

## ANTIMYCOTIC EFFECTS OF SYNTHETIC FUNGICIDES AND PLANT EXTRACTS ON *ASPERGILLUS FLAVUS*

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Received: 08-03-2023

Accepted: 28-04-2023

### ABSTRACT

*Aspergillus flavus* contaminates the seeds of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*) and produces mycotoxins. This study was carried out to proffer solutions to the infection caused by *A. flavus* on cowpea seeds. The in vitro trial was set up using two rates (50 and 100%) of each potential control agent (mancozeb, COPMET (Copper-I-oxide + metalaxyl), and aqueous extracts of Eucalyptus and neem) and a control (0%). The botanical extracts and pesticides inhibited the fungus growth significantly ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) at different times. Both concentrations of mancozeb gave 100% inhibition of the fungus at 24–168 hours after incubation (HAI). At 24 HAI, Eucalyptus extract (50 and 100%) completely inhibited the fungus growth similar to mancozeb. Eucalyptus extract was more effective than neem extract and COPMET throughout. Though the extracts of both botanicals inhibited the growth of *A. flavus* at 168 HAI, Eucalyptus (83.8–89.2%) was more potent than neem (20.3–28.4%). At 48–168 HAI, both concentrations of neem extract and COPMET had similar effect on the fungus. The early stage of the antimycotic intervention is critical to the control of the fungus. This can be achieved by dressing cowpea seeds with mancozeb or Eucalyptus. However, due to the high cost and toxicity of synthetic chemicals, Eucalyptus extract could be used as an alternative for management of the fungus or incorporated into integrated disease management programmes for *A. flavus*. Research on the effects of long-term storage of cowpea using these botanicals is highly admonished.

**Keywords:** *Aspergillus flavus*, control, cowpea, aqueous plant extracts, seed treatment

### INTRODUCTION

Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L. Walp.) is a low-input legume crop that fixes nitrogen and yields well in most soils. The crop is rich in protein, minerals and vitamins; and serves as foodstuff for humans and livestock (Davis et al., 1991; Quinn, 2014). Because of this rich profile, its cultivation has been adopted globally. Ninety percent of the global production is in sub-Saharan Africa (Omoigui et al., 2019). The crop is mainly cultivated by small-scale farmers who generally obtain low yields due to numerous production constraints. The constraints include weeds, insect pests, diseases, inadequate spacing and

environmental stresses (Adigun et al., 2014; Lum and Ekpo, 2004; Lum et al., 2018; Omoigui et al., 2019).

Fungi and insects constitute a serious problem in cowpea production and storage. Additionally, post-harvest problems result ultimately in a decrease in percentage germination, an increase in the discoloration of seeds, heating and mouldiness, and a change in the taste of the beans (Isleib, 2012; Yakubu et al., 2012). Seed-borne diseases cause decay and rotting of seeds that may lead to a severe reduction (22–63%) in percentage germination (Khare et al., 2016); and an increase in the production cost. Symptoms of the seed-borne

diseases include changes in the colour, shape and functioning of the plant. It is common knowledge that numerous fungi species are associated with seed-borne diseases of cowpea, among which are *Aspergillus spp* (*Aspergillus flavus*, *A. niger* and *A. fumigatus*) (Embaby and Abdel-Galil, 2006; Mogle and Maske, 2012; Yakubu et al., 2012; Iyanyi and Ataga, 2014; Shahnaz et al., 2015; Khare et al., 2016). *Aspergillus flavus* is a major producer of aflatoxin. A lot of mycotoxins are produced when the number of fungi species associated with a seed lot is high. When this number is high, there is a reduction in the viability, nutritive quality and germination of seeds (Agarwal and Sinclair, 1996; Rahim et al., 2013). The presence of aflatoxins in cowpea seed samples from West Africa has been reported (Houssou *et al.*, 2009).

A few researchers have attempted the management of these seed-borne diseases using agrochemicals with limited success. Kumar *et al.* (2004) observed that seed treatment with a mixture of tetramethylthiuram disulfide and carbendazim, carbendazim alone, tetramethylthiuram disulfide alone, mancozeb 75% WP, metalaxyl and thiophanate methyl effectively controlled fungi associated with cowpea seeds and improved germination. Khare *et al.* (2016) also reported similar results using dithane M45 (mancozeb). The fungi incidence reduced when the cowpea seeds were treated with captan, dithane M45, benlate and chlorothalonil by 5.3, 2.3 and 5.3 and 4.3% respectively, compared to the control which suffered 62% disease incidence.

