### CUCUMIS MYRIOCARPUS BIOTEST SOLUTIONS WITH ANTIHELMINTIC AND ANTIBACTERIAL PROPERTIES

ВY

### M U E D I H A N G W A N I T S H I S E V H E H A M I L T O N

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR P. W. MASHELA

CO-SUPERVISOR: M.C.MATHABE

C O - S U P E R V I S O R : A S S O C I A T E P R O F E S S O R A . C . G E L E B E

# A MINI-DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE DEGREE MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE (PLANT PROTECTION)

DEPARTMENT OF PLANT PRODUCTION

SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES

FACULTY OF SCIENCES, HEALTH AND AGRICULTURE

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

NOVEMBER 2005
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION		i
A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T		ii
LIST OF TABLES		iii
LIST OF FIGURES		i v
LIST OF APPENDICES		v
ABSTRACT		v i
CHAPTER 1:	INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 2:	LITERATURE REVIEW	3
	2.1 Introduction	3
	2.2 Cucum is myriocarpus	3
	2.3 Bioactivity against nem atodes	5
	2.4 Bioactivity against bacteria	6
	2.4.1 Bioactivity methodologies	7
CHAPTER 3:	CUCUMIS MYRIOCARPUS BIOTEST	9
	SOLUTIONS WITH ANTIHELMINTIC	
	PROPERTIES	
	3.1 Introduction	9
	3.2 M aterials and M ethods	9
	3.3 Results	1 2
	3.4 Discussion	1 8
CHAPTER 4:	ANTIBACTERIAL EFFECTS OF CUCUMIS	2 2
	M YRIO CARPUS	
	4.1 Introduction	2 2
	4.2 M aterials and M ethods	2 2
	4.3 Results	2 5
	4.4 Discussion	2 9
CHAPTER 5:	M IN IM U M IN H IB IT O R Y	3 2
	CONCENTRATION OF CUCUMIS	
	M YRIOCARPUS ON BACILLUS SPECIES	
	5.1 Introduction	3 2
	5.2 M aterials and M ethods	3 2
	5.3 Results	3 4
	5.4 Discussion	3 5
C H A P T E R 6:	SUM MARY AND CONCLUSIONS	3 8
REFERENCES		4 0
APPENDICES		4 8

### DECLARATIO N

I hereby declare that the information recorded h	nerein was originated and compiled by
$m\ yself\ and\ thatitwasneverpresentedelsewhere.$	Due acknowledgementwas paid to the
authors whose work had been cited.	
M uedi Hangwani Tshisevhe Hamilton	D ate:
Supervisor: Professor P. W . M ashela	D ate:
C o - supervisor: M . C . M athabe	D ate:
	D ate:

### ACKNOW LEDGEMENTS

The author wants to thank the National Research Foundation and the Department of Labour for the scarce skills bursary and the Land Bank for the research grant. The author thanks colleagues for their hands-on-assistance. Also, the author is indebted to his supervisors, Professor P. W. Mashela, Associate Professor A. C. Gelebe and M. C. Mathabe, for their constructive and eye-opening comments on the project. The carrying out of this study was made possible by the technical assistance from Mr E. Mathebula and Mr K. F. Mojapelo. Special thanks to the author's fiancé, Miss M. A. Mofokeng, parents and all close relatives who provided a shoulder to lean on when their help and encouragement were so much needed. The author also thanks GOD the Almighty, who has been a light throughout the project.

### LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 4.1	Bacterial growth inhibition zones of Cucum is myriocarpus in	2 6
	eleven solvents.	
Table 4.2	Bacterial growth inhibition zones of Cucumis myriocarpus in five	2 8
	solvents.	
Table 5.1	Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of Cucumis	3 5
	myriocarpus biotest solutions as depicted by inhibition of bacterial	
	growth (UL).	
Table 5.2	Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of Cucumis	3 5
	myriocarpus biotest solutions as depicted by inhibition of bacterial	
	growth (UP).	

### LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 3.1	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 3
	Meloidogyne incognita over two days.	
Figure 3.2	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 3
	Meloidogyne incognita over four days.	
Figure 3.3	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 4
	Meloidogyne incognita over six days.	
Figure 3.4	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 4
	Meloidogyne incognita over eight days.	
Figure 3.5	Effects of total extract (P <sub>1</sub> ) from Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 5
	m ortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an exposure period of eight	
	days.	
Figure 3.6	Effects of 100% hexane (P <sub>2</sub> ) from Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 5
	m ortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an exposure period of eight	
	days.	
Figure 3.7	Effects of hexane: ethyl acetate (1:1 v/v) fraction (P <sub>3</sub> ) from Cucumis	1 6
	myriocarpus fruits on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an	
	exposure period of eight days.	
Figure 3.8	Effects of 100% ethyl acetate fraction (P <sub>4</sub> ) from Cucumis	1 6
	myriocarpus fruits on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an	
	exposure period of eight days.	
Figure 3.9	Effects of 100% methanol fraction (P <sub>5</sub> ) from Cucumis myriocarpus	1 6
	fruits on m ortality of M eloidogyne incognita over an exposure period	
	of eight days.	
Figure 3.10	Effects of water (B <sub>1</sub> ) on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an	1 7
	exposure period of eight days.	
Figure 3.11	Effects of DMSO (B <sub>2</sub> ) on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over	1 7
	an exposure period of eight days.	
Figure 3.12	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	1 8
	Tylenchulus sem ipenetrans over eight days.	
Figure 4.1	Illustration of inhibition zones in 80% hexane: 20% dichlorom ethane	2 5
	$(B_3)$ and $100\%$ water $(B_{11})$ biotest solutions.	
Figure 4.2	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	2 7
	effective m icrobes over 24 hours.	
Figure 4.3	Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on	2 8
	effective m icrobes over 24 hours.	

i v

### LIST OF APPENDICES

		Page
Appendix 1.0	Extractible plant compounds by solvents used in this study.	4 8
Appendix 3.1	Number of dead nematodes in every second day after	4 9
	treatm entinitiation for 8 days.	
Appendix 3.	2 Mortality of Tylenchulus semipenetrans eight days after	4 9
	exposure to biotest solutions	
Appendix 4.	Bioactivity of $\mathbf{B}_3$ , and inactivity of $\mathbf{B}_{11}$ against effective	4 9
	microbes.	
Appendix 4.	2 Bioactivity of B <sub>3</sub> against effective microbes.	5 0
Appendix 4.	3 Bioactivity of B <sub>4</sub> against effective microbes.	5 0
Appendix 4.	4 Bioactivity of B <sub>7</sub> against effective microbes.	5 0
Appendix 4.	5 Bioactivity of B <sub>9</sub> against effective microbes.	5 0
Appendix 4.	6 Bioactivity of B <sub>10</sub> against effective microbes.	5 1
Appendix 4.	Bioactivity of B <sub>12</sub> against effective m icrobes.	5 1
Appendix 4.	8 Bioactivity of P <sub>1</sub> against effective microbes.	5 1
Appendix 4.	9 Bioactivity of P <sub>2</sub> against effective microbes.	5 1
Appendix 4.1	0 Bioactivity of P <sub>3</sub> against effective microbes.	5 2
Appendix 4.1	Bioactivity of P <sub>4</sub> against effective microbes.	5 2
Appendix 4.1	2 Bioactivity of P <sub>5</sub> against effective microbes.	5 2
Appendix 4.1	3 Inactivity of B <sub>2</sub> against effective microbes.	5 2
Appendix 4.1	4 M inim um inhibitory concentration of four biotest solutions	5 3
	$(UL_1).$	
Appendix 4.1	5 Minimum inhibitory concentration of eight biotest	5 3
	solutions (UL <sub>2</sub> ).	
Appendix 4.1	6 M inim um inhibitory concentration of four biotest solutions	5 3
	(UP <sub>1</sub> ).	
Appendix 4.1	7 M inim um inhibitory concentration of four biotest solutions	5 4
	$(UP_2)$ .	

### ABSTRACT

Experiments were conducted to select suitable solvents for extracting nematicidal and bacterial chemical compounds from ground fruits of wild cucumber (*Cucumis myriocarpus*). Solvents and mixtures tested include 80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane, 80% n-hexane: 20% methanol, 20% n-hexane: 80% methanol, 100% dichloromethane, 80% n-hexane: ethanol, 100% methanol, 100% acetone, 100% toluene, 100% water, 100% ethylacetate, 100% petroleum ether, 100% n-hexane, total ethanolic extract, 100% hexane fraction, hexane-ethylacetate (1:1, v/v) fraction, 100% ethylacetate fraction and 100% methanol fraction. Selection of the solution with the highest antihelm tic effect was done through the standard bioactivity tests.

The nematode species used in the bioactivity tests were the root-knot nematode ( $Meloidogyne\ incognita$ ) and the citrus nematode ( $Tylenchulus\ semipenetrans$ ). In M. Incognita study, the bioactivity effect ranged from 87% to 95%, whereas in T. Semipenetrans the range was from 83% to 96%. The ethanolic extract and 100% hexane fraction were the best solvents for use in assessing antihelmintic properties of C. Semipenetrans fruit.

The solvents used in antihelmintic studies, as well as 100% dichloromethane, 100% water, 100% acetone, 100% toluene, 100% petroleum ether and 100% n-hexane were tested for antibacterial properties. The bacteria used were a mixture of Bacillus species, namely, B. litcheniformis, B. laterosporus and B. chitinosporus. Extracts from C. myriocarpus fruit exhibited antibacterial properties towards Bacillus species. In all tests,

100% dichloromethane and 100% n-hexane were the best solvents for use in assessing antibacterial properties of C. myriocarpus fruits.

M inim um inhibitory concentration (M IC) of the solvents were determined using the biotest solutions extracted from 70.1 g C. myriocarpus. The 100% ethyl acetate and 100% petroleum ether had the lowest M IC of 3.13 mg/ml each, whereas in the 500 g m aterial, hexane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) and 100% ethyl acetate had the M IC of 0.78 mg/mleach.

### CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Certain plant organs contain biologically active compounds, some of which have antimicrobial properties (Mitscher, Drake, Golloapudi and Okwute, 1987). Plant-derived chemicals are gaining attention in modern agriculture due to their environmental-friendliness (Ballesteros, Martin and Uriz, 1992). Considering the negative and often-cited incidences of synthetic chemicals against non-target organisms, there is a constantly rising need for new and environment-friendly biopesticides (Arnold and McLachlan, 1996; Krol, Arsenault, Pylypiw and Mattina, 2000; Mitscher et al., 1987). Following the suspension of most halogenated pesticides, several plant species were tested for bioactivity on microbes and plant pests (Arnold and McLachlan, 1996; Krol et al., 2000; Mitscher et al., 1987).

Plant compounds that have potential pesticide properties have been high on the list of alternatives to synthetic pesticides (Ballesteros et al., 1992). One prominent advantage of the use of biopesticides is their environment-friendliness, a criterion that demerits pesticides (Ballesteros et al., 1992). Certain essential microbes, such as effective microbes, are of paramount importance as biological pesticides and for the decomposition of soil organic matter (Glare and O'Callaghan, 2000).

Crude extracts of wild cucum ber (*Cucum is myriocarpus*) fruits were shown to have antihelm intic properties, through the ground leaching technology (GLT) under field, microplot and greenhouse conditions (Mabitsela, 2005; Mashela, 2002; Mashela and Mphosi, 2001; Mphosi, 2004). Extracts of *C. myriocarpus* fruit increased the efficacy of nitrogen-fixing bacteria (*Rhizobium*) under greenhouse (Mashela and Muedi, 2003)

and microplot (personal communication: Prof. Mashela) conditions. However, under field conditions Bacillus species did not interact with ground C. myriocarpus fruits (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004), castor bean (Ricinus communis) fruits (Mabitsela, 2005) and fever tea (Lippia javanica) leaves (Mabitsela, 2005; Ngobeni, 2003).

