challenges in
559 terms of investment and technical knowledge that is beyond the capability of most small farmers at
560 present.

561 For the tropical areas, a considerable amount of data has been acquired in Mexico for tannin-
562 containing leguminous trees, such as *Havardia albicans* and *Lysiloma latisiliquum*. These materials
563 were tested first under *in vitro* conditions (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2008a, 2008b; Hernández-Orduño et
564 al., 2008) and their promising results led to subsequent *in vivo* studies with sheep (Martínez-Ortíz de
565 Montellano et al., 2010; Galicia-Aguilar et al., 2012; Mendez-Ortíz et al., 2012) (see section 3.1.2).

566 4.2.3 Exploring the value of agro industrial by-products

567 In different areas of the world, interest has been growing in exploring the potential of tannin-
568 containing 'waste' or by-products from agro-industries. These represent an alternative option to
569 "natural" nutraceuticals, in the sense that the PSM can be extracted from the by-products and then
570 added to an existing feed (see Table 1). Transforming 'waste' tannin-rich materials into nutraceutical
571 feeds with antiparasitic properties could have several advantages. First, this represents a viable
572 alternative to add value to agro-industrial waste products; secondly, it may help to solve the problem
573 of the inherent variability of PSM content (see below) in nutraceutical plants, as it would allow
574 adjusting the bioactive PSM concentration(s) in feeds (Girard et al., 2013). Third and consequently, it
575 may also help to avoid any negative consequences caused by an excess of PSM in the feed.

576 Some examples of tannin-containing plant by-products that have been under recent investigation for
577 their AH activities are: 1/ by products from the nut industry in temperate areas (Desrues et al., 2012,
578 Girard et al, 2013), 2/ carob pods (Manolaraki et al., 2010; Arroyo-Lopez et al., 2014) in the
579 Mediterranean region, and 3/ coffee by-products and cocoa fruit husks and leaves in Yucatan,
580 Mexico (Covarrubias-Cárdenas et al., 2013; Vargas-Magaña et al., 2014a, 2014b).

581 4.2.4 Inherent variability of nutraceutical plant materials

582 Whatever the mode of exploitation (grown, browsed, or by-products), once a plant species has been
583 identified through *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies as a potential candidate for use as a nutraceutical, it is
584 still important to consider the inherent variability caused by several factors which influence the
585 quantity and/or quality of PSMs and hence the antiparasitic effects of nutraceutical candidates.

586 Sainfoin (*O. viciifolia*) has been extensively studied to explore such factors that influence PSM
587 contents and composition and the related AH activities (Manolaraki et al., 2011). Three main factors
588 have been identified: environmental conditions (e.g. phenological stages, areas or soil conditions for
589 growth, climate and seasons), genetic factors (cultivars or chemotypes) (Azuhwi et al., 2013;
590 Stringano et al., 2012) and also technological processes (e.g. fresh versus hay, silage and pellet
591 samples).

592 It is possible that this issue of variability caused by the different factors is also important for growing
593 sericea lespedeza (Muir et al., 2014), or for the leaves of *L. leucocephala* or *Manihot esculenta* that
594 originate from plantations in tropical zones. Variation of PSM contents may be even more evident in
595 plants that grow in the native vegetation. Under such conditions, variation of PSM content is
596 significant between individual plants even during the same season in the same geographical region
597 (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2010b).

598 Further factors, which are frequently not considered, include variation in harvesting methods by
599 farmers, such as the leaf:stem ratio that results from pruning only young leaves (branch tip) or
600 complete branches (often based on biomass feed requirement), and post-harvest practices, such as
601 sun drying, wilting, which are often based on nutritional advice, but may not have considered the
602 effects on the bioactive PSMs, such as their reduced content or activity in the feed. As the common
603 and traditional view is that PSMs are anti-nutritional factors, this type of advice will need to be
604 revised for nutraceuticals.

