Phytochemical Composition of Aqueous and Ethanolic Extracts of *Piper guineense, Cassia alata, Tagetes erecta* and *Ocimum graticimum* and their Implication in Plant Disease Control

4 5

6 ABSTRACT

Phytochemicals are biologically active naturally occurring chemicals produced by plants to help 7 them thrive or thwart competitors or pathogenic organisms. The phytochemical experiment 8 revealed varying degrees of flavonoid, alkaloid, saponin, tanin and phenol as naturally occurring 9 10 bioactive chemicals of water and ethanol extracts of Piper guineense, Cassia alata, Tagetes erecta and Ocimum graticimum. T. erecta had the highest flavonoid, alkaloid, saponin and tanin 11 content of 3.17%, 5.43%, 3.50% and 5.15% respectively in ethanol extract and this was 12 significant ($P \le 0.05$), and followed by C. alata, O. graticimum, and P. guineense. The highest 13 phenol content of 3.50% was recorded in water extract of C. alata followed by water extract of 14 T. erecta, O. graticimum, and ethanol extract of P. guineense. The exploitation of antimicrobial 15 potentials of these phytochemicals in the control of plant diseases incited by pathogenic 16 17 organisms is recommended.

18

19 **INTRODUCTION**

Plants are composed entirely of chemicals of various kinds (Breslin, 2017) produced through primary or secondary metabolism for normal physiological functions and defense against competitors, pathogens, or predators ((Molyneux, *et. al.*, 2007; Sangoyomi *et. al.*, 2010). Plant parts including leaves, roots, rhizomes, stems, barks, flowers, fruits, grains or seeds, contain natural chemical components that are bioactive that confer them with resistance against pathogens (Doughari *et al.*, 2009). Thus, phytochemicals as biological active plant chemicals have protective or disease preventive properties (Doughari, 2012). Studies on the phytochemical

27 compositions of some plants have been carried out and they were found to be rich in alkaloids, phenols, flavonoid, saponin and tannins (Omodamiro and Ekeleme, 2013). Okwu (2001) 28 reported that the most important classes of these bioactive constituents of plants are alkaloids, 29 30 tannins, flavonoids and phenolic compounds. Other classes include saponins, glucosides, anthraquinones, essential oils, steroids, and terpenes. Alkoloids are the largest group of 31 secondary chemical constituents of plants which are readily soluble in organic solvents and 32 slightly soluble in water except their salts (Rufai et al., 2016; Doughari, 2012). Phenols occur as 33 natural colour pigments in plants that are potentially toxic to the growth and development of 34 pathogens (Osuagwu and Eme, 2013) whereas Flavonoids are important group of the plant flora 35 (Rufai et al., 2016) whose activities include antioxidant property, protective effects and 36 inhibition of the initiation, promotion and progression of tumors (Kim et al., 1994; Okwu, 2004; 37 Kar, 2007). Saponins possess foaming characteristics due to the combination of a hydrophobic 38 (fat-soluble) sapogenin and a hydrophilic (water-soluble) sugar part (Doughari, 2012). According 39 to Okwu (2004) saponing prevent disease invasion of plants by parasitic fungi thus, possessing 40 antifungal properties (Osuagwu et al., 2014). Tanins which are widely distributed in plant flora 41 are soluble in water and alcohol (Doughari, 2012) and are used as antiseptic to inhibit the growth 42 and development of pathogenic fungi (Burkill, 1995; Okigbo et al., 2015). These natural 43 bioactive chemicals of plants have been reported to be responsible for the antimicrobial effects of 44 plant extracts against pathogenic organisms (Abo et al., 1991; Liu, 2004; Nweze et al., 2004). 45 The phytochemicals of water and ethanol extracts of Piper guineense, Cassia alata, Tagetes 46 erecta and Ocimum graticimum and the possibility of exploiting their antimicrobial potentials in 47 plant disease control are presented in this paper. 48

49 MATERIALS AND METHODS

50

51 Source of Plant Materials

The plant materials, *Ocimum gratissimum* leaf (Plate 1) and *Piper guineense* leaf (Plate 2) were obtained from market stalls in Umuahia, Abia State whereas *Cassia alata* leaf (Plate 3) and *Tagetes erecta* leaf (Plate 4) were obtained from Umudike, Umuahia, Abia State. The materials were taken to the laboratory for cleaning, drying and grinding into powder for further studies.





