

1 **FUNGITOXIC POTENTIALS OF EXTRACTS OF PLANT ORIGIN**
2 **AGAINST FUGAL ROOT ROT OF CASSAVA (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) IN**
3 **STORAGE**

4
5
6 **ABSTRACT**

7 Investigations were carried out on the use of the water and ethanolic extracts of *Piper guineense*,
8 *Ocimum gratissimum*, *Casia alata*, and *Tagetes erecta* in the management of postharvest
9 deterioration of cassava root caused by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Rhizopus stolonifer*. Water and
10 ethanolic extracts of the plant materials had significant differences ($p \leq 0.5$) in their rates of
11 fungitoxicity on the pathogenic organisms. Water and ethanol extracts of *C. alata* and *T. erecta*
12 respectively at 50% concentration gave the same highest radial growth inhibition of 80.20% on
13 *A. flavus in vitro* followed by ethanol extracts of *C. alata*, *O. gratissimum*, and *P. guineense*. The
14 ethanolic extract of *T. erecta* at 50% concentration gave the highest inhibitory effect of 53.50%
15 on *R. stolonifer* followed by ethanol extracts of *C. alata*, *O. gratissimum*, and *P. guineense*
16 whereas the least growth inhibition of 0.17% was recorded by aqueous extract of *P. guineense* on
17 *R. stolonifer*. *In vivo* test of the plant extracts applied before and after inoculation with spore
18 suspension (1×10^5 spores/ml of distilled water) of test fungi showed significant reduction in root
19 rot incidence and severity. The lowest incidence and severity of cassava root rot of 16.5% and
20 1.45 respectively were recorded with *T. erecta* ethanol extracts applied before inoculation of *A.*
21 *flavus* indicating that the extracts of the plant materials could be better used as protectant than
22 eradicator in the control of post harvest fungal deterioration of cassava root. *R. stolonifer* showed
23 stronger resistance to the extracts of the plant materials than *A. flavus* during pathogenesis *in vivo*.

24 **Key words:** Cassava, root rot, postharvest, *Piper guineense*, *Ocimum gratissimum*, *Casia alata*,
25 and *Tagetes erecta*

26
27 **INTRODUCTION**

28 Cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz), is an important crop contributing to the survival of human
29 beings and livestock by providing a ready and cheap source of carbohydrate for food and feed as
30 well as raw material for industries (Nweke, 2015; Markson *et al.*, 2012). It is the third largest
31 source of carbohydrate after rice, sugar and maize in the world and a basic staple food and main

32 source of energy for majority of the people in Africa and many other parts of the world
33 (Amadioha, 2012; Echebiri and Edaba, 2008; Bua and Okello, 2011; Bukanga, 1999).

34 Cassava is a basic staple food to more than 70% of Nigerian population (Eke-okoro and Njoku,
35 2012) and a reliable and convenient source of food for tens of millions of rural and urban
36 dwellers in Nigeria in its processed form (IITA, 2010; Nweke *et al.*, 2002; Taiwo, 2006; Philip *et*
37 *al.*, 2006). In addition to human consumption, cassava is used for the production of bioethanol,
38 animal feed, and starch for industrial products (Plucknett *et al.*, 2003).

39
40 Cassava root rot diseases are some of the major constraints to achieving the full potentials in
41 cassava production in Nigeria and many areas in Africa (Chalwe *et al.*, 1999; Onyeka *et al.*,
42 2008; Onyeka, 2002; Bua and Okello, 2011). Apart from reducing cassava yield, root rot
43 diseases caused by different organisms including fungi, bacteria and other pest organisms can
44 also reduce the quality of cassava roots harvested and their products. Some of the fungi found to
45 be pathogenic on cassava roots include *Sclerotium rolfsii*, *Fusarium oxysporum* Schlecht,
46 *Botryodiplodia theobromae* Pat, *Aspergillus niger* Van Tieghem, *Aspergillus flavus* Link,
47 *Rhizopus spp*; *Fusarium solani* (Mart) Sacc., and *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Tassi) Goidanich
48 (Okigbo *et al.*, 2009a; IITA, 1990). Different control measures have been suggested and used for
49 the control of post-harvest cassava root rot diseases. In view of the problems associated with
50 curing and use of synthetic chemicals in the control of storage rot of cassava root, natural plant
51 extracts have been evaluated as pesticide alternatives in the management of postharvest root rot
52 diseases of cassava incited by *A. flavus* and *R. stolonifer*.