605 However, as far as we are aware, hardly any research has been conducted on selecting or breeding
606 for bioactive plants with stable tannin or other PSM compositions. This seems to be an opportunity
607 that would be worth exploring as we have shown that a few relatively 'robust' sainfoin and sorghum
608 chemovars used earlier exist, where the PSM composition was much less dependent on the
609 environment (Azuhwi et al., 2013a; Mueller-Harvey and Dhanoa, 1991).

610 5. PERSPECTIVES

611 Based on the previous description of tannin-containing legumes against GIN in small ruminants and
612 the development of methodological approaches for exploring the nutraceutical concept, several
613 areas for future research have been identified that focus on on-farm applications.

614 5.1 What else? Novel parasitic "targets" for tannin-containing legumes

615 5.1.1 Against GINs in other host species.

616 Several recent *in vitro* results have shown that tanniferous legumes can also regulate worm biology
617 of the main genera of GINs in cattle (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2012). Significant results were obtained
618 with extracts of sainfoin (*O. viciifolia*); *L. corniculatus* and *L. pedunculatus* against *Ostertagia*
619 *ostertagii* and *Cooperia oncophora* (Novobilsky et al, 2011, 2013). These data are offering
620 opportunities for *in vivo* studies and to promote the combined control of bloat and GINs in cattle
621 production. Recently, a 50% reduction in worm burden was obtained in calves infected with *O.*
622 *ostertagi* and fed sainfoin pellets (Desrues et al, 2015 WAAVP 2015 abstract).

623 Attempts have been made in South Africa to regularly include wattle extracts (*A. karroo*) as a
624 supplementary feed for cattle that are infected with *Haemonchus* sp and *Oesophagostomum*
625 *columbianum*. These studies reported a reduction in egg excretion (Xhomfulana et al., 2009).

626

627 Two recent studies, based on *in vitro* assays, have also underscored that different tanniferous plant
628 sources could also be used against GIN in monogastric livestock hosts given the positive assessment

629 of AH effects against *Oesophagostomum dentatum* and *Ascaris suum* in pigs (Williams et al., 2014a
630 and b). However, it remains to be seen whether these tannin resources will be used as herbal
631 remedies or as nutraceuticals (Table 1). These *in vitro* data are supported by a field observation
632 study that examined the effects of acorns (*Quercus robur*) fed to outdoor pigs which had been raised
633 with natural nematode infections. The results indicated a dramatic reduction (> 90 %) in GIN faecal
634 egg count (Salajpal et al., 2004).

635

636 5.1.2. Against other digestive parasites

637 Recent investigations have also explored the effects of tannin-containing plants against *Eimeria*
638 infections in small ruminants. Although early results were disappointing from an *in vitro* assays that
639 examined a wide range of sainfoin extracts for their capacity to inhibit oocyst sporulation (Saratsis et
640 al., 2012), the results of *in vivo* studies on natural infection were much more encouraging. These
641 studies evaluated sainfoin fed to lambs (Saratsis et al., 2012), and sericea lespedeza (*Lespedeza*
642 *cuneata*) fed to either lambs (Burke et al., 2013) fed before and at weaning or kids (Kommuru et al.,
643 2014). Moreover, some early results are also available that examined the effect of *Pistacia lentiscus*
644 in young goats (Markovics et al., 2012).

645

646 In most of these *in vivo* trials, significant reductions in oocyst excretion were measured when young
647 animals were fed with legumes. In particular, kids fed with *L. cuneata* showed reductions greater
648 than 90 %. In addition, there was some evidence that sericea lespedeza had a positive effect on host
649 resilience, as it led to a lower requirement for anti-coccidian treatments. These promising results
650 suggest that tannin containing legumes, in particular pellets of sericea lespedeza, represent an
651 option for a plant-based control of coccidiosis in small ruminants around weaning time.

