

## ***In vitro* Antifungal Activity of Weed Plants of Eastern Uttar Pradesh against *Fusarium oxysporum* f. *lycopersici* (Sacc.) Snyder & Hansen**

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### **Abstract**

Today, global agriculture relies heavily on synthetic pesticides, with over 3.5 billion kilograms used annually. This widespread use has been linked to various health risks, ranging from acute poisoning to chronic illnesses, including multiple forms of cancer, Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, nervous disorders, infertility, leukemia etc. As a safer alternative, plants produce a different armory of secondary metabolites such as flavonoids, alkaloids, and terpenoids that possess fungicidal properties and biological activity against phytopathogenic fungi. These natural compounds show a sustainable and eco-friendly option for disease management. *Fusarium oxysporum* f. *lycopersici*, the causal organism of tomato wilt, also affects other crops like potatoes, peppers, brinjals, and legumes. Interestingly, many weed plants are rich sources of bioactive secondary metabolites, such as flavonoids, terpenoids, and phenolics, which are both effective against diseases and environmentally safe. The present study investigated the antifungal activity of aqueous extracts obtained from various parts of 40 weed plant species, belonging to 22 families. Among the tested samples, the inflorescence extract of *Hyptis suaveolens* of the family Lamiaceae showed the maximum antifungal efficacy, inhibiting 98.19% of mycelial growth of *F. oxysporum* f. *lycopersici*. The stem extract of the same plant also shows strong activity, with a 94.31% inhibition. Other significant results were the stem of *Spilanthes acmella*, whole plant of *Lathyrus aphaca*, and leaf of *Amaranthus gracilis* also exhibited notable antifungal properties with 85.60, 81.35 and 81.26 percent, respectively.

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## **INTRODUCTION**

*Fusarium oxysporum* f. *Lycopersici* is a fungus that primarily causes the wilt disease in tomatoes. However, it can also infect other crop plants such as potato, chili, brinjal and legumes. In India, tomatoes are the third most important vegetable

crop after potatoes and onions. They are mainly grown in the Rabi season in plain and during the summer and rainy seasons in hilly areas. Tomato crops are unsafe for many diseases caused by fungi, bacteria, viruses and nematodes. Among them, *Fusarium* wilt is one of the most destructive disease, causing serious economic

losses wherever tomatoes are grown (Sudhamoy *et al.*, 2009). Some *Fusarium* species produce harmful mycotoxins in food and agricultural products, making the problem worse (Nayaka *et al.*, 2008; Mudili *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, farmers use cultural practices, chemical treatments, and biological methods to control *Fusarium* wilt disease in tomatoes (Singh *et al.* 2015).

Today, more than 3.5 billion kilograms of synthetic pesticides are used to control the various diseases of plants world-wide, which is overuse of chemical pesticides (Pretty and Zareen (2015). It has raised serious health and environmental concerns. Improper pesticide use has been linked to various health issues, such as different types of cancer (brain, breast, prostate, bladder, colon etc.) (Rani *et al.*, 2021), Alzheimer's (Frisoni *et al.*, 2022), Parkinson's (Perrin *et al.*, 2021), nervous system damage (Sanborn *et al.*, 2007), infertility (Bhardwaj *et al.*, 2018), leukemia (Rafeenia, 2022), and diabetes (Hernández-Mariano, 2022). Additionally, excessive pesticide use can harm the beneficial micro-flora in the soil, reducing soil quality and productivity (Pretty and Zareen, 2015).

As a safer and extra sustainable opportunity, scientists are exploring the use of herbal compounds produced by plants. These include flavonoids, alkaloids, and terpenoids, which are secondary metabolites that have antimicrobial properties. These plant based compounds are environmentally friendly, easily biodegradable into non-toxic materials, and can be used as natural pesticides in integrated pest management (IPM) programs (Salgado-Garciglia *et al.*, 2008; Ribera and Zuniga, 2012). Many flowering plants have proven strong antifungal properties towards phytopathogenic fungi (Rates, 2001), making them a promising solution for disease management strategies in agriculture.

Weeds, defined as plants considered undesirable in a specific context, also cause negative impact on crop plants due to their high consumption of space and water (Holm *et al.* 1979) estimated that around 8,000 species of weeds are harmful to crops, reducing crop yield. However, weeds have gained attention for their potential role in sustainable plant disease management. Many weed species are rich in bioactive secondary

metabolites along with flavonoids, terpenoids, and phenolic compounds. These herbal substances inhibit the growth of large number of fungi and are taken into consideration environmentally secure alternatives to synthetic fungicides (Nwachukure and Umechuruba, 2001).