53

54 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

55 **Source of plant Materials**

56 The cassava root (TME 419 Variety) both infected and healthy (uninfected) were obtained from
57 the National Root Crops Research Institute, Umudike, Abia State, Nigeria. The fresh leaves of
58 *Ocimum gratissimum* and *Piper guineense* were obtained from open market stalls in Umuahia,
59 Abia State while *Cassia alata* and *Tagetes erecta* were collected from Umudike, Abia State.

60

61 **Culture Medium**

62 Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) (39g) was poured into one liter conical flask and made up to a liter
63 with sterile distilled water, mixed thoroughly and melted in an electric water bath and then
64 sterilized by autoclaving at 120°C for 15 minutes. The sterile medium was allowed to cool
65 (46°C) and 15ml dispensed into sterile Petri-dishes and allowed to solidify. The sterile solidified
66 medium was used for all the microbial cultures and other investigations

67

68 **Isolation and Identification of Fungal Pathogen**

69 The **rotten** cassava roots were washed with tap water, surface sterilized with 70% ethanol
70 solution and rinsed in sterile distilled water. Pieces of the rotted tissue (3 mm diameter) were
71 collected from the boundary of the infected and healthy root and placed on the culture medium in
72 Petri dishes. The inoculated plates were transferred into the microhumidity chamber and
73 incubated at 26°C. The emerging fungal colonies were sub-cultured on fresh sterile culture
74 medium of PDA to obtain pure cultures of the isolates. **Pathogenicity** was carried out on the
75 isolates using fresh healthy, washed and sterilized cassava roots (Amadioha, 2001). On
76 establishment of rot condition, re-isolation was carried out to obtain pure cultures of the
77 inoculated isolates which were then compared with the original isolates. The isolates that caused
78 root rot of the cassava were regarded as pathogens and were **identified by reference to the**
79 **illustrated fungal genera of Sangoyomi (2004; 2010).**

80

81 **Leaf Extracts.**

82 Fresh leaves of *O. gratissimum*, *P. guineense*, *C. alata* and *T. erecta* were washed under running
83 tap water, rinsed with sterile distilled water and **air dried at room temperature (27°C)**. The
84 dried leaves of the test plant materials were milled into powder and separately weighed (10g,
85 20g, 30g, 40g and 50g) into a beaker before adding 100ml each of the extracting solvent (ethanol
86 or sterile distilled water). Each solution was thoroughly mixed and left to stand for 24 hours and
87 then filtered separately using a four –fold cheese cloth into a beaker. These filtrates constituted
88 10%, 20%, 30%, 40% and 50% concentrations of cold water or ethanol leaf extracts of the test
89 plant materials. The purity of the extracts was confirmed using the method of Cheesbrough
90 (2000).

91

92 **Effect of Extracts on the radial growth of fungal pathogens *in vitro***

93 The method of Amadioha and Obi (1998) was used to evaluate the antifungal effect of extracts of
94 the test plants against fungal growth *in vitro*. 2 ml each of the extract concentrations (10%, 20%,
95 30%, 40% and 50%) was separately transferred into a sterile Petri dish with the aid of a sterile
96 pipette. Freshly prepared molten PDA (15ml) was aseptically poured into the plates. The plates
97 were rotated gently for easy mixing of the PDA-extract media which were allowed to solidify. A
98 5mm diameter disc of each pathogen was then dropped separately at the centre of the solidified
99 extract-PDA plates. The treatments were replicated three times. **The control plates consisted of**
100 **only PDA (15ml) + 2ml of distilled water or 70% ethanol (no extracts) inoculated with the**
101 **test fungi.** The inoculated Petri dishes were incubated at 27°C and observed daily for fungal
102 growth. The mycelial radial growth of each fungus was measured with a ruler along the two
103 directions on the perpendicular lines drawn on the reverse side of the plates after the growth in