652

653 The ability of lambs and kids to consume sufficient nutraceutical amounts to prevent coccidiosis
654 around weaning could be a limiting factor that will need to be considered. However, results of a

655 recent experiment with calves, which were under 15-day old, are promising: supplementation of milk
656 with concentrated pomegranate extract may, depending on the concentration, reduce faecal oocyst
657 count and diarrhoea intensity and duration because of *Cryptosporidium parvum* infection (Weyl-
658 Feinstein et al., 2014) [it should be noted, however, that pomegranate contains mostly ellagitannins
659 – and not CTs].

660 **5.2. Exploring plant resources as nutraceuticals: example of other plant families, other bioactive** 661 **PSMs.**

662 The logical and successive steps described in section 3 have helped to identify other botanical
663 resources, which could be exploited as nutraceuticals. Two examples that meet the general criteria of
664 nutraceuticals as defined in Table 1 will be mentioned here to illustrate these issues.

665 An impressive range of studies has been performed in Spain that investigated the AH effects of
666 different heather species that belong to three *Erica spp* and one *Caluna sp* (Ericaceae) and are
667 browsed by Cashmere goats (Moreno-Gonzalo et al., 2012). This is a first example for which a whole
668 series of consistent results were obtained that covered *in vitro* assays (e.g. Moreno-Gonzalo et al.,
669 2013), controlled *in vivo* studies with experimental infections in confined conditions (Frutos et al.,
670 2008; Moreno-Gonzalo et al., 2014) and systemic studies with natural infections (Osoro et al., 2009).

671

672 Chicory (*Cichorium intybus*) (Asteraceae), when used as a forage for ruminants, represents another
673 example of potential nutraceutical with AH properties, which has illustrated the “robustness” of the
674 methodological approach described in section 3. Chicory has been shown to possess AH properties
675 based on experiments that ranged from *in vitro* assays (Molan et al., 2003b; Foster et al., 2011 a,b),
676 simple *in vivo* studies (Peña-Espinoza et al., 2015 WAAVP2015 abstract), to systemic studies
677 (Athanasiadou et al., 2007; Tzamaloukas et al., 2006 a,b; Nielsen et al., 2009).

678

679 Two other points are worth mentioning in comparison of chicory and the legume models and
680 illustrate which additional studies are required to expand the nutraceutical concept for tackling
681 digestive parasites in infected livestock.

682

- 683 • Based on several *in vitro* results, the nature of the AH PSMs of chicory seems to stem from
684 sesquiterpene lactones and not from CTs and related polyphenols (Molan et al., 2003b,
685 Foster et al., 2006, 2011a and b).
- 686 • Despite the different PSMs, results acquired with chicory forages also illustrated that
687 environmental and genetic factors affected the anti-parasitic activity and were linked to
688 variations in PSM quantity or composition. This is evidenced by marked differences between
689 cultivars (Miguel Peña-Espinoza, personal communication, 2015). Therefore, these factors
690 require addressing before to seeking on-farm implementations for such nutraceuticals
691 (Foster et al., 2006, 2011a).

692 **5.3. Self-medication and nutraceuticals: a novel field for basic researches on the host-gastro** 693 **intestinal nematode interactions.**

694 Given that the antiparasitic effects of nutraceuticals depend on the PSM concentration in a feed and
695 on the length of consumption by the infected host, the tannin-containing legumes provide a valuable
696 model to explore the host-parasite (GIN) interactions in regard of regulation of infection related to
697 the host feeding behaviour and /or to assess the balance between host immunity and nutritional
698 behaviour (Hoste et al., 2010). Interesting studies can and have yet been performed that examine 1/
699 the ability of the host to select a feed with AH properties when hosts are infected or not with GINs
700 (=self-medication) (Lisonbee et al, 2009; Villalba et al, 2013, Junkhe et al, 2012); 2/ the influence of
701 various host or parasite factors on the self-medication behaviour (Amit et al, 2013); and 3/ the trade-
702 offs between negative nutritional effects and beneficial health effects that accrue from the
703 consumption of nutraceuticals (Frutos et al, 2008).