Ground *C. myriocarpus* fruits reduced nematode numbers, improved tomato and cowpea productivity and increased soil electrical conductivity, but had no effect on soil pH (Mashela, 2002; Mphosi, 2004; personal communication: Prof. Mashela). Khosa (2005) demonstrated that the efficacy of *C. myriocarpus* on nematode suppression was comparable with that of aldicarb and phenamiphos. Mofokeng (2005) demonstrated that the *C. myriocarpus* was non-host to *M. incognita*.

Bioactivity tests are used to evaluate the influence of plant extracts on the activities of organisms under laboratory conditions. The tests are used for both screening of the materials and for assessing the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of the test solutions on target organisms. In this study, the bioactivity tests were used to identify solvents that extract chemical compounds in C. myriocarpus fruit which have both antihelm intic and antibacterial properties. The specific objectives of the study were:

- (ii) To determine the antibacterial activities of C. myriocarpus fruit extracts using various solvents against Bacillus species.
- (iii) To determine the MIC of C. myriocarpus fruit extracts using various solvents against Bacillus species.

#### CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

A large number of plant species are being assessed for their bioactivity against plant pests (Arnold and McLachlan, 1996; Krol et al., 2000; Mitscher et al., 1987). Bioactivity tests are used to assess the efficacy of various extracts from plants on pests. Also, the tests could be used to identify an appropriate solvent for a particular plant organ with known bioactivity. Ground wild cucumber (Cucumis myriocarpus) fruits were shown to have antihelm intic properties under a wide range of conditions (Khosa, 2005; Mabitsela, 2005; Mashela, 2002; Mashela and Mphosi, 2001; Mofokeng, 2005; Mphosi, 2004). Also, the absence of interactions between C. myriocarpus and Bacillus species suggested that C. myriocarpus might be poisonous to Bacillus species (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004). The ensuing literature review is intended to evaluate the work that had been done in C. myriocarpus in relation to nematode suppression and bioactivity tests of various plants using nematodes and bacteria as targetorganisms.

### 2.2 Cucum is myriocarpus

Ground *C. myriocarpus* fruits suppressed nem atode egg-hatch in laboratory conditions by 97-99%, whereas under greenhouse conditions *M. incognita* juveniles numbers were reduced by 92-93% in soil (Mashela, 2002). Under both conditions *C. myriocarpus* crude fruit extract increased electrical conductivity (EC), but had no effect on soil pH. The release of toxic compounds from *C. myriocarpus* fruit extracts is believed to be independent of soil microorganisms, suggesting that the toxic compounds are water-soluble (Mashela, 2002).

Under field studies, C. myriocarpus crude fruit extract was independent of the activities of Bacillus species (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004), confirming the ground leaching technology (GLT) which suggests that microbial decomposition was not a prerequisite for the nematicidal activity (Mashela, 2002). Briefly, the technology involves using small quantities of toxic organs in powdered form to suppress plant-parasitic nematodes. Mashela (2002) suggested that microbial decomposition was not essential for the release of nematicidal compounds in this technology, and that the compounds were leached out of organic matter through irrigation water. Cucumis myriocarpus crude fruit extractincreased tomato fruit yield, stem diameter, plant weight and soil EC by 61%, 99%, 74% and 68%, respectively (Mphosi, 2004). Also, cowpea inoculated with Bradyrhizobium had higher nodule number and weight under soil amended with ground C. myriocarpus fruits in greenhouse (Mashela and Muedi, 2003) and field (personal communication: Prof Mashela) studies.

M ashela (2002) demonstrated that densities of M. incognita in soil and roots were reduced by 49% and 83%, respectively, in spring, whereas soil and root nematodes decreased by 68% and 73%, respectively, in autumn studies. Tomato plant weight, plant height and fruit weight also increased. In another field study, the efficacy of C. myriocarpus crude fruit extract was comparable to that of aldicarb and phenamiphos on nematode suppression and improvement in tomato productivity (Khosa, 2005).

Toxic components in C. m yriocarpus crude are cucum is  $(C_{27}H_{40}O_{9})$  and leptoderm ins  $(C_{27}H_{38}O_{8})$ , collectively referred to as cucurbitacins (V an W yk, V an Oudtshoorn and Gericke, 1997). A separate study in our group aim ed at extraction and identification of the toxic components is currently underway, and it is hoped that the results will shed

more light on the structure-activity relationship. Cucurbitacins accumulate in fruits and in roots, but not in leaves. Under microplot conditions, C. myriocarpus roots did not support the reproduction of the root-knot nem atode (Mofokeng, 2005). The water-soluble cucurbitacins are amongst the bitterest substances known to man (Jeffery, 1978; Rimington, 1998). Although C. myriocarpus fruits and roots are widely used by traditional healers for various ailments, almost always, overdoses result into fatalities (Duke, 1992a; Rimington, 1998).

### 2.3 Bioactivity against nem atodes

Either fresh or air-dried plant materials are used in bioactivity tests (Mojumder, Mishra, Haque and Goswami, 1989; Naqvi, Khan, Shaikh and Shaikh, 1992; Sundararaju, Banu and Ratnakaran, 1994). The most commonly used extract solvents include water (Khurma and Mangotra, 1999; Naqvi et al., 1992; Sundararaju et al., 1994), methanol (Alen, Nakajima, Nitoda, Baba, Kanzaki and Kawazu, 2000; Mackeen, Ali, Abdullah, Nasir, Mat, Razak and Kawazu, 1997), acetone (Sundararaju et al., 1994) and ethanol (Naqvi et al., 1992). Once the material extracted from plant tissues, it is separated from plant debris using Whatmann paper no. 1. The solvent is separated from the filtrate through evaporation, usually at 40-45°C (Lall and Meyer, 2000; Naqvi et al., 1992; Rabanal, Arias, Prado, Hernandez-Perez and Sanchez-Mateo, 2002). Prior to use, the concentrated materials are stored at 4°C (Lall and Meyer, 2000; Rojas et al., 2003; Sokmen et al., 1998).

Nem atode juveniles are extracted using the modified Baermann method (Rodriguez-Kabana and Pope, 1981). The advantage of this method is that only live second stage juveniles (J2s) are extracted. Generally, the J2s are immediately used to ensure that fresh nem atodes are subjected to the tested chem ical compounds. Both free-living and plant-parasitic nem atodes had been used in bioactivity studies. The most widely used free-living nem atode is Caenorhabditis elegans (Halbrendt and Jing, 1994), whereas plant-parasitic nem atodes include Bursaphelenchus xylophilus, M. incognita, Hoplolaimus indicus and Radopholus similis (Alen et al., 2000; Khurma and Mangotra, 1999; Mackeen et al., 1997; Mojumder et al., 1989; Sundararaju et al., 1994).

The concentrated plant materials are diluted either in distilled water (Qamaruddin, Parveen, Khan and Singhal, 2002) or DMSO (Alzoreky and Nakahara, 2003; Rabanal, Arias, Prado, Hernandez-Perez and Sanchez-Mateo, 2002) to form biotest solutions. Dilutions could either be serial or non-serial (Rabanal et al., 2002). Once nematodes are subjected to the biotest solutions, they are incubated at approximately 27°C (Khurma and Mangotra, 1999). Nematodes are counted at various intervals, usually varying from 12 to 72 hours (Halbrendt and Jing, 1994; Haseeb, Singh, Khan, and Saxena, 1978; Sundararaju et al., 1994).

### 2.4 Bioactivity against bacteria

A large number of bacterial species had been subjected to bioactivity tests of plant materials. Some of the used bacteria species include: Bacillus subtilis, B. cereus, B. coagulans, B. megaterium, Listeria mononcytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus (Alzoreky and Nakahara, 2002; Enzo, Palom bo and Semple, 2001; Essawi and Srour, 2000; Khan and Omoloso, 2003; Khan, Omoloso and Kihara, 2003; Kone, Antindehou, Terreaux, Hostettmann, Traore and Dosso, 2004; Negi, Anandham akrishnan and Jayaprakasha, 2003; Pinheiro, Nakamura, Filho, Ferreira, Young and Gomez, 2003).

The solvents used include: dichloromethane, methanol, ethanol, acetone, n-hexane, water, ethyl acetate and toluene (Alzoreky and Nakamura, 2002; Hernandez, Canales, Avila, Duran, Caballero, de Vivar and Lira, 2003; Khan et al., 2003; Machado et al., 2002; Negi et al., 2003; Neto, Owens, Langfield, Comeau, Onge, Vaisberg and Hammond, 2002; Nostro, Germano, D'Angelo, Marino and Cannatelli, 2000; Okoli and Iroegbu, 2004; Pessini, Filho, Nakamura and Cortez, 2003; Truiti, Sarragiotto, Filho, Nakamura and Filho, 2003). The listed solvents extract various chemical compounds from plant tissues, with most of them extracting common chemical compounds (Appendix 1).

Generally, the procedure for preparing the biotest solution for bacterial bioactivity tests is similar to that expounded in helm intic bioactivity tests (section 2.3). However, the major difference is that a growth-promoting medium is also prepared for the culturing of bacteria. Bacteria are cultured in nutrient broth (Bassole, Ouattara, Nebie, Ouattara, Kabore and Traore, 2003; Gaidamashvili and Van Staden, 2001; Nascimento, Locatelli, Freitas and Silva, 2000; Truiti et al., 2003). The most commonly used growth medium in trials is the Mueller-Hinton agar (Bonjar and Nik, 2004; Palom bo and Semple, 2001).

### $2.4.1\ Bioactivity\ m\ ethodologies$

The plate-hole diffusion assay is used to determine the inhibition of bacterial growth by plant extracts (Palom bo and Semple, 2001). An amount of 200 µl of 24-hour-old nutrient broth culture is added into 15-ml of molten Mueller-Hinton agar, mixed, poured into a sterile Petri dish and allowed to set. A sterile cork-borer (5-m m

diam eter) is used to make wells in the set agar. Approximately 25  $\mu$ l of plant extract, with 1:200 plant: water (v/v) dilutions, are added to each well and the plates are incubated at 37 °C for 24 hours. Antibacterial activity is recorded by measuring the diam eter of a circular bacterial growth from the centre of the 5-m m well towards the perimeter of the Petri dish.

The estimate of the MIC is carried out by the broth microdilution method in microplates (Ellof, 1998; Rabanal et al., 2002; Rhajaoui, Oumzil, Faid, Lyagoubi, Elyachioui and Benjouad, 2001). From an initial extract, dilutions of various concentrations are prepared and buffered to pH 7. Five µl of bacterial suspension contains  $10^5$  bacteria per µl (Rhajaoui et al., 2001). The bacteria-extract mixture is incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 24 hours. Bacterial growth is assessed by adding piodonitrotetrazolium violet solution into microplates and observing colour change (Reiner, 1982). The first colour change represents the MIC for the biotest solution being evaluated.