104 the control experiment had reached the edge of the plate. The mean colony diameter of the three
105 replicates was taken as the mean growth of each treatment. Fungitoxicity was calculated as
106 percentage colony inhibited by the extracts (Amadioha, 2004).

$$107 \quad \% \text{ Fungal Growth inhibition} = \frac{DC - DT}{DC} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

108

109 Where DC = Average diameter of colony in control experiment.

110 DT = Average diameter of fungal colony with extract treatment.

111

112 ***In vivo* Screening of Plant Extracts against fungal pathogens**

113 The 50% extract concentration of each of the water and ethanol plant extracts which gave the
114 highest radial growth inhibition of the pathogens *in vitro*, was used in this experiment. Two sets
115 of ten surface sterilized healthy cassava roots were each treated as a group with spore suspension
116 (1×10^5 spores/ml of distilled water) of each of the test fungal pathogens (Amadioha and
117 Markson, 2007a) as follows:

118 Group A - ten uninfected cassava roots each dipped into the extract concentration of test plants
119 and allowed to air dried for 2 hrs before spray-inoculating with the spore suspension of the test
120 fungal pathogens.

121 Group B - ten uninfected cassava roots each spray-inoculated with the spore suspension, air dried
122 for 2 hours and then dipped into the extract concentration.

123 **The control experiment constituted the spray-inoculated cassava roots that were treated**
124 **with the respective extracting solvents (water or ethanol) only.** Each of the treated cassava
125 roots including the control was enclosed separately in polyethylene bags with cotton wool
126 soaked with distilled water (micro humidity chamber) and incubated at $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. The experiment

127 was replicated two times. The samples were observed daily for rot development for 14 days. The
128 disease incidence and severity were assessed.

$$129 \text{ Disease incidence (\%)} = \frac{\text{No. of rotted cassava roots}}{\text{Total No. of cassava roots}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

133 Disease Severity was assessed (Murugan and Luaina, 2013) on a 0-5 scale as follows:

- 134 0. - No infection
- 135 1 - Slight infection ($\leq 10 - 20\%$ of cassava root infected)
- 136 2 - Moderate infection (21 - 40% of root infected)
- 137 3 - High infection (41 - 60% of root infected)
- 138 4 - Extensive infection (61 - 80% of root infected)
- 139 5 - Complete rot (81 - 100% of root infected)

$$140 \text{ Disease severity index} = \frac{\text{Sum of all scores}}{\text{Number of plants scored (N) x Highest score (5)}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

143 Where; N is the total number of cassava root assessed; 5 - the maximum score of the scale used.

145 RESULTS

146 Effect of plant extracts on the radial growth of pathogens

147 The *in vitro* screening of the plant extracts against the radial growth of the test fungal pathogens,
148 *A. flavus* and *R. stolonifer* showed that the plant extracts had significant ($P \leq 0.05$) inhibitory
149 effects on the organisms tested. The inhibitory effect of the test plants increased with
150 concentration and differed with extracting solvents across the test organisms. *Tagetes erecta*
151 ethanol extract recorded the highest mean inhibitory effect on *A. flavus* (66.9%) while the least
152 was *P. guineense* aqueous extract with mean inhibition of 10.5% on *R. stolonifer*. Both ethanol

153 and water extracts of the test plant materials at 50% concentrations had the highest inhibitory
 154 effects on the radial growth of all the pathogenic organisms whereas the lowest mean values
 155 were recorded with 10% concentration of test plant materials. The water and ethanol extracts of
 156 *C. alata* and *T. erecta* at 50% concentration gave the highest radial growth inhibition of 80.20%
 157 and 82.0% respectively of *A. flavus* in culture. All the concentrations tested recorded more
 158 inhibitory effects with ethanol as extracting solvent than water and this was significant ($p \leq 0.05$)
 159 (Table 1). *R. stolonifer* showed a stronger resistance across all the plant extracts tested.