704

705 It is important to indicate, however, that the influence of GIN on the ingestion of nutraceutical plant
706 materials is not easy to evaluate in regard of methodological issues. Attempts to evaluate this
707 phenomenon using cafeteria studies, where animals are exposed to different types of plant
708 materials, or direct observation methods in the field, that compare animals with and without
709 parasites, will be influenced by the quantity of parasites present in the animals (light to heavy
710 burdens), the time that animals had been naturally infected with GIN before the study began (naïve
711 or immune competent animals), the existing feeding experience, physiological adaptations (e.g.
712 tannin binding saliva) of the animals investigated, amongst several other aspects, many of them
713 being difficult to control (Alonso-Díaz et al., 2010a; Vargas-Magaña et al., 2013). Because self-
714 medication has been the subject of 2 recent review (Villalba and Provenza, 2007; Villalba et al.,
715 2014), this issue will not be developed further.

716 **6. CONCLUSIONS.**

- 717 • Because of the constant, worldwide, rapid development of resistance to synthetic chemical
718 AHs, and also because of the increasing societal demand, there is nowadays a clear and
719 urgent need to explore and validate alternative options for specific livestock systems (e.g.
720 organic farming systems, small dairy ruminant systems in EU or in caprine breeding).
- 721 • For these reasons, in regard of the control of GINs in livestock, as previously evoked
722 (Thamsborg et al., 1999) with the 21st century, we are now probably entering the post-
723 anthelmintic era and are moving from relatively simple solutions for on-farm applications
724 (use of synthetic AHs) towards much more complex options.
- 725 • The development of nutraceutical products with real potential for the control of GIN in
726 ruminants is a possibility that is well underway of becoming a reality in different parts of the
727 world for different livestock breeding systems and relying on different plant materials.

728 • The complexity of the scientific questions which need to be addressed are intrinsic to
729 nutraceuticals. Therefore, the possibility of developing on-farm applications against digestive
730 parasites requires a multidisciplinary approach between scientists with expertise in
731 parasitology, as well as phytochemistry animal production, digestive physiology, ethology
732 and other.

733 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

734 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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1109 **Table 1:** The criteria defining the main concepts of xenobiotics and plant secondary metabolites for
 1110 controlling gastrointestinal nematodes of livestock (VFI = voluntary feed intake).

Nature of the bioactive compounds	Synthetic chemical compounds		Natural chemical compounds (Plant secondary metabolites)	
	Therapeutic drugs	Chemical additives (supplements)	Herbal drugs	Nutraceuticals
Mode of administration	Forced Administration	Added to the feed	Forced administration	PSMs Included in and/or added to the feed
	Independent of VFI	Dependent of VFI	Independent of VFI	Dependent of Voluntary Feed Intake (VFI)
	Short term Well defined posology	Long term Posology defined by a range within the feed	Short term	Long term
Objective	Curative / (preventive)	Preventive	Curative/ (preventive)	Preventive/ (curative)
Quality of the active compounds	Standardised Identified	Standardised Identified	Variable Usually non identified	Variable Identification of the family of phytochemical compounds
Mode of action	Usually, well identified	Usually, well identified	Unknown	Hypotheses
Development of resistance	High	High	Unknown	Suspected

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FIGURE 1: A proposed model of the components defining the concept of nutraceuticals against gastrointestinal parasites in livestock

FIGURE 2: The different *in vitro* assays available to screen the AH effects of potential nutraceuticals (see Jackson and Hoste, 2010), **EHA:** Egg Hatching Assay; **LFIA:** Larval Feeding Inhibition Assay; **LDIA:** Larval Development Inhibition Assay; **LMIA:** Larval Migration Inhibition Assay; **LEAI :** Larval Exsheathment Inhibition Assay; **AMIA:** Adult Motility Inhibition Assay; **C. elegans:** Assays developed using the *C. elegans* model of free living nematodes.