### CHAPTER 3

## CUCUMIS MYRIOCARPUS BIOTEST SOLUTIONS WITH ANTIHELMINTIC PROPERTIES

### 3.1 Introduction

Bioactivity test is used to assess the impact of chemicals on living organisms (Hench and Wilson, 1993). Most of the bioactivity tests on nematodes were conducted using the free-living nematodes (Momin and Nair, 2002; Sparg, Van Staden and Jager, 2001). Free-living nematodes feed on bacteria, fungior other nematodes, and they are generally active. Ground wild cucumber (Cucumis myriocarpus) fruits reduced densities of the root-knot (Meloidogyne incognita) nematode under various conditions (Mabitsela, 2005; Mashela, 2002; Mphosi, 2004). The objective of this study was to select the solvents that extract chemical compounds in C. myriocarpus fruits which have antihelm intic properties on plant-parasitic nematodes.

### 3.2 M aterials and M ethods

The experiment was initiated on 18 October 2004 in the VLIR Nematology Laboratory, University of Limpopo. Fruits of C. myriocarpus were locally collected, dried for 5 days in air-forced oven at 52°C to minimize the loss of volatile phytochemicals and ground in a Wiley mill to pass through a 1-mm sieve. Powdered fruit material (500 g) was extracted with ethanol for 24 hours at room temperature. The ethanol extract was filtered using W hatmann filter paper no. 1 and the filtrate was evaporated using a rotavapor at 50°C. Liquid-liquid fractionation was done from the ethanol extract, using hexane, (1:1, v/v) hexane-ethyl acetate, ethyl acetate and methanol. The remaining aqueous extract was retained as ethanolic extract. Fraction s and ethanolic extract were evaporated at 50°C to dryness. Prior to the bioassay, each

evaporated material was resuspended in Dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO), concentrated to 100 mg/mland stored at  $4^{\circ}$ C (Lall and Meyer, 2000; Rojas *et al.*, 2003; Sokmen, Jones and Erturk, 1998). The test solutions were water (B<sub>1</sub>), DMSO (B<sub>2</sub>), total ethanolic extract (P<sub>1</sub>), 100% hexane fraction (P<sub>2</sub>), hexane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction (P<sub>3</sub>), 100% ethyl acetate fraction (P<sub>4</sub>) and 100% methanol fraction (P<sub>5</sub>), where B<sub>1</sub> and B<sub>2</sub> served as untreated test solutions.

Meloidogyne incognita: Second stage juveniles (J2s) of M. incognita were collected from roots of Swiss Chard (Beta vulgaris) growing under field conditions. Roots were placed into a plastic bag, 1:10 sodium hypochlorite: water (v/v) solution added, and mechanically shaken on Labcon shaking machine for 5 minutes at 75 rounds per minute (rpm) to dislodge juveniles and eggs from roots. Juveniles and eggs were separated from debris by passing through a series of sieves: 150 μm, 75 μm, 63 μm, 45 μm and 25 μm pore sieves. Juveniles and eggs were collected from the 25 μm pore sieves into 500-ml plastic beakers. Kleenex paper was placed on a 250 μm-pore sieve in 20-cm diameter plastic dish and contents of the 500-ml beakers were added on the paper to extract second stage juveniles (J2s) for a period of 3 days. The aliquot was concentrated on a 25 μm pore sieve and the J2s were washed into a 500-ml measuring cylinder and tapwater added to a 280-ml mark.

Approximately 10-m laliquot containing J2s was pipetted into 120-m l plastic nem atode bottles with caps. The  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  non-biotest solutions and  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ ,  $P_3$ ,  $P_4$  and  $P_5$  biotest solutions were each added into nem atode-containing bottles using a precision pipette with a total volume of 200  $\mu$ l. Labelled bottles were closed and mechanically shaken for 5 m inutes at 75 rpm in order to mix the biotest solutions with aliquots. The seven

treatments,  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$ ,  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ ,  $P_3$ ,  $P_4$  and  $P_5$  were placed in the laboratory shelf at  $25\,^\circ C$  in a completely random ized design (CRD), with five replications.

Live and dead nem atodes were counted from a 10-mlaliquot under a light microscope on day 2, 4, 6 and 8. During each count, the counted nem atodes were returned to the plastic bottle, closed, hand-shaken and placed in the shelf. Prior to analysis of variance (ANOVA) data were transformed using a logarithm method, Ln (1 + x), in order to homogenize the variance. However, untransformed data were reported. When the treatment means were different  $(P \le 0.05)$ , mean separation was done using the least significant difference test (Gomez and Gomez, 1984). The effect of exposure time per biotest solution was also evaluated. Means were reported using bar diagrams (Figures 3.1 - 3.11).

Tylenchulus semipenetrans: The study was initiated on 4 November 2004. Tylenchulus semipenetrans juveniles and eggs were collected from Zebediela Citrus Estate, Limpopo Province, and extracted as described for M. incognita. The aliquot was concentrated to 500-ml, after a 3-day incubation period, juveniles were pipetted into 120-ml bottles using a 10-ml syringe. The seven treatment solutions were prepared as described earlier. Treated aliquots were arranged in a CRD, with six replications.

The aliquots were mechanically mixed with the biotest solutions through shaking for 5 minutes at 75 rpm. Because of excessively high nematode counts, the nematode solutions in the bottles were diluted with 100-ml tapwater 8 days after initiating the treatments. Dead and live nematodes were counted from a 10-ml aliquot under a light

microscope. The numbers of dead nematodes obtained from the 10-ml aliquot were converted to the original undiluted 10-ml to obtain the number of nematodes per container. The study was repeated on 15 November 2004. Data analysis was as described for M. incognita study.

### 3.3 Results

The bioassay mortality trends suggested that biotest solutions increased the mortality of nem atode juveniles. Mortality trends became much more obvious from the fourth through the eighth day. Similarly, in terms of exposure time, bioassay mortality trends suggested that nem atode mortality did not differ over time.

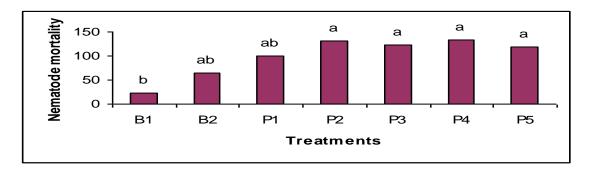
### 3.3.1 Meloidogyne incognita

The data provided two separate sets of information: (i) comparison of mean effect of the seven biotest solutions on nematode mortality, (ii) mean nematode mortality of each biotest solution over a period of eight days.

### (a) Comparisons of biotest solutions

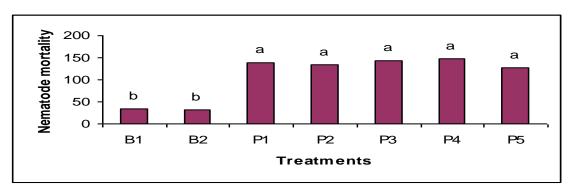
 ${f D}$  ay two: Two days after initiating the treatments, the bioactivity of the fractions on nem atode mortality did not differ from those of the  ${f P}_1$  biotest solution and the  ${f B}_2$  non-biotest solution. Although the effect of water on nem atode mortality did not differ from those of DMSO and ethanolic extract, it differed from those of other biotest solutions (Figure 3.1).

**Day four:** Four days after initiating the treatments, effects of the extract  $(P_1)$  and all fractions  $(P_{2.5})$  on nem atode mortality did not differ (Figure 3.2). However, the effects of the five biotest solutions differed from those of the non-biotest solutions.



 $B_1=w$  ater;  $B_2=D$  M SO;  $P_1=total$  ethanolic extract;  $P_2=100\%$  hexane fraction;  $P_3=h$  exane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction;  $P_4=100\%$  ethyl acetate fraction;  $P_5=100\%$  m ethanol fraction.

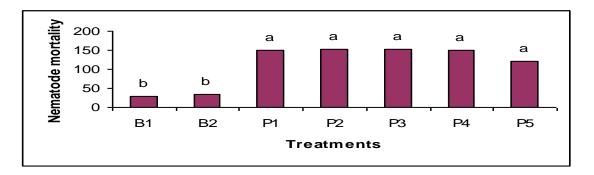
Figure 3.1 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on Meloidogyne incognita over two days



 $B_1=w$  ater;  $B_2=D$  M SO;  $P_1=total$  ethanolic extract;  $P_2=100\%$  hexane fraction;  $P_3=h$  exane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction;  $P_4=100\%$  ethyl acetate fraction;  $P_5=100\%$  m ethanol fraction.

Figure 3.2 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on Meloidogyne incognita over four days

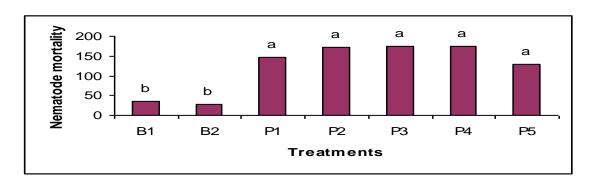
Day six: Six days after initiating the treatments, effects of biotest solutions on nem atode mortality did not differ (Figure 3.3). However, when compared with the non-biotest solutions, the materials resulted in higher nem atode mortalities. The impact of the two non-biotest solutions on nem atode mortality did not differ.



 $B_1=w$  ater;  $B_2=D$  M SO;  $P_1=total$  ethanolic extract;  $P_2=100\%$  hexane fraction;  $P_3=h$  exane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction;  $P_4=100\%$  ethyl acetate fraction;  $P_5=100\%$  m ethanol fraction.

Figure 3.3 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on Meloidogyne incognita over six days

Day eight: Eight days after initiating the treatments, effects of biotest solutions on nem atode mortality did not differ (Figure 3.4). When compared with the two non-biotest solutions, the biotest solutions increased nem atode mortality. However, the effect of the two non-biotest solutions did not differ from each other.



 $B_1$  = water;  $B_2$  = D M SO;  $P_1$  = total ethanolic extract;  $P_2$  = 100% hexane fraction;  $P_3$  = hexane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction;  $P_4$  = 100% ethyl acetate fraction;  $P_5$  = 100% methanol fraction.

Figure 3.4 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on Meloidogyne incognita over eight days

### (b) Exposure tim e

When nem atodes were exposed to total ethanolic extract ( $P_1$ ), the exposure time had no effect on the mortality of nem atodes during an eight day period (Figure 3.5).

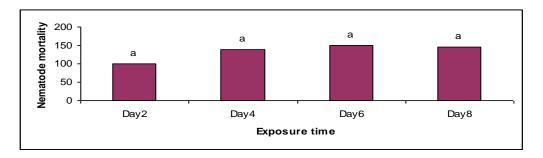


Figure 3.5 Effects of total ethanolic extract  $(P_1)$  from  $Cucumis\ m\ yrio\ carpus$  fruits on mortality of  $M\ eloidogyne\ in\ cognita$  over an exposure period of eight days

Nem atode mortality when exposed to 100% hexane fraction (P<sub>2</sub>) was dependant on the exposure duration. More nem atodes were dead on day 8 compared to day 2 and day 4 (Figure 3.6). However, during day 6 nem atode mortality did not differ from those on days 2, 4 and 8.

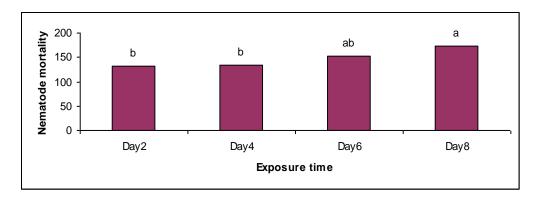


Figure 3.6 Effects of 100% hexane fraction (P<sub>2</sub>) from Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an exposure period of eight days

Nem atodes mortality when exposed to hexane: ethyl acetate  $(1:1\ v/v)$  fraction  $(P_3)$  was also dependent on the exposure time. Most nem atode had died on day 8 compared with day 2, whereas nem atode mortality in day 2 did not differ from those in days 4 and 6 (Figure 3.7). Similarly, mortality in day 8 did not differ from those in days 4 and 6.