56

57

Plate 1: Ocimum gratissimum





Plate 2: Piper guineense





Plate 3: Cassia alata

63



Plate 4: *Tagetes erecta* 64 65 66 **Extraction of Phytochemicals** 67 68 **Determination of Percentage Tannin** 69 The tannin content of the leaves of test plants was determined using the Folin Dennis 70 spectrophotometric method of Osuagwu and Eme (2013). Each powered leaf sample of the test 71 plants (2.0 g) was separately mixed with 50 ml of distilled water or ethanol and shaken for 30 72 minutes with a shaker. The mixture was filtered and the filtrate (5 ml) was separately measured 73 74 into 50 ml volumetric flask and diluted with 3 ml of distilled water or ethanol. Similarly 5 ml of standard (tanuric acid solution) and 5 ml of each extracting solvent were added separately 75 (control). One milligramme of Folin- Dennis reagent was added to each of the flask followed by 76 77 2.5 ml of saturated sodium carbonate solution. The content of each flask was made up to 50ml

mark and left to stand for 90 minutes at room temperature (28°C). The absorbance of the developed colour was measured with spectrophotometer at 760 nm wave length with the reagent blank at zero. The process was repeated three times to get an average. The tannin content was calculated according to Osuagwu and Eme (2013) as shown below:

84 Where:

AY = Absorbance of the standard solution

87 C = Concentration of standard in mg/ml.

88 VA = volume of filtrate analyzed

D = Dilution factor where applicable

AS = Absorbance of standard tannin solution

91 VF = volume of volumetric flask used

92

93 Determination of Percentage Alkaloid

The determination of the concentration of alkaloid in the leaves of the test plants was carried out using the alkaline precipitation gravimetric method of Harborne (1973) cited by Osuagwu and Eme (2013). Five grams (5g) of the powdered sample of each plant material was separately soaked in 20 ml of sterile distilled water or 10% ethanolic acetic acid. The mixture was allowed to stand for 4 hrs at room temperature (28°C). Thereafter, the mixture was filtered through Whatman filter paper (No. 42) and the filtrate concentrated by evaporation over a steam bath to ¼ of its original volume. To precipitate the alkaloid, concentrated ammonia solution was added

in drops to the extract until it was in excess. The resulting alkaloid precipitate was recovered by filtration using previously weighed filter paper. After filtration, the precipitate was washed with 9% ammonia solution and dried in the oven at 60°C for 30 minutes, cooled in a desiccator and reweighed. The process was repeated two times and the average was taken. The weight of alkaloid was determined as a percentage of weight of sample analyzed as shown below:

106 Wt of Alkaloid ppt 100 %Alkaloid = Х 107 Weight of sample 1 108 109 = $\frac{W_3 - W_1}{W_3 - W_1}$ 110 100 Х 111 $W_2 - W_1$ 1 112 Where: 113 W_1 = weight of filter paper 114 W_2 = weight of sample + weight of filter paper 115 W_3 = weight of filter paper + alkaloid precipitate (ppt) 116

117

118 Determination of Percentage Phenol

The concentration of phenols in the leaves of test plants was determined using the folin- cio Caltean colorimetric method of Osuagwu and Eme (2013). Each of the powdered samples (0.2 g) was added into a test tube and 10ml of water or ethanol was separately added to it and shaken thoroughly. The mixture was left to stand for 15 minutes before being filtered using Whatman filter paper (No. 42). One milliliter (1 ml) of the extract filtrate was placed in a text-tube and I ml folin-cio Caltean reagent in 5ml of distilled water or ethanol was added and the colour was allowed to develop for 2 hours at room temperature. The absorbance of the developed colour was

measured at 760 nm wave length. The process was repeated two more times and an averagetaken. The phenol content was calculated thus.

128 % Phenol = $\frac{100}{W} \times \frac{AY}{AS} \times \frac{C}{100} \times \frac{VF}{VA} \times \frac{D}{1}$ 129 W AS 100 VA 1

130 Where,

131 W = weight of sample analysed

AY = Absorbance of the standard solution

133 C = Concentration of standard in mg /ml.

134 VA = volume of filtrate analysed

135 D = Dilution factor where applicable

AS = Absorbance of standard tannin solution

137 VF = Total filtrate volume.

138

Determination of Flavoniods

Flavonoid was determined using the method of Omodamiro and Ekeleme (2013). The processed sample of test plant materials was weighed (5g) and boiled in 100 ml of 2M HCl solution under reflux for 40 minutes. It was allowed to cool and then filtered with a Whatman (No 42) filter paper. The filtrate was treated with equal volume of ethyl acetate (contained in the ethyl acetate portion) and was recovered by filtration using pre-weighed filter paper. The weight was obtained after drying in the oven at 60°C and cooling in a desiccator. The process was repeated two more times to get an average. The quantity of flavonoid was determined as shown below:

147 % Flavonoid =
$$\frac{W_2 - W_1}{W_2 - W_1}$$
 X $\frac{100}{1}$
148 Weight of sample 1

149 Where:

150 W_2 =weight of filter paper and flavonoid precipitate

- 151 W_1 =weight of filter paper alone
- 152

153 **Determination of Saponin**

The saponin content of the sample was determined by double extraction gravimetric method by 154 Osuagwu and Eme (2013). Each of the powered sample (5g) of the test plant materials was 155 mixed with 50 ml of distilled water or 20% ethanol solution in a flask. The mixture was heated 156 with periodic agitation in water bath for 90 minutes at 55° C. It was then filtered through 157 Whatman filter paper (No. 42). The residue was extracted with 50 ml of 20% ethanol or distilled 158 water and reduced to about 40 ml at 90°C and transferred to a separating funnel where 40 ml of 159 160 diethyl ether was added and shaken vigorously. Separation was by partition during which the ether layer was discarded and the aqueous layer reserved. Re-extraction by partitioning was done 161 repeatedly until the aqueous layer became clear in colour. The saponins were extracted, with 60 162 163 ml of normal butanol. The combined extracts were washed with 5% aqueous sodium chloride (NaCl) solution and evaporated to dryness in a pre-weighed evaporation dish. It was dried at 60° 164 C in the oven and reweighed after cooling in a dessicator. The process was repeated two more 165 times to get an average. The percentage Saponin content was determined as shown below: 166

167 % Saponin = Wt of Saponin X 100
168 X 169 =
$$\frac{W_3 - W_1}{W_2 - W_1}$$
 X 100
170 X 100

171 Where:

- 172 W_1 = weight of evaporating dish
- 173 W_2 =weight of dish + sample
- 174 W_3 = weight of dish + saponin
- 175

176 Experimental Design and Data analysis

177 The laboratory experiments were laid out in completely randomized design (CRD) and replicated 178 three times. The data were analyzed using Analysis of Variance (AOVA) and means separated 179 using least significant difference at 5% level of probability.

180

181 **RESULTS**

182

The quantitative phytochemical composition of water and ethanol extracts of the plant materials 183 is shown in the Table 1. The result showed that with exception of phenol that recorded the 184 185 highest value in water extract, the phytochemicals of the plant materials were more when ethanol was used as extracting solvent and this was significant ($P \le 0.05$). T. erecta had the highest 186 flavonoid, alkaloid, saponin and tanin contents in both ethanol and water extracts followed by C. 187 alata, O. graticimum and P. guineense. The highest and lowest flavonoid content of 3.17 % and 188 1.07% were recorded in the ethanol extract of T. erecta and water extract of P. guineense 189 respectively. The ethanol extract of T. erecta had the highest alkaloid content (5.43%) followed 190 by C. alata (4.33%), O. graticimum (4.03%) and P. guineense (3.58%). The highest saponin and 191 tannin contents of 3.50% and 5.15% respectively were recorded in T. erecta ethanol extract. The 192

water extract of the plant materials recorded more phenol than ethanol extracts with highest phenol content of 3.50% in water extract of *C. alata*, followed by *T. erecta* (3.36%), *O. graticimum* (3.03%) and *P. guineense* which recorded the least value of 1.60% in water extract but highest value of 2.55% in ethanol extract. Generally, there were higher percentages of the phytochemicals in ethanol extracts than in water extracts except in phenol where the water extract contained more than ethanol extract in all the test plants except *P. guineense* which recorded the highest percentage of phenol in ethanol extract.

200

201	Table 1: Phytochemical composition of aqueous and ethanol extracts of O. graticimum, P.
202	guineense, C. alata and T. erecta.

Plant	Extracts and Phytochemical Composition (%)									
	Flavonoid		Alkaloid		Saponin		Tanin		Phenol	
	EE	WW	EE	WW	EE	WW	EE	WW	EE	WW
Piper guineense	2.07	1.07	3.58	2.17	1.82	0.83	1.88	1.06	2.55	1.60
Ocimum graticimum	2.50	1.55	4.03	3.10	2.10	1.07	3.98	1.63	0.54	3.03
Cassia alata	3.03	2.07	4.33	3.50	2.73	1.17	4.72	1.12	0.26	3.50
Tagetes erecta	3.17	2.58	5.43	4.07	3.50	1.50	5.15	2.48	0.23	3.36
LSD (5%)	0.09		0.18		0.20		0.12		0.17	