Yakubu et al. (2012) reported that several plant materials effectively controlled insect pests of stored cowpea seeds. So far, the plant materials utilized include neem (*Azadirachta indica* A. Juss.) kernel, Eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus*

*globulus* Labill.), lemon grass (*Cymbopogon citratus* (DC.) Stapf.) and guava (*Psidium guajava* L) leaves, orange (*Citrus sinensis*) and grape (*Vitis vinifera* L.) peels, Sesame (*Sesamum indicum* L.), bird pepper (*Capsicum frutescens* L.), basil (*Ocimum basilicum* L.), groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) oil. It seems that not much research has been carried out on the application of plant extracts against fungi associated with cowpea seeds compared to their application against insect infestations. This study was conceived to proffer some solutions to the consistent problem of *A. flavus* associated with cowpea seeds using synthetic pesticides and plant extracts.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Experimental site

This experiment was conducted at the Faculty of Agriculture Laboratory complex, Alex Ekwueme Federal University Ndufu-Alike, Abakaliki in Ebonyi State, Nigeria. Ebonyi State experiences a tropical climate with two seasons (rainy season and dry season) per annum; it is an agrarian State and crops are cultivated by subsistence farmers.

### Collection of seed samples, isolation and identification of *A. flavus*

Four samples of cowpea seeds were obtained from the main market in Abakaliki and from the University Teaching and Research farm. They were packaged in manila envelopes, sealed and taken to the Laboratory. Seeds (400) were randomly taken from each of the four samples and processed to isolate the seed-borne fungus. There were four replicates and each had 100 seeds.

Potato dextrose agar (PDA) was prepared as recommended by the manufacturer, then streptomycin sulphate (1 g/L) was added to prevent the growth of bacteria contaminants. The cowpea seeds were surface sterilized in

1% sodium hypochlorite solution for 2 minutes; then they were placed aseptically on each Petri dish containing PDA at the rate of 10 seeds per plate. The plates were incubated for 7 days at room temperature (Shahnaz et al., 2015; Khare et al., 2016). The fungus was sub-cultured on PDA to obtain pure cultures. It was identified by microscopy (ZEISS compound microscope), literature and manuals on fungi (Barnett and Hunter, 1972).

### Preparation of test materials and experimental design

The synthetic pesticides utilized in this study were weighed using a mettler balance and dissolved in sterile distilled water at the recommended rates: 5.0 g Mancozeb<sup>®</sup>/L and 2.0 g Tandem<sup>®</sup>/L. These rates were considered as 100% concentrations. Tandem is a contact and systemic wettable powder formulation made from Copper-I-oxide (60%) + metalaxyl (methyl N-(2-methoxyacetyl)-N-(2, 6-xylyl)-D-lalaninate) (12%) (henceforth Tandem will be referred to as COPMET); Mancozeb (Zinc Manganese ethylene bisdithiocarbamate) (80% WP) is a contact wettable powder.

Aqueous extracts (100% concentration) of Eucalyptus and neem leaves were prepared using 333.3 g/L of distilled water. The plant leaves were blended using a Warrington blender and filtered using a double-layer sterile muslin cloth in a funnel over a beaker. The treatments were 50 and 100% concentrations of the two pesticides (mancozeb and COPMET) and aqueous extracts of the two plants (Eucalyptus and neem), and a control (0%) without pesticides or extracts. The experiment was carried out in Petri dishes which were laid out using a completely randomized design with nine treatments, and replicated three times.

### Data collection and analyses

The diameter of the fungus colony was measured using a transparent ruler at 24-hour interval from day 1 to 4 and 7 (24–96 and 168 hours after incubation (HAI)). The data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the means of the treatments were separated using Tukey's HSD test ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The SPSS Version 25 was used.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study showed that there were significant differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) among the treatments (Table 1). At both concentrations, the synthetic fungicide Mancozeb gave 100% inhibition of *A. flavus* throughout the study. COPMET (50 and 100%) provided significantly ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) lower levels of inhibition compared to Mancozeb and Eucalyptus extract throughout. The extract of Eucalyptus also gave higher inhibition of the fungus than that of neem. At 24 HAI, both rates of the fungicides and plant extracts except 50% neem inhibited the growth of *A. flavus* significantly ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) compared to the control. Neem extract caused 22.5% inhibition at the rate of 100% while both concentrations of eucalyptus gave 100% inhibition. The synthetic fungicide COPMET inhibited the fungus by 46.2% at a rate of 50% and by 76.9% at a rate of 100%. At 48 and 96 HAI, the fungus growth in plates with both concentrations of COPMET and 50% neem extract was comparable to that in the control treatment.

At 48–168 HAI, the diameter of the fungus was similar for each fungicide or plant extract tested at 50 and 100% concentrations. The concentrations of COPMET inhibited the fungus by <20%. Also, COPMET and neem extract had similar effect on the fungus. In addition, the percentage of inhibition of the

fungus was 63.2–83.8% for 50% eucalyptus; 79.0–89.2% for 100% eucalyptus; 2.9–20.3%

for 50% neem and 5.9–28.4% for 100% neem during this period.