FIGURE 3: Three key stages of the GIN life cycle have been identified as possible targets when tanniferous plants are consumed by infected small ruminants: 1/ a reduced excretion of nematode eggs by the adult worms (maximum values up to 80 % reduction) (Shaik et al., 2006); 2/ a reduced establishment of the infective third-stage larvae in the host (up to 70 %) (Brunet et al, 2008); and 3/ a reduced development of eggs to third-stage larvae (maximum values of reduction up to 90 %) (Niezen et al., 2002).

FIGURE 1

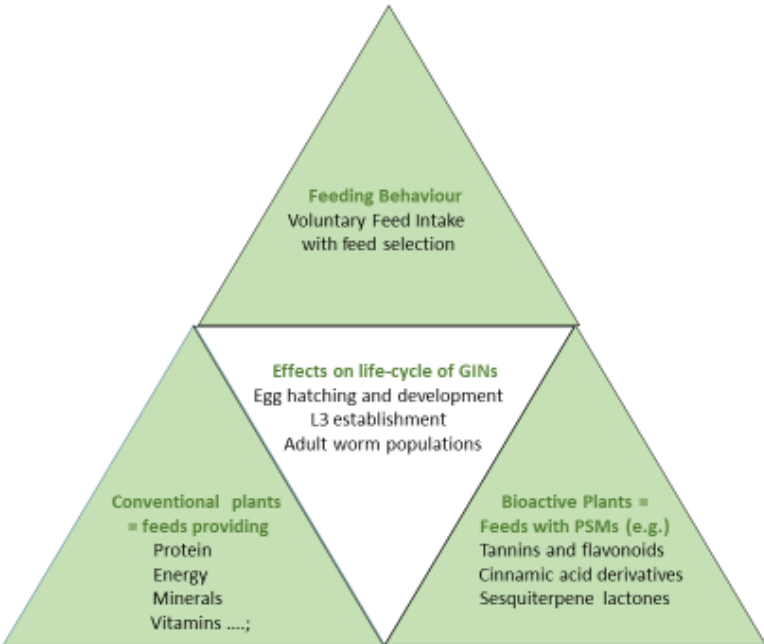


FIGURE 2

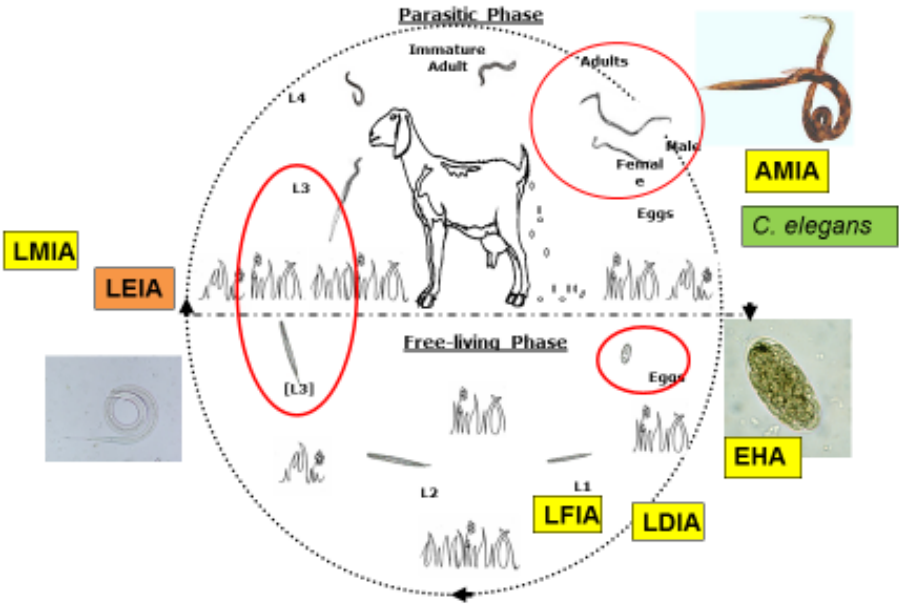


FIGURE 3