203

204 Data are means of three replicates in two separate experiments

205 WW = water extract, EE = ethanol extract

206

12

208 **DISCUSSION**

The screening of O. graticimum, P. guineense, C. alata and T. erecta for phytochemicals 209 confirmed that the leaves of the test plant materials contain Saponin, flavonoid, Alkaloid, Tannis, 210 211 and phenol which agreed with the work of Elmahmood et. al. (2008) who reported the presence of bioactive secondary metabolites like alkaloids, tannins, saponins, flavonoids, and phenols in 212 plants with antimicrobial properties. There were differences in the phytochemical compositions 213 in the water and ethanol extract of the test plants. The ethanolic extracts were found to contain 214 more phytochemicals than water extracts except phenol across all the test plant materials. The 215 difference may be due to the extracting solvents used or the solubility of the bioactive chemicals 216 in the extracting solvent with higher solubility of the phytochemicals in ethanol than water as 217 extracting solvent (Amadioha, 2003; Amadioha et. al., 2012). 218

Phytochemicals are employed by plants to protect themselves against pathogens (Bacteria, Fungi 219 or Protozoa) or insects and different mechanisms of action have been suggested against 220 pathogenic organisms, such as interference with the phospholipid bilayer of the cell membrane, 221 damage of the enzymes involved in the production of cellular energy and synthesis of structural 222 components, and destruction or inactivation of genetic material (Doughari, 2012). In general, the 223 mechanism of action of phytochemicals is channeled towards inhibition of the growth of 224 microorganisms, interfering with some metabolic processes or may modulate gene expression 225 and signal transduction pathways (Doughari et. al., 2009; Kris-Etherton et. al., 2002; Manson, 226 2003; Surh, 2003), disturbance of the cytoplasmic membrane, disrupting the proton motive force, 227 electron flow, active transport, and coagulation of cell contents (Kotzekidou et. al., 2008). Thus, 228 229 phytochemicals may either be used as chemo-therapeutic or chemo-preventive agents. Chemo-

prevention referring to the use of phytochemicals to inhibit, deter or retard growth of an organism and chemo-therapeutic referring to the use of the bioactive chemicals to exterminate an organism after it has established (Rufai *et. al.*, 2016; Doughari *et. al.*, 2009). The Phytochemicals of the test plant materials are therefore suitable for exploitation as potent pesticides and possible substitute for synthetic pesticides in the control plant diseases and reduce food losses arising from diseases caused by pathogenic organisms.

236

237 CONCLUSION

The aqueous and ethanol leaf extracts of *O. graticimum*, *P. guineense*, *C. alata* and *T. erecta* contained varying degrees of saponin, flavonoid, alkaloid, tannis, and phenol. The ethanolic extracts recorded more phytochemicals than water extracts except phenol across all the test plant materials. These natural bioactive chemicals of test plant materials could be exploited for their

- 242 antimicrobial effects against pathogenic organisms.
- 243
- 244

245 **REFERENCES**

246

250

253

- Abo, K.A., Ogunleye, V.O., and Ashidi, J.S., (1991). Antimicrobial Poteintial of Spondias
 mombin, Croton zambesicus and Zygotritonia crocea. Journal of Pharmacological
 Research, 5 (13): 494-497.
- Amadioha, A. C. (2003) Evaluation of some plant leaf extracts against *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* in cowpea. Acta Phytopathologica, 38: 259 265.
- Amadioha A. C., Uzoanya, O. and Opara, J. O. (2012) Control of postharvest micronbial
 deterioration of tomato (*Lycopeersicon esculentum* Mill) using plant leaf extracts.
 Journal of Sustainable Agriculture and Environment, 13 (1):91 -98.
- 258 Breslin, Andrew (2017) "The Chemical Composition of Green Plants". Sciencing, Leaf Group Ltd.

- Burkill I.H., (1995). The Useful Plants of West Tropical Africa (Vol 3 Families J-L). Royal
 Botanical Garden, Kew, p. 605.
- Doughari, James Hamuel (2012). Phytochemicals: Extraction Methods, Basic Structures and
 Mode of Action as Potential Chemotherapeutic Agents, Phytochemicals A Global
 Perspective of Their Role in Nutrition and Health, Dr Venketeshwer Rao (Ed.),
 InTech.
- Doughari J. H., Human I. S., Bennade S., and Ndakidemi P. A., (2009). Phytochemicals as
 chemotherapeutic agents and antioxidants: Possible solution to the control of antibiotic
 resistant verocytotoxin producing bacteria. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, 3(11):
 839-848
- 271 272