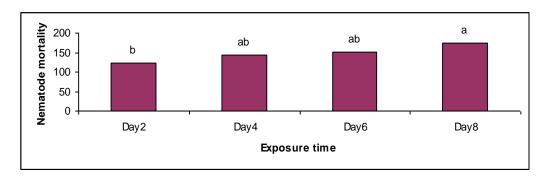


Figure 3.7 Effects of hexane: ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction  $(P_3)$  from Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on mortality of Meloidogyneincognita over an exposure period of eight days

In 100% ethyl acetate fraction (P<sub>4</sub>), nem atode mortality was also not affected by exposure time (Figure 3.8). In 100% methanol fraction (P<sub>5</sub>), nem atode mortality was also not affected by exposure time (Figure 3.9).

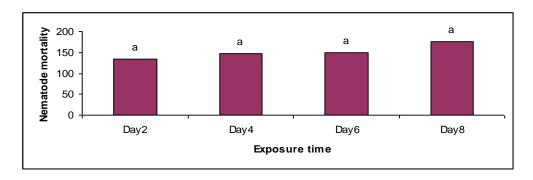


Figure 3.8 Effects of 100% ethyl acetate fraction (P<sub>4</sub>) from Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an exposure period of eight days

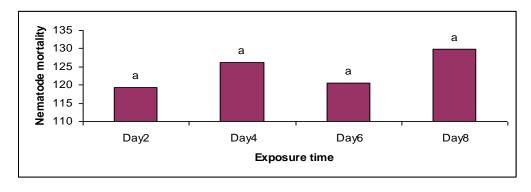


Figure 3.9 Effects of 100% methanol fraction (P<sub>5</sub>) from Cucum is myriocarpus fruits on mortality of Meloidogyne incognita over an exposure period of eight days

Nem atode mortality in water ( $B_1$ ) was fairly low and approximately constant from day 2 to day 8, suggesting that the death of nem atodes was natural (Figure 3.10).

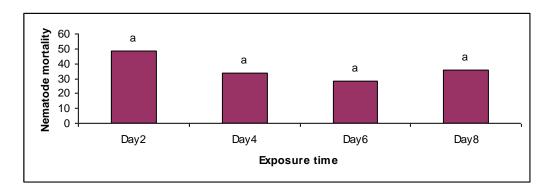


Figure 3.10 Effects of water  $(B_1)$  on mortality of  $Meloidogyne\ incognita$  over an exposure period of eight days

Nem atode mortality in DMSO  $(B_2)$  was fairly low and approximately constant from day 2 to day 8, suggesting that nem atodes were dying due to natural causes (Figure 3.11).

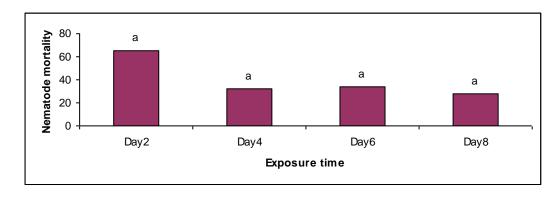
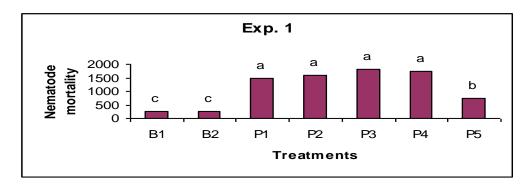


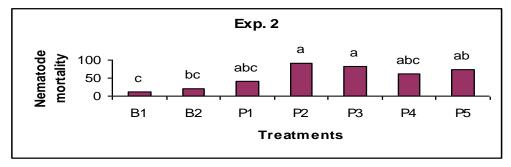
Figure 3.11 Effects of DMSO ( $B_2$ ) on mortality of  $Meloidogyne\ incognita$  over an exposure period of eight days

### 3.3.2 Tylenchulus sem ipenetrans

Eight days after initiating the treatments, the impact of biotest solutions on nem atode m ortality was higher than of non-biotest solutions in Experiment 1 (Figure 3.12). In Experiment 2, the data were variable, with distinct differences on nem atode m ortality being observed under two biotest solutions ( $P_2, P_3$ ) and non-biotest solutions.

However, the effects of  $P_2$  and  $P_3$  did not differ from those of  $P_1$ ,  $P_4$  and  $P_5$ . Nem atode mortality in non-biotest solutions did not differ from each other or those in  $P_1$  and  $P_4$ , although that in  $B_1$  was significantly lower than that in  $B_2$ .





 $1 = water(B_1); 2 = DMSO(B_2); 3 = total ethanolic extract(P_1); 4 = 100\% hexane fraction(P_2); 5 = hexane-ethyl acetate(1:1, v/v) fraction(P_3); 6 = 100\% ethyl acetate fraction(P_4); 7 = 100\% methanol fraction(P_5).$ 

Figure 3.12 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on Tylenchulus semipenetrans over eight days.

### 3.4 DISCUSSION

Biotest solutions from C. myriocarpus fruit extracts demonstrated that C. myriocarpus fruits have nematicidal properties. The various chemical solvents used in this study have the ability to extract various chemical compounds from plant tissues. Appendix 1 demonstrates that there are common chemical compounds across the listed chemical solvents used in this study. Various chemical compounds from a single plant material confer synergistic nematicidal properties (Kirkegaard and Agnus, 1996), resulting in high nematode mortality.

Solvents used in this study confirm results in other studies where the solvents extracted nem aticidal compounds (Alen et al., 2000; Mackeen et al., 1997; Naqvi et al., 1992; Sundararaju et al., 1994). Biotest solution from ethanolic extracts of Scilla natalensis

demonstrated potent bioactivity against Caenorhabditis elegans, where 50% nem atode mortality was recorded 2 hours after initiating the treatment at 25°C (Sparg et al., 2001). Also, biotest solution from Daucus carota seeds, extracted using hexane, had antihelmintic effects on C. elegans and Panagrellus redivivus (Momin and Naire, 2002). Methanolic extracts of Bruca sumatrana and Hoya diversifolia also demonstrated nem aticidal effects on Bursaphelenchus xylophilus (Alen et al., 2000).

Generally, the cited bioactivity tests were conducted on free-living nematodes. In studies where plant-parasitic nematodes were used, the plant materials tested also demonstrated nematicidal effects (Ferris, Castro, Caswell, Jaffee, Roberts, Westerdahl and Williamson, 1992; Khurma and Mangotra, 1999; Zareen, Zaki and Javed, 2003). The explanation for the nematicidal impact on plant-parasitic nematodes was in terms of active compounds such as polythienyls, isothiocyanates, glucosinolates, cyanogenic glycosides, polyacetylenes, alkaloids, lipids, terpenoids, sesquiterpenoids, diterpenoids, quassinoids, steroids, triterpenoids, simple and complex phenolics yielded by higher plants (Chitwood, 2002).

A notable nematicidal impact of the biotest solutions used in this study was that the exposure time played no role in the efficacy of *C. myriocarpus* biotest solutions. In another study, 50% of *C. elegans* were dead 2 hours after exposure (Sparg *et al.*, 2001). Extracts of *C. myriocarpus* are known to be highly toxic and are believed to be the bitterest of all known biochemical compounds (Jeffery, 1987; Rimington, 1998). Subcutaneous injection of cattle in an Australian study, resulted in the death of all treated cattle within 24 hours (McKenzie, Newman, Rayner and Dunster, 1988).

The most common extractible biochemical compounds by solvents used in this study are flavonoids, terpenoids, tannins, alkaloids, saponins and lutiolin (Appendix 1). Thus, the search for the nematicidal compound in C. myriocarpus biotest solutions should focus on these six compounds. In this study,  $P_1$  (total ethanolic extract) and  $P_2$  (100% hexane fraction) showed consistent high nematicidal effects on both T. Semipenetrans and M. Incognita studies, suggesting that they contain the potent chemical compounds which are being sought for in the VLIR Nematology Laboratory.

 $Cucumis\ myriocarpus\$ fruits contain large quantities of highly toxic cucumis  $(C_{27}H_{40}O_9)$  and leptodermins  $(C_{27}H_{38}O_8)$ , which are collectively called cucurbitacins  $(Van\ W\ yk\ et\ al.,\ 1997)$ . However, the specific component of  $C.\ myriocarpus$  fruits responsible for nematicidal impact is not yet known. The six compounds that are common in  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  biotest solutions (flavonoids, terpenoids, tannins, alkaloids, saponins and lutiolin), should provide some light on whether they contain cucurbitacins or not.

Bionem aticidal impact on M. incognita and T. semipenetrans in this study confirm various studies that demonstrated consistent suppression of M. incognita by C. myriocarpus fruit amended soil under various conditions (M abitsela, 2005; M ashela, 2002; M phosi, 2004). Cucumis myriocarpus amended soil also increased the productivity of tomato.

In conclusion, the biotest solutions of C. myriocarpus resulted in higher nematode m ortality than the non-biotest solutions. Because the chemical solvents were m evaporated, it may be concluded that the high mortality in M. m in m and m and m.

sem ipenetrans were due to the chemical compounds from C. myriocarpus fruits.

Regardless of the solvent used, antihelm intic properties were observed. However, total ethanolic extract and 100% hexane fraction were the best solvents for use in assessing antihelm intic properties of C. myriocarpus fruits.

### CHAPTER 4

### ANTIBACTERIAL EFFECTS OF CUCUMIS MYRIOCARPUS

### 4.1 Introduction

Bacillus species serve as effective microbes (EM) for organic decomposition (Todar, 2005). Commercially available Bacillus species comprise B. litcheniformis, B. chitinosporus and B. laterosporus (Mashela and Nthangeni, 2002). In various organic amendment studies, Bacillus species did not interact with the materials used (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004; Ngobeni, 2003).

Fruits of wild cucumber (*Cucumis myriocarpus*) contain cucurbitacins, which are highly toxic chemical compounds (Van Wyk et al., 1997). Using *C. myriocarpus* as a bionematicide consistently reduced numbers of *Meloidogyne incognita* in tomato (Mabitsela, 2005; Mashela, 2002; Mphosi, 2004) and cowpea (Shakwane, 2005) production. *Bacillus* species did not interact with *C. myriocarpus* in nematode suppression, suggesting that *C. myriocarpus* extracts were toxic to *Bacillus* species (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004). The objective of this study was to determine the impact of *C. myriocarpus* biotest solutions on *Bacillus* species in bioactivity tests under laboratory conditions.

### 4.2 M aterials and M ethods

The experiment was initiated on 2 August 2004 in the Botany Microorganisms Laboratory, University of Limpopo (UL) and the Department of Botany, University of Pretoria (UP). Fruits of C. myriocarpus were locally collected, dried for 5 days in airforced oven at  $52\,^{\circ}$ C to minimize the loss of volatile phytochem icals and ground in a Wiley mill to pass through a 1-m m sieve.