**Table 1. The effects of chemical and botanical agents on *Aspergillus flavus* in vitro**

Treatments	<i>Aspergillus flavus</i> growth measured at 24–96 and 168 hours after inoculation and percentage of inhibition (%)									
	24		48		72		96		168	
	D	%	D	%	D	%	D	%	D	%
Mancozeb 100%	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0
Mancozeb 50%	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0	0.0a	100.0
COPMET 100%	0.3b	76.9	1.8c	5.3	2.8cd	3.4	3.2c	5.9	6.1c	17.6
COPMET 50%	0.7c	46.2	1.9c	0.00	2.8cd	3.4	3.2c	5.9	6.4cd	13.5
Eucalyptus 100%	0a	100.0	0.4b	79.0	0.5ab	82.8	0.6b	82.4	0.8b	89.2
Eucalyptus 50%	0a	100.0	0.7b	63.2	0.7b	75.9	0.8b	76.5	1.2b	83.8
Neem 100%	1.0d	23.1	1.6c	15.8	2.2c	24.1	3.2c	5.9	5.3c	28.4
Neem 50%	1.3e	0.0	1.7c	10.5	2.6cd	10.3	3.3c	2.9	5.9c	20.3
Control	1.3e	0.0	1.9c	0.0	2.9d	0.0	3.4c	0.0	7.4d	0.0

Means followed by similar letter(s) are statistically similar using Tukey's HSD ( $P \leq 0.05$ ); D=diameter of fungus (cm).

These results showed that the agrochemicals Mancozeb and COPMET, and extracts of Eucalyptus and neem had fungicidal properties against the growth of *A. flavus*. Mancozeb at 50 and 100% concentrations completely inhibited the fungus growth throughout the study period. This indicates that both concentrations of mancozeb were highly effective against the growth of *A. flavus*. Similar results were obtained for both concentrations of Eucalyptus extract only at 24 HAI. However, Eucalyptus also effectively inhibited the fungus growth at 48–168 HAI although this was not similar to Mancozeb. Eucalyptus extract and Mancozeb performed better than COPMET fungicide and neem extract throughout. Previous studies have also shown the effectiveness of Mancozeb in completely inhibiting the growth of several plant pathogenic fungi including *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium solani*, *Fusarium oxysporium*, *Phytophthora colocasiae* and *Athelia rolfsii* (Ekefan et al., 2018; Gwa and Ekefan, 2018; Lum et al., 2019; Lum and Takor, 2021;

Ndifon and Lum, 2021; Ndifon, 2022). The performance of the aqueous extract of Eucalyptus at both concentrations was very impressive. Neem 50% did not inhibit the fungal growth at 24 HAI but this was considered normal for plant extracts, because the inhibition may not always set in immediately. Both concentrations of neem and COPMET were considered as slightly effective against the fungus. The performance of Eucalyptus rates against neem shows its superiority as a biopesticide.

This study indicated that the aqueous extract of Eucalyptus (50 and 100%) possesses fungicidal activity against *A. flavus*. In another study, Ndifon (2022) reported that Eucalyptus gum (50 and 100%) inhibited the growth of *Athelia rolfsii*. Satish et al. (2007) indicated that *Eucalyptus* had significant antifungal activity against *A. flavus*. Neem had slight activity against the fungus; this botanical has been recommended by various researchers as a biopesticide against several pests and it is even produced and used commercially. For

example, in earlier studies, the botanical inhibited the growth of plant pathogens such as *Alternaria solani* (Ravikumar and Garampalli, 2013), *Aspergillus niger* (Gwa and Ekefan, 2018).

## CONCLUSION

*Aspergillus* species are frequently associated with crop seeds and some of them produce aflatoxins which are carcinogens. Thus, this research was carried out to proffer solutions to this contamination problem. Both concentrations of the synthetic fungicides (mancozeb and COPMET (Copper-I-oxide (60%) + metalaxyl (12%) and aqueous extracts of the plants (Eucalyptus and neem) had fungicidal activity against *A. flavus*. Mancozeb (50 and 100%) was the most effective followed by Eucalyptus (50 and 100%). For each fungicide or plant extract, both concentrations tested resulted in similar growth inhibition at 48–168 HAI. Eucalyptus was more potent than neem and COPMET. This trial revealed the feasibility of Eucalyptus extract for use in the management of *A. flavus*. Therefore, Eucalyptus extract could be recommended as a biopesticide for seed dressing and grain storage to replace the synthetic fungicides which are toxic and costly.

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