276

279

282

286

290

293

296

261

- El-Mahmood A.M., Doughari J.H., and Ladan N., (2008). Antimicrobial screening of stem bark
 extracts of *Vittellaria paradixa* against some enteric pathogenic microorganisms. Afr
 J Pharm Sci., 2: 89–94.
- Kar A., (2007). Pharmacognosy and Pharmacobiotechnology (*Revised-Expanded Second Edition*). New Age International Limted Publishres, New Delhi. p. 332-600.
- Kim S.Y., Kim J.H., Kim S.K., Ohandy M.J. and Jung M.Y., (1994). Antioxidant activities of
 selected oriental herb extracts. *J. Am Oil Chem Soc.*, 71: 633-640
- Kotzekidou P., Giannakidis P., and Boulamatsis A., (2008). Antimicrobial Activity of Some
 Plant Extracts and Essential Oils against Food-borne Pathogens *in vitro* and on the
 fate of Inoculated Pathogens in Chocolate. LWT, 41 : 119-127
- Kris-Etherton P.M., Hecker K.D., Bonanome A., Coval S.M., Binkoski A.E., Hilpert K.F., Griel
 A.E., Etherton T.D., (2002). Bioactive Compounds in Foods: Their Role in the
 Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease and Cancer. *Am. J. Med.*, 113: 71-88
- Liu R.H., (2004). Potential Synergy of Phytochemicals in Cancer Prevention: Mechanism of
 Action. *Journal of Nutrition*. 134 (12): 3479-3485
- Manson M.M., (2003). Cancer prevention: the potential for diet to modulate molecular
 signalling. Trends Mol. Med., 9: 11-18.
- Molyneux, RJ; Lee, ST; Gardner, DR; Panter, KE; James, LF (2007). "Phytochemicals: the good, the bad and the ugly?". Phytochemistry. 68: 22–24.
- 299
- Nweze E.L., Okafor J.L. and Njoku O., (2004). Antimicrobial Activities of Methanolic extracts
 of *Trume guineesis* (Scchumn and Thorn) and *Morinda lucinda* used in Nigerian Herbal
 Medicinal practice. J. Biol.Res. Biotech., 2 (1): 34-46.

303	
304	Okigbo R.N., Opara P.U. and Anuagasi, C.L., (2015). Efficacy of extracts of water yam
305	(Dioscorea alata) and aerial yam (Dioscorea bulbifera) peels in the control of white yam
306	(Dioscorea rotundata) rot. Journal of Agricultural Technology, 11 (8): 1823-1842
307	
308	Okwu D.E., (2001). "Evaluation of the Chemical Composition of Indigenous Spices and
309	Flavouring Agents", Global J. Pure Appl. Sci., 7 (3): 455-459.
310	
311	Okwu, D.E., (2004). Phytochemicals and vitamin content of indigenous species of South Eastern
312	Nigeria. Journal of Sustainable African Environment, 6: 30-37.
313	
314	Omodamiro O.D. and Ekeleme C.M., (2013). Comparative study of in vitro antioxidant and
315	antimicrobical activities of Piper guineense, Curmuma longa, Gongronema latifolium,
316	Allium sativum, Ocimum gratissimum. World J. Med. Med. Sci, 1 (4): 51-69
317	
318	Osuagwu G. G. E. and Eme C. F. (2013). The Phytochemical Composition and Antimicrobial
319	Activity of Dialium Guineense, Vitex Doniana and Dennettia Tripetala Leaves. Asian
320	Journal of Natural & Applied Sciences, 2 (3): 69-81
321	
322	Osuagwu, G. G. E. and Ihenwosu, A. O. (2014) Phtochemical composition and antimicrobial
323	activity of the leaves of Alchornea cordifolia (Schum and Thonn), Sanseviera liberica
324	(Gerand Labr) and Uvaria chamae (P. Beauv), AJPCT, 2 (1): 1-12.
325	
326	Rufai Y., Isah Y. and Isyaka M.S., (2016). Comparative Phyto-Constituents Analysis from the
327	Root Bark and Root Core Extractives of Cassia ferruginea (Schrad D. C) Plant. Sch J
328	Agric Vet Sci, 3 (4): 275-283
329	
330	Sangoyomi T.E., Asiedu R., and Ekpo E.J.A., (2010). Effects of ten plant extracts on mycelial
331	growth and conidial production of four fungi associated with yam tuber rot, AJRTC, 8
332	(1): 24-30.
333	
334	Surh Y.J., (2003). Cancer Chemoprevention with Dietary Phytochemicals. Nat. Rev. Cancer, 3
335	(10): 768-780
336	