Powdered fruit material (70.1 g) was extracted in 80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane, 80% hexane: 20% methanol, 20% hexane: 80% methanol, 100% dichloromethane, 80% hexane: 20% ethanol, 100% methanol, 100% acetone, 100% toluene, 100% water,  $1\,0\,0\,\%$  ethyl acetate,  $1\,0\,0\,\%$  petroleum ether and  $1\,0\,0\,\%$  hexane. Biotest extract of each solvent was filtered using Whatmann filter paper no. 1 and evaporated using a Rotavapor at  $50\,^{\circ}$ C. Prior to the bioassay, each extract was resuspended in DMSO, concentrated at 100 mg/mland refrigerated at 4°C (Lall and Meyer, 2000; Rojas et al., 2003; Sokmen et al., 1998). The tested materials were (Dimethylsulphode) DMSO (B<sub>2</sub>), used as the untreated control, 80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane (B<sub>3</sub>), 80% hexane: 20% methanol (B<sub>4</sub>), 20% hexane: 80% methanol (B<sub>5</sub>), 100% dichloromethane (B<sub>6</sub>), 80% hexane: 20% ethanol (B<sub>7</sub>), 100% methanol (B<sub>8</sub>), 100% acetone (B<sub>9</sub>), 100% toluene (B<sub>10</sub>), 100% water (B<sub>11</sub>), 100% ethyl acetate (B<sub>12</sub>), 100% petroleum ether (B<sub>13</sub>), 100% hexane (B<sub>14</sub>). Other materials and methods were as described for the University of Pretoria study (Chapter 3) and the biotest solutions were total ethanolic extract (P<sub>1</sub>), 100% hexane fraction (P<sub>2</sub>), hexane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction (P<sub>3</sub>), 100% ethyl acetate fraction  $(P_4)$  and 100% m ethanol fraction  $(P_5)$ .

The agar-well diffusion method was used to determine the growth-inhibition of *Bacillus* species by *C. myriocarpus* extracts (Perez, Paul and Bazerque, 1990). Two litter Mueller-Hinton nutrient agar was autoclaved at 121°C for 30 minutes and then poured into 100-m1x 15-ml sterile Petri dishes in the Lamina flow system, and allowed to set. After setting, Petri dishes were closed and placed upside-down at 4°C in the refrigerator to ensure that moisture did not contaminate the agar. Biostart (Microbial Solutions LTD, Strubens Valley, RSA), comprising a mixture of *B. chitinosporus*, *B*.

laterosporus and B. litcheniform is, was used at the strength of  $10^9$  CFU/ml. Bacillus species were cultured on nutrient agar and incubated at  $37^\circ$ C for 24 hours. The multiplied bacteria were stored at  $4^\circ$ C prior to use.

Working on the Lamina flow bench, *Bacillus* species were suspended in apprimately 200 ml of saline solution in the glass flask, standardized to McFarland 1 solution and uniformly spread on the surface of the agar using swab sticks. A 5-mm diameter sterile cork-borer was used to bore 4 wells in the set agar per Petri dish. Ten microliters of each biotest solution was added into each well and allowed to diffuse for one and half hours. Each Petri dish was closed and sealed using parafilm. The treatments were arranged in a completely randomized design in the growing chamber at 37°C. Each treatment was replicated 5 times. The experiment was terminated after 24 hours.

The degree of the bioactivity of the biotest solution was indicated by the presence or absence of clear zone around the wells. A transparent ruler was placed at the centre of the well to record the diameter (mm) of the inhibition zone. An average of five replications was recorded. Data were analysed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and when the treatment means were different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), mean separation was done using the Duncan multiple range test for University of Limpopo biotest solutions and using Least significant difference (LSD) for the University of Pretoria biotest solutions (Gomez and Gomez, 1984). Means were reported in tables and also using column charts.

### 4.3 Results

The bioassays observed suggested that irrespective of whether C. myriocarpus was in extract or fraction form, the material inhibited growth of EM. In Experiment 1 and Experiment 3, the observations in the inhibition of the growth of EM were clear. However, in Experiment 2, the observations were not as clear as in Experiment 1 and Experiment 3. Bacterial growth inhibition under the bioassayed materials differed from that of the control.

Presence of clear zones is an indication of inhibition of bacterial growth by the biotest solution, whereas absence is an indication of the inactivity of the tested solution (Figure 4.1).



Figure 4.1 Illustration of inhibition zones in 80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane (B  $_3$ ) and 100% water (B  $_{11}$ ) biotest solutions

### $4.3.1\ Biotest\ solution\ s\ from\ U\ niversity\ of\ Lim\ p\ op\ o$

The  $B_{11}$  and  $B_2$  biotest and non-biotest solutions of C. m yrio carpus, respectively, did not inhibit growth of the EM. The  $B_3$ ,  $B_4$ ,  $B_5$ ,  $B_6$ ,  $B_7$ ,  $B_8$ ,  $B_9$ ,  $B_{10}$ ,  $B_{12}$ ,  $B_{13}$  and  $B_{14}$  biotest solutions of C. m yrio carpus inhibited growth of EM, however, the means of the inhibition zones varied among treatments.

Table 4.1 Bacterial growth inhibition zones of Cucum is myriocarpus in eleven solvents

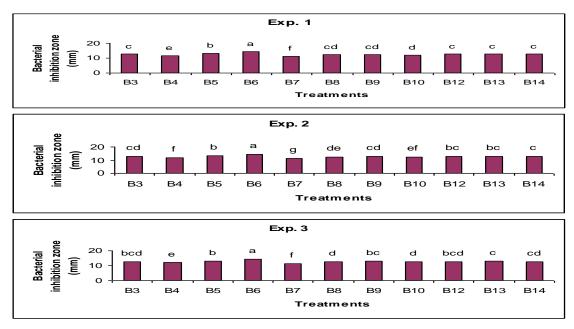
Treatm ent	N			Inhibition	z o n e	( m m )	
		Experim ent	1	Experim ent	2	Experim ent	3
В 3	2 0	1 2 . 6 5	c	1 2 . 7 0	c d	12.80	b c d
B 4	2 0	1 1 . 8 0	e	1 1 .9 0	f	1 2 .0 5	e
B 5	2 0	1 3 . 2 0	b	1 3 . 2 5	b	1 3 . 1 5	b
B 6	2 0	1 4 . 3 5	a	1 4 . 6 0	a	1 4 . 3 5	a
В 7	2 0	1 1 . 4 0	f	1 1 .5 0	g	1 1 . 5 0	f
B 8	2 0	1 2 . 5 0	c d	1 2 . 3 5	d e	12.50	d
B 9	2 0	1 2 . 5 0	c d	1 2 . 7 0	c d	13.10	b c
B 10	2 0	1 2 . 2 0	d	1 2 . 2 0	e f	1 2 . 5 5	d
B 12	2 0	1 2 . 6 5	c	1 2 .9 0	b c	12.80	b c d
В 13	2 0	1 2 . 7 0	c	1 3 .0 0	b c	13.00	c
B <sub>1 4</sub>	2 0	12.80	c	1 2 . 8 5	c	12.70	c d

Column means with the same letter were not different ( $P \le 0.05$ ) according to D uncan's multiple range test.

 $B_3 = 80\%$  hexane: 20% dichloromethane;  $B_4 = 80\%$  hexane: 20% methanol;  $B_5 = 20\%$  hexane: 80% methanol;  $B_6 = 100\%$  dichloromethane;  $B_7 = 100\%$  ethanol;  $B_8 = 100\%$  methanol;  $B_9 = 100\%$  acetone;  $B_{10} = 100\%$  toluene;  $B_{12} = 100\%$  ethyl acetate;  $B_{13} = 100\%$  petroleumether;  $B_{14} = 100\%$  hexane.

In about 24 hours after initiating the treatments the bioactivity of the extract ( $B_6$ ) on the growth of EM was consistent and differed from others in all three experiments (Figure 4.1). The effect of the extract ( $B_5$ ) on EM growth inhibition was consistent in all experiments, however, it differed from all other extracts in Experiment 1 and did not differ with those of the extracts ( $B_{12}$  and  $B_{13}$ ) in Experiment 2 and with those of extracts ( $B_3$ ,  $B_9$ ,  $B_{12}$  and  $B_{13}$ ) in Experiment 3.

The bioactivity of the extract  $(B_3)$  on EM did not differ with those of the extracts  $(B_8, B_9, B_{12}, B_{13})$  and  $(B_{14})$  in Experiment 1 and Experiment 3 but differed with that of the extract  $(B_8)$  in Experiment 2. Although the bioactivity of the extract  $(B_{10})$  against EM was inconsistent, it did not differ with those of the extract  $(B_8)$  in Experiment 1 and Experiment 3, and that of the extract  $(B_9)$  in Experiment 1 and that of the extract  $(B_3, B_{12})$  and  $(B_{14})$  in Experiment 3. The effect of the extract  $(B_4)$  differed from those of all other extracts, however, it was not different from that of the extract  $(B_{10})$  in Experiment 2. Although not different from the extract  $(B_{10})$  in Experiment 2, the bioactivity of the extract  $(B_7)$  on EM differed from all other extracts. The effects of the DM SO  $(B_2)$  and the extract  $(B_{11})$  did not differ in all the experiments.



 $B_3 = 80\%$  hexane: 20% dichloromethane;  $B_4 = 80\%$  hexane: 20% methanol;  $B_5 = 20\%$  hexane: 80% methanol;  $B_6 = 100\%$  dichloromethane;  $B_7 = 100\%$  ethanol;  $B_8 = 100\%$  methanol;  $B_9 = 100\%$  acetone;  $B_{10} = 100\%$  toluene;  $B_{12} = 100\%$  ethyl acetate;  $B_{13} = 100\%$  petroleumether;  $B_{14} = 100\%$  hexane.

Figure 4.2 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on effective microbes over 24 hours

### 4.3.2 Biotest solutions from University of Pretoria

The  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ ,  $P_3$ ,  $P_4$  and  $P_5$  biotest solutions of C. myriocarpus were tested for the antibacterial activity. The growth of the EM under study was inhibited by all biotest

solutions, however, the reported means of the inhibition zones differed from one treatment to another.

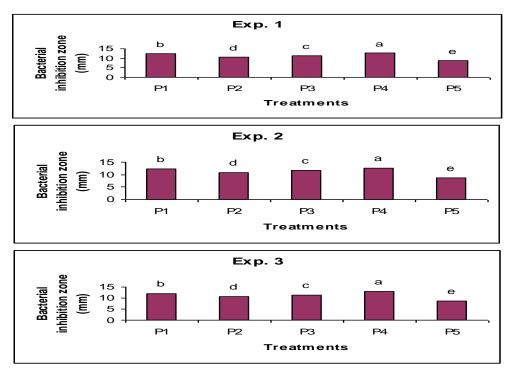
Table 4.2 Bacterial growth inhibition zones of Cucumis myriocarpus in five solvents

Treatm ent	N	Inhibition zone (m m )					
		Experim ent 1	Experiment 2	Experiment 3			
P 1	5	1 2 .3 0 b	1 2 . 3 5 b	1 2 . 1 0 b			
P 2	5	1 0 .5 5 d	1 0 . 7 5 d	10.60d			
P 3	5	11.40 с	11.70 с	11.45 с			
P 4	5	12.80a	1 2 . 7 5 a	12.85a			
P 5	5	8 . 8 0 e	8 . 7 0 e	8 . 6 5 e			

Column means with the same letter were not different ( $P \le 0.05$ ) according to D uncan's multiple range test.

 $P_1$  = total ethanolic extract;  $P_2$  = 100% hexane fraction;  $P_3$  = hexane-ethylacetate (1:1, v/v) fraction;  $P_4$  = 100% ethylacetate fraction and  $P_5$  = 100% methanol fraction.

In about 24 hours after initiating treatments, the bioactivity of the biotest solutions on the inhibition of the growth of EM differed from one another in all experiments (Figure 4.2).