From the above, it is far clear that there is a demand to research new fungitoxicants which are without problems biodegradable and provide inexhaustible resources (Beye, 1978). The district of Azamgarh in eastern U.P. has a wealthy flora, and knowledge of indigenous plants is nicely documented (Srivastava, 1986; Chandra 1984; Beg *et al.* 2006). Therefore, the present work was carried out to analyze the *in vitro* potential antifungal activity of few common weed plants towards the *Fusarium oxysporum* f. *lycopersici* (Sacc.) Synder & Hansen, the causal organism of tomato wilt.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

A total of forty weed plant species from twenty-two different plant families, were collected from various locations across the Azamgarh district in Eastern Uttar Pradesh (Table 1). Fresh Plant species of collected weeds were taxonomically identified in the department of Botany, Shibli National College, Azamgarh, using *Duthie's Flora* (1903–1929). For each samples, 20 grams of plant material were surface sterilized using 70% ethanol and subsequently rinsed with sterilized distilled water. The plant tissues were then crushed by using a sterile mortar and pestle, and extracted in 20 ml of sterilized distilled water. The resulting mixture was filtered aseptically through double-layered muslin cloth to obtain the aqueous plant extract. The antifungal activity of the extracts was evaluated using the poisoned food technique described by Grover and Moore (1962). Five milliliters of each extract were mixed with 5 ml of molten, sterilized Czapek's Dox Agar medium in pre-sterilized Petri dishes and swirled to ensure uniform mixing. For the control group, the same medium was supplemented with an equal volume of sterilized distilled water. A 4 mm diameter mycelial disc, taken from the edge of a 7-day-old culture of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. *lycopersici*, was aseptically placed at the center of each Petri dish. Each treatment, including the

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control, was maintained in triplicate. The fungal toxicity of the extract was assessed by calculating the following formula used earlier (Mohana and Raveesha, 2007).

$$\text{Percent inhibition of mycelial growth} = \frac{C-T}{C} \times 100$$

Where

C = Average mycelial growth in control petri dish,

T = Average mycelial growth in treatment petri dish

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Table 1: Screening of various parts of weed plant extracts on mycelial inhibition (%) of *Fusarium oxysporum f. lycopersici* (Sacc.) Snyder & Hansen.**

Name of the Plants	Family	Part Used	Mycelial inhibition (%)
<i>Abutilon indicum</i> (Linn.) Sweet	Malvaceae	Leaf	29.41 ±0.5550
<i>Abutilon indicum</i> (Linn.) Sweet	Malvaceae	Stem	26.38±0.8047
<i>Abutilon indicum</i> (Linn.) Sweet	Malvaceae	Fruit	23.35±1.8113
<i>Acalypha indica</i> Linn.	Euphorbiaceae	Stem	41.62±1.6300
<i>Achyranthes aspera</i> Linn.	Amaranthaceae	Leaf	8.00±0.5488
<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> Linn.	Asteraceae	Leaf	23.14±0.8327
<i>Amaranthus gracilis</i> Desf.	Amaranthaceae	Leaf	81.26±1.1431
<i>Amaranthus spinosus</i> Linn.	Amaranthaceae	Leaf	78.12±1.0158
<i>Ammannia senegalensis</i> Lamk.	Lythraceae	Leaf	27.61±1.4901
<i>Antigonon leptopus</i> Hook. & Arn.	Polygonaceae	Leaf	45.07±0.9997
<i>Antigonon leptopus</i> Hook. & Arn.	Polygonaceae	Flower	38.43±1.3544
<i>Argemone mexicana</i> Linn.	Papaveraceae	Leaf	37.54±1.3607
<i>Avena sterilis</i> Linn.	Poaceae	Leaf	42.30±0.7582
<i>Blumea obliqua</i> Druce	Asteraceae	Leaf	73.10±1.0880
<i>Chenopodium album</i> Linn.	Chenopodiaceae	Leaf	46.23±1.2100
<i>Chenopodium album</i> Linn.	Chenopodiaceae	Inflorescence	40.26±1.2054
<i>Chenopodium murale</i> Linn.	Chenopodiaceae	Leaf	69.27±1.2745
<i>Clerodendrum indicum</i> (Linn.) Kuntze	Verbenaceae	Leaf	41.97±1.3691
<i>Clerodendrum indicum</i> (Linn.) Kuntze	Verbenaceae	Flower	30.38±1.3335
<i>Clitoria ternatea</i> Linn.	Fabaceae	Leaf	39.28±1.2838
<i>Coccinia cordifolia</i> (Linn.) Cogn.	Cucurbitaceae	Leaf	20.65±1.1789
<i>Cocculus hirsutus</i> (Linn.) Diels	Menispermaceae	Leaf	69.29±1.5852
<i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> (Linn.) Diels	Convolvulaceae	Leaf	19.04±1.0145
<i>Coronopus didymus</i> (Linn.) Sm.	Brassicaceae	Whole Plant	23.17±1.0130
<i>Chrozophora verbascifolia</i> A. Juss.	Euphorbiaceae	Leaf	61.41±1.0772
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (Linn.) Pers.	Poaceae	Whole Plant	49.00±0.9766
<i>Cyperus compressus</i> Linn.	Cyperaceae	Leaf	49.16±0.7643
<i>Cyperus rotundus</i> Linn.	Cyperaceae	Leaf	43.26±0.6397
<i>Desmodium gangeticum</i> (Linn.) DC.	Fabaceae	Leaf	66.14±0.8756
<i>Euphorbia dracunculoides</i> Lamk.	Euphorbiaceae	Leaf	80.06±0.8877
<i>Euphorbia hirta</i> Linn.	Euphorbiaceae	Leaf	51.98±0.6987
<i>Euphorbia hirta</i> Linn.	Euphorbiaceae	Stem	50.11±0.9710
<i>Evolvulus alsinoides</i> Linn.	Convolvulaceae	Leaf	29.11±0.7924
<i>Gnaphalium indicum</i> Linn.	Asteraceae	Leaf	27.47±0.6496
<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i> Piot.	Lamiaceae	Leaf	50.83±0.5914
<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i> Piot.	Lamiaceae	Stem	94.31±0.4230
<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i> Piot.	Lamiaceae	Inflorescence	98.19±0.7486