160
 161 **Table 1: Percentage growth inhibition of aqueous and ethanol plant extracts on *R.***
 162 ***stolonifer* and *A. flavus* in culture.**

Plant Extract Concentration	Fungal Radial Growth Inhibition (%)			
	<i>A. flavus</i>		<i>R. stolonifer</i>	
	WE	EE	WE	EE
<i>Piper guineense</i>				
10	6.17*±1.4**	23.0±1.6	0.17±0.8	7.33±1.0
20	23.0±0.4	30.0±1.2	3.33±1.5	16.8±0.7
30	37.0±0.2	40.0±0.9	12.7±0.8	25.5±0.9
40	43.7±0.8	49.0±0.7	17.5±1.3	30.5±1.0
50	50.2±1.6	54.5±1.3	21.5±1.6	40.5±0.6
Control	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mean	30.8±0.9	38.5±1.1	10.5±1.2	23.6±0.8
<i>Occimum gratissimum</i>				
10	13.3±1.7	25.5±0.9	0.50±0.8	10.5±1.5
20	32.8±0.8	39.3±0.6	11.8±0.6	25.2±0.9
30	40.5±1.4	53.2±1.4	19.7±0.9	30.2±0.7
40	56.5±0.7	63.2±1.2	24.5±1.3	41.8±0.5
50	62.8±0.5	67.5±0.9	26.2±1.2	48.2±0.8
Control	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mean	40.0±1.0	48.5±1.0	16.0±1.0	30.6±0.9
<i>Cassia alata</i>				
10	24.3±0.5	34.5±1.3	1.67±1.4	7.33±0.9
20	37.3±1.3	46.7±1.5	6.50±0.8	15.5±1.2
30	63.3±0.8	64.3±0.8	10.9±1.0	20.5±0.8

40	71.5±0.4	71.8±0.6	24.8±0.7	30.8±1.3
50	80.2±0.3	74.0±0.7	32.3±0.9	34.8±0.4
Control	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mean	53.9±0.7	57.1±1.0	14.7±1.0	21.3±0.9

Tagetes erecta

10	28.5 ±0.8	45.0±1.3	6.17±0.8	16.0±0.7
20	46.2±0.5	64.7±0.6	21.8±0.5	24.5±0.4
30	61.5±1.0	72.3±0.3	29.8±0.7	33.5±0.7
40	73.2±0.9	76.8±0.5	35.0±0.4	40.2±0.3
50	79.3±0.6	82.0±0.2	49.2±0.9	53.5±0.6
Control	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mean	56.5±0.8	66.9±0.6	27.9±0.7	33.0±0.5

LSD (5%) Conc.	3.78	3.03
LSD (5%) Extract	1.96	1.58

164

165 WE = water extract, EE = ethanol extract

166 *Values are means of three replicates in two separate experiments.

167 ** Standard Error

168 **Effect of plant extracts on disease incidence and severity *in vivo***

169 The *in vivo* screening of plant extracts applied before and after spray-inoculating with the spore
170 suspension (1×10^5 spores/ml of distilled water) of the test fungi indicated that incidence of
171 cassava root rot was significantly reduced by the treatment both before and after inoculation
172 when compared with the control experiment (Table 2). The same trend was observed in the
173 severity of cassava root rot (Table 3). *P. guineense* water extract had the highest percentage
174 disease incidence of 48.6% when it was applied after the inoculation with spore suspension of *R.*
175 *stolonifer* followed by *O. graticimum*, *C. alata* and *T. erecta*. The lowest incidence and severity
176 of cassava tuber rot of 16.5% and 1.45 respectively were recorded with *T. erecta* ethanol extracts
177 applied before inoculation of *A. flavus*. Generally, the extracts of *T. erecta* had a stronger
178 inhibitory effect on the pathogens than the other three plant extracts whereas *R. stolonifer*

179 showed stronger resistance to the plant extracts than *A. flavus* both before and after spray-
 180 inoculating with the pathogenic organisms.