 $P_1=total\ ethanolic\ extract;\ P_2=100\%\ hexane\ fraction;\ P_3=hexane-ethylacetate\ (1:1,v/v)\ fraction;\ P_4=100\%\ ethylacetate\ fraction\ and\ P_5=100\%\ m\ ethanol\ fraction.$ 

Figure 4.3 Effects of biotest solutions of Cucumis myriocarpus fruits on effective microbes over 24 hours.

#### 4.4 DISCUSSION

Biotest solutions from C. myriocarpus extracts and fractions demonstrated that C. myriocarpus has antibacterial properties. Although the various solvents used in this study have the ability to extract chemical compounds from plant tissues, the extractible chemical compounds differ with respect to the solvent used (Appendix 1). Some common extractable chemical compounds exist among solvents used in this study. The activity of C. myriocarpus extracts and fractions on inhibition of Bacillus species confirm various studies where significant interactions between Bacillus species and C. myriocarpus could not be demonstrated (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004).

Chemical compounds from various plants, extracted by the solvents used in this study, have demonstrated the ability to inhibit growth of various bacteria, which most of them were disease causal agent to human beings. In this study, extracts from 100% dichloromethane and 20% hexane: 80% methanol were the most potent. A strong demonstration was displayed by the methanol extract from Kielmeyera varebilis, Helenium donianun, Toona ciliate, Amoora rohituka and Vernonia cinerea (Chowdhury, Hasan and Rashid, 2002; Feresin, Tapia and Bustos, 1999; Gupta, Mazum der, Manikandan, Haldar, Buttacharyaand Kandar, 2002; Pinheiro et al., 2003). Dichloromethane and petroleum ether biotest solutions from Nepeta cataria flowers, T. ciliate, C. facultus, C. suaveolens and C. mackenii also showed strong activity against B. subtilis (Chowdhury et al., 2002; Elgorashi and Van Staden, 2003; Sparg et al., 2001). This is the first antibacterial study on extracts from fruits of C. myriocarpus.

The biotest solution from Helichrysum italicum, T. ciliate, A. rohituka and Mapia foetida extracted with petroleum ether showed strong activity against B. subtilis, B.

cereus and B. megaterium (Chowdhury et al., 2002; Hossain, Paul, Sorab, Rahman and Rashid, 2001; Nostro et al., 2000). The ethanol biotest from Salvia officinalis, Anthocleista djalonensis, Nauclea latifolia, Uvaria afzalii, S. natalensis, L. ovatifolia and Vitex trifolia were found to be active against B. subtilis, B. cereus and B. megaterium (Hossain et al., 2001; Okoli and Iroegbu, 2004; Sparg et al., 2001; Velickovic et al., 2003). The biotest solution from the roots of A. bracteata, roots of Euclea natalensis, Azadirachta indica and Ruta graveolens extracted with acetone inhibited growth of B. cereus, B. pumilus and B. subtilis (Alzoreky and Nakahara, 2002; Lalland Meyer, 2000; Negi et al., 2003).

Bacillus subtilis growth was inhibited by the biotest solutions from P. reglallii, roots of A. bracteata, C. nutans, Terminalia arjuna and Proteus vulgaris extracted using ethyl acetate (Negi et al., 2003; Pessini et al., 2003; Sam y, Ignacinuthu and Sen, 1998; Truiti et al., 2003). Bacillus subtilis was also inhibited by the toluene biotest solution from the leaves of Phyllanthus emblica (Sum manen, 1999). Inhibition of B. subtilis was also shown by biotest solutions from P. regnellii, K. variabilis, Lippia graveolans, M. parviflora and C. nutans using hexane (Elvin-Lewis, 2001; Fugh-Berman, 2000; Hernandez et al., 2003; Pessini et al., 2003; Pinheiro et al., 2003; Truiti et al., 2003).

Synergism of two or more plant chemical compounds is key to the observed bioactivities. However, sufficient quantities of the chemical should be extracted for the activity to manifest (Alzoreky and Nakahara, 2002; Fugh-Berman, 2000). Generally, when insufficient quantities of plant chemical compounds are extracted and when synergism criterion is not met between two or more compounds, bioactivity may not manifest. Good examples were those of methanol biotest solutions of *C. facultus*,

C. suaveolens and C. mackenii and n-hexane biotest solution of Scilla natalensis and Ledebouria ovatifolia where bioactivities were not observed, and the water biotest solution of Piper regenii that showed poor activity against B. subtilis (Elgorashi and Van Staden, 2003; Pessini et al., 2003; Sparg et al., 2001). The cited bioactivity tests were conducted on Bacillus species, which are all gram positive. In some of the studies where gram negative and positive bacteria were included, the plant materials tested had variable effects on the test organisms, with gram negative bacteria showing some resistance (Kelmanson, Jager and Van Staden, 2000). The presence of resistance on gram negative bacteria was due to the cell wall that is surrounded by an extra layer of polysaccharides, proteins and phospholipids (Porter, 1998).

#### CHAPTER 5

# M IN IM UM IN HIBITORY CONCENTRATION OF CUCUMIS MYRIOCARPUS ON BACILLUS SPECIES

## 5.1 Introduction

The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) is the lowest concentration of an antibiotic required to inhibit the growth of an organism in vitro (Alzoreky and Nakahara, 2003; Jacobs, DeMott, Finley, Horvak, Kasten and Tilzer, 1994). Every chemical designed to kill an organism has MIC at which it kills the organism. Different extracts from plants may vary in the MIC required to kill a given organism (Kianbakht and Jahaniani, 2003). Previously, biotest solutions of wild cucum ber fruits (Cucum is myriocarpus) demonstrated antibacterial effects on Bacillus species (Chapter 4). The MIC of C. myriocarpus on Bacillus species has not been documented. The objective of this study was to determine the MICs of various C. myriocarpus biotest solutions.

# $5.2\ M\ aterials\ and\ M\ ethods$

The MIC study was conducted on 18 August 2004 at the Department of Botany Microorganisms Laboratory, University of Limpopo (UL). Fruits of C. m yrio carpus were locally collected, dried for 5 days in air-forced oven at  $52\,^{\circ}$ C to minimize the loss of volatile phytochemicals and ground in a Wiley mill to pass through a 1-m m sieve.

Pow dered fruit material (70.1 g) was extracted with 12 different solvents, namely, 80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane, 80% hexane: 20% methanol, 20% hexane: 80% methanol, 100% dichloromethane, 80% hexane: 20% ethanol, 100% methanol, 100% acetone, 100% toluene, 100% water, 100% ethyl acetate, 100% petroleum ether and

100% hexane. Biotest extracts of each solvent were filtered using W hatmann filter paper no. 1 and the filtrate evaporated using a Rotavapor at 50°C. Each extract was then resuspended in (Dimethylsulphoxide) DMSO, concentrated to 100 mg/ml and refrigerated at 4°C (Lall and Meyer, 2000; Rojas et al., 2003; Sokmen et al., 1998). The UL biotest solutions included the untreated control, DMSO (B<sub>2</sub>), 80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane (B<sub>3</sub>), 80% hexane: 20% methanol (B<sub>4</sub>), 20% hexane: 80% methanol (B<sub>5</sub>), 100% dichloromethane (B<sub>6</sub>), 80% hexane: 20% ethanol (B<sub>7</sub>), 100% methanol (B<sub>8</sub>), 100% acetone (B<sub>9</sub>), 100% toluene (B<sub>10</sub>), 100% ethyl acetate (B<sub>12</sub>), 100% petroleum ether (B<sub>13</sub>), 100% hexane (B<sub>14</sub>). In another study extracts prepared at the University of Pretoria (UP) were used (Chapter 4). The biotest solutions included total ethanolic extract (P<sub>1</sub>), 100% hexane fraction (P<sub>2</sub>), hexane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction (P<sub>3</sub>), 100% ethyl acetate fraction (P<sub>4</sub>) and 100% methanol fraction (P<sub>5</sub>). The biotest solutions were prepared using 500 g ground C. myriocarpus fruit.

The microtiter plates were placed on the Laminaflow bench, and 100 µl nutrient broth pipetted into the wells. Biotest solutions were serially pipetted at 100 µl into microplates (Eloff, 1998; Reiner, 1982; Rhajaoui et al., 2001). Each 100 µl contained 100 mg/mlof plant extract, and adequate mixing with ensured by pulling-and-releasing the pipetted solution five times. The concentration of each biotest solution was decreased by half from one well to the next, with final concentrations per solution being 0.01, 0.02, 0.05, 0.10, 0.20, 0.39, 0.78, 1.56, 3.13, 6.25, 12.5 and 25 mg C. myriocarpus extract. Biostart (Microbial Solutions LTD, Strubens Valley, RSA), comprising a mixture of B. chitinosporus, B. laterosporus and B. litcheniform is was used at the strength of 10 CFU/ml, mixed with 100-ml saline solution in a glass flask, and standardised to McFarland 1 solution (Border and Fireham mer, 1980). The aliquot

was added into the microplates at 100  $\mu$ l, with microplates lids being tightly sealed with parafilm to eliminate contamination. Each treatment was replicated four times and microplates were incubated for 24 hours at 37  $^{\circ}$ C.

The p-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) solution at 0.2 mg/ml was added into each well at 50 µl and re-incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes (Reiner, 1982). Because Bacillus species are gram-positive (Dib, Dib, Korkmaz, Mobarakai and Glaser, 2003), the development of purple colour in the wells indicated effective bacterial growth, whereas absence of colour was indicative of inhibition of bacterial growth. The concentration of the biotest solution which precedes the one with purple colour is the MIC for that solution (Bylka, Szaufer-Hajdrych, Matlawska and Goslinska, 2004). The MICs for various biotest solutions were recorded.

## 5.3 Results

The bioactivity of the biotest solutions  $B_{11}$  and  $B_{12}$  inhibited bacterial growth at M IC values of 3.13 m g/m l, whereas  $B_3$ ,  $B_5$ ,  $B_6$ ,  $B_8$ ,  $B_9$ ,  $B_{10}$  and  $B_{14}$  inhibited Bacillus growth at 6.25 m g/m l (Table 5.1). The biotest solutions  $B_4$  and  $B_7$  showed bioactivity at 12.5 m g/m l. Bacterial growth occurred in all wells of  $B_2$ , which was an untreated control.

The  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  biotest solutions inhibited bacterial growth at 0.78 mg/ml, whereas  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  at 1.56 mg/ml (Table 5.2). Although C. myriocarpus used in this study (UP) was quite higher than that at UL, 100% methanol in both studies ( $B_8$  and  $P_5$ ) had the same MIC values of 6.25 mg/ml, whereas for other biotest solutions the values differed.