<i>Lantana camara</i> Linn.	Verbenaceae	Leaf	42.41±0.9051
<i>Lantana camara</i> Linn.	Verbenaceae	Stem	27.04±0.9016
<i>Lantana camara</i> Linn.	Verbenaceae	Flower	21.25±1.0534
<i>Lathyrus aphaca</i> Linn	Fabaceae	Whole Plant	81.35±0.8351
<i>Launaea asplenifolia</i> Hook. f.	Asteraceae	Leaf	32.14±0.6795
<i>Lindenbergia indica</i> (Linn.) Kuntze	Scrophulariaceae	Leaf	71.20±1.0372
<i>Mazus japonicus</i> (Thunb.) Kuntze	Scrophulariaceae	Whole Plant	41.49±1.3194
<i>Malvastrum coromandelianum</i> (Linn.) Garcke.	Malvaceae	Leaf	76.02±0.9317
<i>Malvastrum coromandelianum</i> (Linn.) Garcke.	Malvaceae	Stem	54.69±0.6503
<i>Nepeta hindostana</i> (Roth.) Haines.	Lamiaceae	Leaf	43.18±0.4406
<i>Nepeta hindostana</i> (Roth.) Haines.	Lamiaceae	Stem	32.20±0.9803
<i>Nicotiana plumbaginifolia</i> Viv.	Solanaceae	Leaf	40.47±0.9641
<i>Nicotiana plumbaginifolia</i> Viv.	Solanaceae	Stem	39.00±0.9893
<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i> Linn.	Asteraceae	Leaf	17.61±0.6070
<i>Peristrophe bicalyculata</i> (Retz.) Nees.	Acanthaceae	Leaf	22.57±0.6206
<i>Peristrophe bicalyculata</i> (Retz.) Nees.	Acanthaceae	Stem	12.71±0.9289
<i>Polygonum plebeium</i> R. Br.	Polygonaceae	Whole Plant	78.72±0.6563
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i> Linn.	Portulacaceae	Leaf	8.78±0.6648
<i>Ranunculus sceleratus</i> Linn.	Ranunculaceae	Leaf	61.97±0.8180
<i>Rumex dentatus</i> Linn.	Polygonaceae	Leaf	61.37±0.9984
<i>Spilanthes acmella</i> Linn.	Asteraceae	Stem	85.60±0.6051

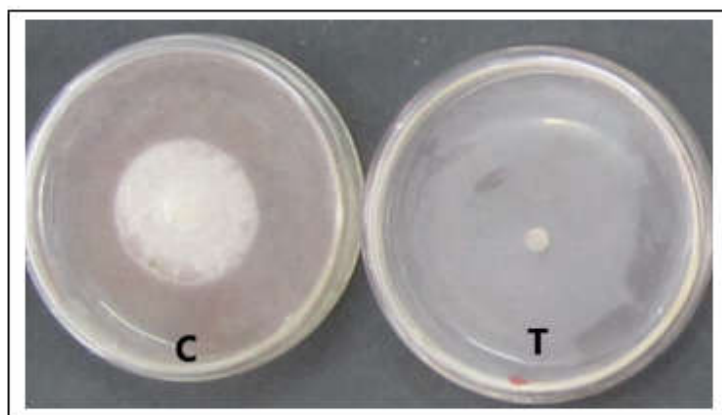


Figure 1: Showing mycelial inhibition of *Fusarium oxysporum f. lycopersici* (Sacc.) Snyder & Hansen by Inflorescence of *Hyptis suaveolens* Piot.