181

182

183 **Table 2: Effect of aqueous and ethanol plant extracts applied before and after inoculation**
 184 **on the disease incidence by *R. stolonifer* and *A. flavus* in vivo**

Treatment	Pathogens and Disease Incidence (%)			
	<i>A. flavus</i>		<i>R. stolonifer</i>	
	A	B	A	B
<i>Piper guineense</i>				
Water extract	43.3*±1.4**	34.2±0.9	48.6±1.5	38.9±0.8
Ethanol extract	32.3±2.1	28.2±1.6	40.4±0.9	32.0±1.4
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i>				
Water extract	40.5±1.6	27.0±0.8	47.5±1.3	36.8±1.4
Ethanol extract	30.5±0.7	21.9±1.4	38.2±0.8	27.2±1.0
<i>Cassia alata</i>				
Water extract	40.3±0.9	25.4±1.5	43.3±0.6	33.8±1.7
Ethanol extract	30.3±0.8	20.3±0.6	31.9±1.0	22.3±2.0
<i>Tagetes erecta</i>				
Water extract	34.2±1.5	24.5±1.2	40.5±0.9	30.5±1.5
Ethanol extract	26.8±1.3	16.8±1.7	30.3±0.8	20.5±0.6
Control	50.50±1.4	45.68±1.2	62.83±1.6	58.60±1.0
LSD (5%)	3.71		1.48	

185 *Values are means of three replicates in two separate experiments.

186 ** Standard Error

187

188 **Table 3: Effect of aqueous and ethanol plant extracts applied before and after inoculation**
 189 **on the disease severity of cassava root incited by *R. stolonifer* and *A. flavus*.**

Treatment	Pathogens and Disease Severity Index			
	<i>A. flavus</i>		<i>R. stolonifer</i>	
	A	B	A	B
<i>Piper guineense</i>				
Water extract	4.30*±1.4**	3.47±0.8	3.67±1.0	4.73±0.9
Ethanol extract	3.14±0.8	2.20±0.7	2.20±1.6	2.47±1.8
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i>				
Water extract	4.17±1.0	3.20±1.5	3.13±0.9	4.10±0.7
Ethanol extract	3.03±1.2	2.20±1.8	3.20±0.7	1.97±1.3
<i>Cassia alata</i>				
Water extract	3.43±1.5	3.50±1.2	3.33±0.8	3.30±0.9
Ethanol extract	3.17±1.6	1.97±0.8	2.17±1.3	2.10±0.7
<i>Tagetes erecta</i>				
Water extract	3.30±0.6	2.50±1.0	3.10±0.8	3.17±0.5
Ethanol extract	3.23±0.7	1.45±0.4	2.37±0.9	1.77±1.2
Control	6.7±0.4	4.37±1.5	5.47±1.4	4.96±1.8
LSD (5%)	0.42		0.38	

190 *Values are means of three replicates in two separate experiments.

191 ** Standard Error

192

193

194 **DISCUSSION**

195 The pathogens, *Aspergillus flavus* and *Rhizopus stolonifer* inciting cassava root rot in this study
196 have been previously linked with postharvest rot of cassava, yam and cocoyam (Okigbo *et al.*,
197 2015; 2014; 2009a). Amadioha and Markson (2007b) and Okigbo *et al.*, (2009b) implicated
198 *Botryodiplodia acerina* and *A. niger* as the leading cause of postharvest fungal rot of cassava
199 which is at variance with *R. stolonifer* and *A. flavus* in this study. The difference could be due to
200 the variety and age of the cassava root used and location especially the prevailing environmental
201 factors where the studies were conducted.

202

203 The result of the inhibitory potentials of the water and ethanolic extracts of test plant materials
204 against the radial growth of the two fungal pathogens showed significant differences ($p \leq 0.5$) in
205 their rates of fungitoxicity on *A. flavus* and *R. stolonifer*. The ethanolic extract of *T. erecta* at
206 50% concentration gave the highest inhibitory effect on *A. flavus* whereas the least radial growth
207 inhibition was recorded by 10% water extract of *P. guineense* on *R. stolonifer*. This implies that
208 the two fungal pathogens showed differences in their rates of resistance or susceptibility to the
209 extracts of the test plants with *R. stolonifer* being less susceptible than *A. flavus* indicating that
210 the fungus may have devised means of resisting the effect of the plant extracts (Umana *et al.*,
211 2016). The different concentrations of the plant extracts also showed significant differences in
212 their mean growth inhibitory effects with the higher concentrations (50%) having more inhibitory
213 effects on the pathogens than the lower concentrations. This corroborates the work of Suleiman
214 (2010) and Amadioha (2006) who recorded a significant difference in mycelial growth inhibition
215 by various plant extract concentrations with higher concentrations giving remarkable fungitoxic