Table 5.1 M inim um inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of Cucumis myriocarpus biotest solutions as depicted by inhibition of bacterial growth (UL)

Solvent	B iotest solution	Biotest solution with bacterial growth (mg/ml)	Biotest solution without bacterial growth (m g/m l)
D im ethylsulphoxide	B 2	25.00	-
80% hexane: 20% dichloromethane	В 3	3 . 1 3	6 . 2 5
80% hexane: 20% methanol	B 4	6 .2 5	1 2 . 5 0
20% hexane: 80% methanol	B 5	3 .1 3	6 . 2 5
100% dichloromethane	B 6	3 . 1 3	6 . 2 5
100% ethanol	В 7	6.25	1 2 .5 0
100% methanol	В 8	3.13	6 . 2 5
100% acetone	В 9	3 . 1 3	6 . 2 5
100% toluene	В 10	3 .1 3	6 . 2 5
100% ethylacetate	B <sub>12</sub>	1 .5 7	3 . 1 3
100% petroleum ether	В 13	1 .5 7	3 . 1 3
100% hexane	B <sub>1 4</sub>	3 .1 3	6 . 2 5

Table 5.2 M inim um inhibitory concentrations (M IC) of Cucumis myriocarpus biotest solutions as depicted by inhibition of bacterial growth (UP)

Solvent	B iotest solution	Biotest with	Biotest without
		bacterial	bacterial growth
		g rowth	( m g / m l)
		( m g / m l)	
D im ethylsulphoxide	B 2	25.00	-
total eth an olic extract	P 1	0.78	1 .5 6
100% hexane	P 2	0.78	1 .5 6
h e x a n e - e t h y l a c e t a t e (1:1 v/v)	P 3	0.39	0 .7 8
100% ethyl acetate	P 4	0.39	0 .7 8
100% methanol	P 5	3.13	6.25

# 5.4 DISCUSSION

Various studies demonstrated that Bacillus species were not essential for the efficacy of ground C. myriocarpus to suppress Meloidogyne incognita under both greenhouse and field studies (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004). Antibacterial activities in this study provide a clue as to why there were no Cucumis x Bacillus interactions in the cited studies. Also, when using castor bean ( $Ricinus\ com\ munis$ ) fruits,  $Ricinus\ x\ Bacillus$  interactions were not significant ( $P \le 0.05$ ) in suppression of M. incognita numbers (M abitsela, 2005; M ashela and M thangeni, 2002). However, not all materials used showed this trend. M angena (2005) demonstrated that  $Brassica\ x\ Bacillus$  interactions were significant ( $P \le 0.05$ ) in suppression of M. incognita numbers.

Results of this study confirm the ground-leaching technology (Mashela, 2002) which was developed in an attempt to ameliorate the disadvantages of conventional application of organic matter (Stirling, 1991). Briefly, the technology involves using small quantities of toxic organs in powdered form to suppress plant-parasitic nem atodes. Mashela (2002) suggested that microbial decomposition was not essential for the release of nem aticidal compounds in this technology, and that the compounds were leached out of organic matter through irrigation water.

The impact of *C. myriocarpus* on *Bacillus* species would probably not negate the chances of its future development into a commercial product. Generally, *Bacillus* species are gram-positive, whereas most gram-negative bacteria that occur in the soil have better resistance against chemicals. For instance, the use of *C. myriocarpus* in cowpea production improved nodulation (Shakwane, 2005). Thus, it appears that not all bacteria are negatively impacted by this material. Also, it is common knowledge that bacteria constitute a small fraction of microbial decomposing organisms (Cottrell

and Kirchman, 2000). Effective microbes consist of photosynthetic bacteria, lactic acid, yeast, fungi and actinomycetes.

#### CHAPTER 6

## SUM MARY AND CONCLUSION

Ethanolic extract and 100% hexane fraction were the best solvents for extracting antihelm intic chem ical compounds from wild cucum ber (Cucum is m yrio carpus) fruits, whereas 100% dichloromethane and 20% hexane: 80% methanolextracts were the best for extracting antibacterial chemical compounds. Other used chemical solvents also extracted both antihelm intic and antibacterial chemical solvents from fruits of C. m yrio carpus.

Commonly extractible chemical compounds in ethanol, hexane and dichloromethane are flavonoids, terpenoids, phenols, tannins and alkaloids (Appendix 1). Two cucurbitacins, cucum ins ( $C_{27}H_{40}O_9$ ) and leptoderm ins ( $C_{27}H_{38}O_8$ ) are known to be the toxic components of C. myriocarpus fruits (Van Wyk et~al., 1997). The chemical compound, cucum is, is a flavonoid (Krauze-Baranowska and Cisowski, 2001).

Results of this study also confirmed the antihelm intic properties of *C. myriocarpus* fruits reported under greenhouse, microplot and field studies (Mabitsela, 2005; Mashela, 2002; Mphosi, 2004). Plants of *C. myriocarpus* are non-host to *Meloidogyne incognita* (Mofokeng, 2005), which confirm reports that indicate that cucurbitacins accumulate in both fruits and roots (Van Wyk *et al.*, 1997).

The antibacterial properties observed in this study may confirm the absence of interactions between *Bacillus* species and ground *C. myriocarpus* fruits under microplot and field studies (Mabitsela, 2005; Mphosi, 2004). Also, the minimum inhibitory concentration of *C. myriocarpus* fruit extracts is quite low, confirming

reports which categorise extracts from this fruit as being highly toxic (V an W y k  $\it et al.$ , 1997).

In ground form, C. m y r i o c a r p u s f r u i s m a i d

In conclusion, the solvents which should be used for characterising nematicidal compounds in *C. myriocarpus* fruits are ethanol and 100% hexane. However, water is also capable of extracting chemical compounds that are extracted by ethanol and 100% hexane from plant materials.

### REFERENCES

- Alen, Y., S. Nakajima, T. Niktoda, N. Baba, H. Kanzaki, and K. Kawazu. 2000.

  Antinem atodal activity of some tropical rainforest plants against the pinew ood nem atode, Bursaphelenchus xylophilus. Naturforsh 55:295-299.
- Alzoreky, N. S., and K. Nakahara. 2003. Antibacterial activity of extracts from some edible plants commonly consumed in Asia. International Journal of Food Microbiology 80:223-2230.
- Ankli, A., J. Heimann, M. Heinrich, and O. Sticher. 2000. Cytotoxic cardenolides and antibacterial terpenoids from *Crossopetalum gaumeri*. Phytochemistry 54:531-537
- Arnold, S. F., and J. A. McLachlan. 1996. Synergistic signals in the environment. Environmental Health Perspectives 104:1020 1023.
- Ballesteros, E., D. Martin, and M. J. Uriz. 1992. Biological activity of extracts from some Mediterranean macrophytes. Botanical Marina 35:481-485.
- Bassole, I. H. N., A. S. Ouattara, R. Nebie, C. A. T. Ouattara, Z. I. Kabore, and S. A. Traore. 2003. Chemical composition and antibacterial activities of the essential oils of *Lippia chevalieri* and *Lippia multiflora* from Burkina Faso. Journal of Phytochemistry 2:209-212.
- Bylka, W., M. Szaufer-Hajdrych, I. Matlawska, and O. Goslinska. 2004. Letters in Applied Microbiology 39:1.
- Bonjar, G. H. S., and A. K. Nik. 2004. Antibacterial activity of some medicinal plants of Iran against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *P. fluorescens*. Asian Journal of Plant Sciences 3:61-64.
- Border, M. M., and B. D. Firehammer. 1980. Antigens of *Campylobacter fetus* subspecies fetus eliciting vaccinal immunity in heifers. American Journal of Veterinary Research 41:746-750.
- Bylka, W., M. Szaufer-Hajdrych, I. Matlawska, and O. Goslinska. 2004. Antimicrobial activity of isocytisoside and extracts of *Aquilegia vulgaris* L. Applied Microbiology 39:93.
- Chatterjee, A., A. B. Kundu, T. Chakrabortty, and S. Chandrasekharan. 1970.

  Extractives of Aphanamixis polystachya wall (Parker): The structures and Stereochemistry of aphanamixin. Tetrahedron 26:1859.
- Chitwood, D. J. 2002. Phytochemical based strategies for nematode control. Annual review of Phytopathology 40:221-249.

- Chowdhury, R., C. M. Hasan, and M. A. Rashid. 2002. Antimicrobial activity of *Toona* ciliata and Amoora rohituka. Fitoterapia 74:155-158.
- Cottrell, M. T., and D. L. Kirchman. 2000. Natural Assemblages of Marine Proteobacteria and Members of the Cytophaga-Flavobacter Cluster Consuming Low- and High- Molecular-Weight Dissolved Organic Matter. American Society of Microbiology 66: 1692-1697.
- DaSilva, D. G. F., S. M. M. Agostinho, J. R. Depaula, J. O. Neto, I. C. Gamboa, and A. R. Filho. 1999. Pure Applied Chemistry 71:1083.
- Dib, E. G., S. A. Dib, D. A. Korkmaz, N. K. Mobarakai, and J. B. Glaser. 2003.

  Nonhemolytic, Nonmotile Gram Positive Rods Indicative of *Bacillus anthracis*.

  Past Issue 9.
- Duke, J. A. 1992a. Handbook of Edible Weeds. CRC, Florida.
- Duke, S. O. 1992b. Natural pesticides from plants. 1992. In: Janick, J., and J. E. Sim on (eds). Advances in New York Crops, Pp. 511-517. Tim ber Press, Portland.
- Elgorashi, E. E., and J. Van Staden. 2003. Pharmacological screening of six Amaryllidaceae species. Journal of Ethnopharmacology 90:27-32.
- Eloff, J. N. 1998. A sensitive and quick microplate method to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration of plant extracts for bacteria. Planta Medica 64:711-713.
- $Elvin-Lewis,\ M\ .\ 2001.\ Should\ we\ be\ concerned\ about\ herbal\ remedies.\ Journal\ of$   $Ethnopharm\ acology\ 75:141-164.$
- Enzo A., P. Palombo, and S. J. Semple. 2001. Antibacterial activity of traditional Australian medicinal plants. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 77:151-157.
- Essawi, T., and M. Srour. 2000. Screening of some Palestinian medicinal plants for antibacterial activity. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 70:343-349.
- Feresin, G. E., A. A. Tapia, and D. A. Bustos. 1999. Antibacterial activity of some medicinal plants from San Juan, Argentina. Fitoterapia 71:429-432.
- Ferris, H., C. E. Castro, E. P. Caswell, B. A. Jaffee, P. A. Roberts, B. B. Westerdahl, and V. M. Williamson. 1992. Biological approaches to the management of plant-parasitic nematodes. Pp. 68-101. In J. P. Madden (ed.), Beyond Pesticides: Biological approaches to pest management in California. University of California Press, p. 183.

- Fugh-Berman, A. 2000. Herb-drug interactions. Lancet 355:134-138.
- Gaidamashvili, M., and J. Van Staden. 2001. Interaction of lectin-like proteins of South African medicinal plants with Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillus subtilis. Research Centre for Plant Growth and Development, School of Botany and Zoology, University of Natal Pietermaritzburg.
- Glare, T., and M. O'Callaghan. 2000. Bacillus thuringiensis: Biology, Ecology and Safety. Wiley, London.
- Gomez, K. A., and A. A. Gomez. 1984. Statistical procedures for Agricultural research. Wiley, New York.
- Gupta, M., U. K. Mazum der, L. Manikandan, P. K. Haldar, S. Buttacharya, and C. C. Kandar. 2002. Antibacterial activity of *Vernonia cinerea*. Fitoterapia 74:148-150.
- Halbrendt, J. M., and G. Jing. 1994. Nem atode suppressive rotation crops for orchard renovation. III International Symposium on Replant Problems. ISHS Acta Horticulturae 363.
- Haseeb A., B. Singh, A. M. Khan, and S. K. Saxena. 1978. Evaluation of nematicidal property in certain alkaloid-bearing plants. Geobios 5:116-118.
- Hench, L. L., and J. Wilson. 1993. Introduction to Bioceramics. World Scientific, Singapore.
- Hernández, T., M. Canales, J. G. Avila, A. Duran, J. Caballero, A. R. De Vivar, and R. Lira. 2003. Ethnobotany and antibacterial activity of some plants used in traditional medicine of Zapotitlán de las Salinas, Puebla (México). Journal of Ethnopharm acology 88:181-188.
- Hossain, M. M., N. Paul, M. H. Sorab, E. Rahman, and M. A. Rashid. 2001.