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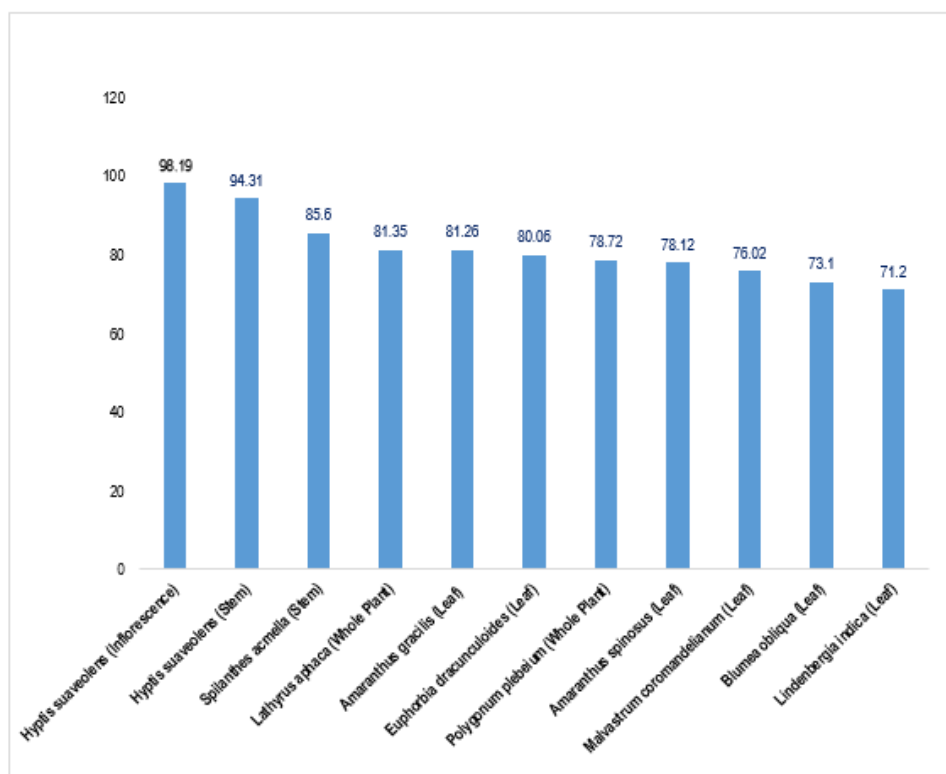


Figure 2: Samples of ten plant species showing highest antifungal activity

A total of 58 aqueous extracts prepared from 40 various weed plant species, representing 22 plant families, were tested for their efficacy against *Fusarium oxysporum* f. *lycopersici*. The results revealed notable variation in the effectiveness of the extracts, with all tested plants exhibiting some degree of mycelial growth inhibition compared to the untreated control. Among the tested extracts, the inflorescence of *Hyptis suaveolens* belonging to the family Lamiaceae showed the highest antifungal activity, suppressing 98.19% of mycelial growth. This was followed by the stem extract of the same species, which showed 94.31% inhibition. Other noteworthy extracts included the stem of *Spilanthes acmella* (85.60% inhibition), the whole plant of *Lathyrus aphaca* (81.35%), and the leaf of *Amaranthus gracilis* (81.26%). The degree of mycelial inhibition varied across different species and families, suggesting that the fungitoxic potential is species-specific. Similar inter-family differences in antifungal efficacy were previously reported by Hajek (1961), who noted that members of the family Fabaceae exhibited

stronger antifungal activity compared to grasses (Gramineae). The antifungal properties observed in these samples are likely due to the presence of various bioactive phytochemicals. These compounds, which may act independently or synergistically, have been shown in previous studies to inhibit fungal growth (Field *et al.*, 2006; Giordani *et al.*, 2008). Many such substances are classified as phytoalexins. Plant produced compounds that are synthesized in response to pathogen attack, known as phytoalexins include oligosaccharides, isoflavonoids, terpenoids, and acetylenic acids, all of which have demonstrated potent antimicrobial activity. Importantly, most of these plant-derived compounds are fully biodegradable and leave no toxic residues in the environment, making them a promising alternative to synthetic fungicides and a valuable addition to sustainable plant disease management strategies.

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