216 effect. This shows that the antimicrobial potentials of the test plant materials can effectively be
217 realized at higher concentrations of extracts (Nwinyi *et al.*, 2009). Also, the higher
218 concentrations of the test plant materials may have contained more active ingredients due to
219 higher dilution in the extracting solvent than the lower concentration with low dilution due to
220 some inhibitory factors (Umana *et al.*, 2016). This finding also agrees with the reports of
221 Amadioha, (2000) and Okigbo *et al.*, (2009a) that the difference in the fungitoxicity of extracts
222 may be due to the differences in the solubility of the active ingredients or compounds in
223 extracting medium. The study on the fungitoxic potentials of the various extracts of the plant
224 materials showed that *T. erecta* and *C. alata* were more fungitoxic and exhibited the highest
225 percentage growth inhibition on the radial growth of the rot pathogens suggesting that the plant
226 materials contain some active compounds/phytochemicals that affected the radial growth of the
227 rot pathogens in culture. The ethanolic extracts recorded the highest radial growth inhibition in
228 culture across all the concentrations and plant materials. This observation suggests that ethanol
229 as extracting medium dissolved more active compounds present in the plant materials than water
230 which dissolved less active principles or compounds (Anukworji *et al.*, 2012). *P. guineense* gave
231 the lowest growth inhibitory effect whereas *T. erecta* recorded the highest inhibitory effects
232 across the test fungi indicating that the pathogenic organisms reacted differently to the
233 phytochemicals of test plant materials extracted by different extracting solvents.

234

235 The results of *in vivo* test of the plant extracts applied before and after inoculation with spore
236 suspension of test fungi and their effect on the incidence and severity of cassava root rot
237 indicated significant differences ($p \leq 0.05$) with the application of the extracts before inoculation
238 recording a lower disease incidence and severity by the rot causing organisms than application of
239 the extracts after inoculation. However, the water and ethanolic extracts of the test plant

240 materials showed significant differences in their reduction of disease incidence and severity
241 caused by the test organisms when compared with the control experiment. The least percentage
242 tuber rot was recorded in tubers treated with *T. erecta* ethanol extract applied before inoculation
243 of *A. flavus* while the highest incidence of cassava root rot was recorded with *P. guineense* water
244 extract applied after inoculation of *R. stolonifer*. It was observed that *T. erecta* and *C. alata*
245 reduced the growth and spread of the test fungi during pathogenesis than *P. guineense* and *O.*
246 *graticimum in vivo* while *R. stolonifer* had more resistance to the plant extracts than *A. flavus*.
247 Extracts of *T. erecta* and *C. alata* could therefore be exploited as biopesticide and alternative to
248 synthetic chemicals by resource poor farmers in the control of storage rot of cassava caused *A.*
249 *flavus* and *R. stolonifer*.

250

251 CONCLUSION

252 The water and ethanolic extracts of *P. guineense*, *O. graticimum*, *C. alata*, and *T. erecta* were
253 effective in the radial growth inhibition *in vitro* and the development and spread of postharvest
254 root rot of cassava caused by *A. flavus* and *R. stolonifer in vivo*. The extracts had significant
255 differences ($p \leq 0.5$) in their rates of fungitoxicity on the pathogenic organisms with ethanolic
256 extracts giving higher inhibitory effect than the aqueous extracts at 50% concentration.
257 Application of the plant extracts before inoculation with spore suspension (1×10^5 spores/ml of
258 distilled water) of test fungi was more effective in reducing the incidence and severity of cassava
259 root rot disease than when the extracts were applied after inoculation with the pathogens
260 indicating that the extracts of the plant materials could be better used as protectant than eradicator
261 in the control of post harvest fungal deterioration of cassava root incited by *A. flavus* and *R.*
262 *stolonifer*

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