  Antibacterial activity of Vitex trifolia. Fitoterapia 72:695-697.
- Jacobs, D., W. DeMott, P. Finley, R. Horvak, B. Kasten, and L. Tilzer. 1994.

  Laboratory Test Handbook (3rd ed.). Lexi-Comp Inc, Hudson Ohio.
- $\label{eq:continuous} Jeffrey\,,\,C\,\,.\,\,1\,9\,7\,8\,\,.\,\,C\,\,u\,r\,c\,u\,b\,ita\,c\,e\,a\,e\,.\,F\,lora\,\,Z\,a\,m\,\,b\,e\,s\,ia\,c\,a\,\,4\,:\,4\,1\,4\,-\,4\,9\,9\,\,.$
- Kelmanson, J. E., A. K. Jager, and J. van Staden. 2000. Zulu medicinal plants with antibacterial activity. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 69:241-246.

- Khan, M. R., and A. D. Omoloso. 2003. Antibacterial activity of *Pterocarpus indicus*. Fitoterapia 74:603-605.
- Khan, M.R., A.D.Omoloso, and M.Kihara. 2003. Antibacterial activity of *Alstonia scholaris* and *Leea tetramera*. Fitoterapia 74:736-740.
- Khosa, M. C. 2005. Comparison effects of *Cucumis myriocarpus* organic amendment and synthetic nematicides on suppression of *Meloidogyne incognita* on k tomatoproduction. Master dissertation, submitted to the University of Limpopo, Sovenga.
- Khurma, U. R., and A. Mangotra. 1999. Screening of some Leguminosae seeds for nematicidal activity. Department of Biology, School of Pure and Applied Sciences, The University of the South Pacific, Suva, Fiji.
- Kianbakht, S., and F. Jahaniani. 2003. Evaluation of Antibacterial Activity of Tribulus terrestris. L. Growing in Iran. Iranian Journal of Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2:22-24.
- Kirkegaard, J. A., and P. A. Agnus. 1996. Biofum igation using *Brassica* species to control pest and disease in horticulture and agriculture. In: Wrather, N., and R. Mailer (eds.), Journal of Nematology 55:77-82.
- Koné, W. M., K. K. Atindehou, C. Terreaux, K. Hostettmann, D. Traoré, and M. Dosso. 2004. Traditional medicine in North Côte-d'Ivoire: screening of 50 medicinal plants for antibacterial activity. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 93:43-49.
- Krauze-Baranowska, M., and W. Cisowski. 2001. Flavonoids from some species of the genus Cucum is. Biochem Syst Ecology, 29:321-324.
- Krol, W. J., T. L. Arsenault, H. M. Pylypiw, and M. J. I. Mattina. 2000. Journal of Agricultural Food Chemistry 48:4666-4670.
- Kumar, R. N., H. Vishwanathan, T. Suresh, and P. S. Mohan. 2002. Antibacterial activity of *Mappia foetida* leaves and stem. Fitoterapia 73:734-736.
- Lall, N., and J. J. M. Meyer. 2000. Antibacterial activity of water and acetone extracts of the roots of Eucleanatalensis. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 72:313-316.
- M abitsela, M. D. 2005. Efficacy of Cucumis myriocarpus, Lippia javanica and Ricinus communis with and without Bacillus species on nem atode suppression. Master Dissertation, Submitted to the University of Limpopo, Sovenga.

- Mackeen, M. M., A. B. Ali, M. A. Abdullah, R. M. Nasir, N. B. Mat, A. R. Razak, and K. Kawazu. 1997. Antinematodal activity of some Malaysian plant extracts against the pine wood nematode, Bursaphelenchus xylophilus. Department of Biotechnology, University of Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia.
- Mangena, M. A. 2004. Efficacy of cabbage leaf meal with and without *Bacillus* species on *Meloidogyne incognita* suppression and tomato productivity. Master dissertation, submitted to the University of the North, Sovenga.
- M ashela, P. W. 2002. Ground wild Cucum ber fruits suppress num bers of *Meloidogyne* incognita on tomato in microplots. Nematropica 32:13-19.
- Mashela, P. W., and M. S. Mphosi. 2001. Wild cucumber fruit residue reduces population densities of *Meloidogyne incognita* in tomato production under greenhouse conditions. Proceedings of Nematological Society of South Africa 15:43
- Mashela, P. W., and H. T. H. Muedi. 2003. Efficacy of *Rhizobium* on cowpea under *Cucumis myriocarpus* amendment. Interscience, University of the North, Sovenga, p. 18.
- Mashela, P. W., and K. W. Nthangeni. 2002. Role of Bacillus species on efficacy of Ricinus communis fruit meal on suppression of Meloidogyne incognita on tomato production. Journal of Phytopathology 150:399-402.
- McKenzie, R. A., R. D. Newman, A. C. Rayner, and P. J. Dunster. 1988. Prickly paddy melon (*Cucumis myriocarpus*) poisoning of cattle. Australian Veterinary Journal 65:167-170.
- Metin, D., and M. H. Alma. 1999. Antimicrobial activities of the extracts of various plants (Valex, Mimosa bark, gallnut powders, *Salvia* species and *Phlomis* species). Journal of Biology: 241-248.
- M itscher, L. A., S. Drake, S. R. Golloapudi, and S. K. Okwute. 1987. A modern look at folkloric use of anti-ineffective agents. Journal of Natural Products 50:1025-1040.
- Mofokeng, M. A. 2005. Host-status of *Cucumis myriocarpus* to *Meloidogyne* incognita. Master dissertation, submitted to the University of Limpopo, Sovenga.
- Mojum der V., S. D. Mishra, M. M. Haque, and B. K. Goswami. 1989. Nematicidal efficacy of some wild plants against pigeon pea cyst nematode, Heterodera cajani. International Nematology Network Newsletter 6:21-24.

- Momin, R. A., and M. G. Nair. 2002. Pest-managing efficacy of trans-asarone isolated from Daucus carota L. seeds. Journal of Agricultural Food Chemistry 50:4475-4478.
- M phosi, M. J. 2004. Influence of Bacillus species and Cucumis myriocarpus on Meloidogyne incognita suppression and tomato productivity. Master Dissertation, submitted to the University of the North, Sovenga.
- Naqvi, B. S., A. Khan, D. Shaikh, and M. R. Shaikh. 1992. Nematicidal properties of selected marine algae from Karachi Coast *Preliminary Report*. Journal of Islamic Academy of Sciences 5:3.
- Nascimento, G. G. F., J. Locatelli, P. C. Freitas, and G. L. Silva. 2003. Antibacterial activity of plant extracts and phytochemicals on antibiotic-resistant bacteria. Brazilian Journal of Microbiology 31:4.
- Negi, P. S., C. Anandharamakrishnan, and G. K. Jayaprakasha. 2003. Antibacterial activity of *Aristolochia bracteata* root extracts. Journal of Medicinal Food 6:401-403.
- Neto, C. C., C. W. Owens, R. D. Langfield, A. B. Comeau, J. S. Onge, A. J. Vaisberg, and G. B. Hammond. 2002. Antibacterial activity of some Peruvian medicinal plants from the Callejon de Huaylas. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 79:133-138.
- Ngobeni, G. L. 2003. Lippia javanica, Meloidogyne incognita and Bacillus interaction on tomato production and selected soil properties. Master Dissertation, Submitted to the University of the North, Sovenga.
- Nostro, A., M. P. Germanò, V. D'Angelo, A. Marino, and M. A. Cannatelli. 2000. Extraction methods and bioautography for evaluation of medicinal plant antimicrobial activity. Applied Microbiology 30:379.
- Okoli, A. S., and C. U. Iroegbu. 2004. Evaluation of extracts of Anthocleista djalonensis, Nauclea latifolia and Uvaria afzalii for activity against bacterial isolates from cases of non-gonococcal urethritis. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 92:135-144.
- Palom bo, E. A., and S. J. Semple. 2001. Antibacterial activity of traditional Australian medicinal plants. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 77:151-157.
- Perez, C., M. Paul, and P. Bazerque. 1990. Antibiotic assay by agar-well diffusion method. Acta Biology of Medicinal experimentalist 15:113-115.

- Pessini, G. L., B. P. D. Filho, C. V. Nakamura, and D. A. G. Cortez. 2003.

  Antibacterial activity of extracts and neolignans from *Piper regnellii* (Miq.) C. D.C. Var. *pallescense* (C. D.C.) Yunck. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 8:1115-1120.
- Pinheiro, L., C. V. Nakamura, B. P. D. Filho, A. G. Ferreira, M. C. M. Young, and D. A. G. Cortez. 2003. Antibacterial xanthones from *Kielmeyera variabilis* mart. (Clusiaceae). Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz 98:4.
- Porter, R. 1997. The Greatest Benefit to Mankind: A Medical History of Humanity.

  Norton Press, New York.
- Prashanth, D., M. K. Asha, and A. Amit. 2001. Antibacterial activity of Punica granatum. Fitoterapia 72:171-173.
- Qamaruddin, A., N. Parveen, N. U. Khan, and K. C. Singhal. 2002. Potential antifilarial activity of the leaves and seeds extracts of Psoralea corylifolia on cattle filarial parasite Setaria cervi. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 82:23-28.
- Rabanal, R. M., A. Arias, B. Prado, M. Hernandez-Perez, and C. C. Sanchez-Mateo.

  2002. Antibacterial studies on three species of *Hypericum* from the canary
  Island. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 81:287-292.
- Reiner, R. 1982. Detection of antibiotic activity. In Antibiotics an Introduction. Roche Scientific services, Switzerland 1:21-25.
- Rhajaoui, M., H. Oumzil, M. Faid, M. Lyagoubi, M. Elyachioui, and A. Benjouad.

  2001. Antibacterial activity of a Moroccan Propolis Extracts. Science Letters
  3.
- Rimington, P. 1998. Medicinal and Poisonous Plants of South and East Africa, the Compendium of Cucumis melo and Mycontoxicoses. Africa: MED.
- Rodriguez-Kabana, R. and M. Pope. 1981. A simple incubation method for the extraction of nem atodes from soil. Nem atropica 11:175-186.
- Rojas, R., B. Bustamante, J. Bauer, I. Fernández, J. Albán, and O. Lock. 2003.

  Antimicrobial activity of selected Peruvian medicinal plants. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 88:199-204.
- Samy, R. P., S. Ignacim uthu, and A. Sen. 1998. Screening of 34 Indian medicinal plants for antibacterial properties. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 62:173-181.

- Sokmen, A., B. M. Jones, and M. Erturk. 1998. The in vitro antibacterial activity of Turkish medicinal plants. Journal of Ethnopharm acology 67:79-86.
- Sparg, S. G., J. Van Staden, and A. K. Jager. 2001. Pharmacological and Phytochemical screening of two Hyacinthaceae species: Scilla natalensis and Ledebouria ovatifolia. Journal of Ethnopharmacology 80:95-101.
- Stirling, G. R. 1991. Biological Control of Plant-Parasitic Nematodes. CAB International, Wallingford, U.K.
- Sum manen, J. O. 1999. A chemical and Ethnopharm acological study on *Phyllanthus*emblica (Euphorbiaceae). University of Helsinki, Pharm acognosy, Pp. 34-40.
- Sundararaju, P., G. Banu, and K. Ratnakaran. 1994. Effect of various plant extracts on mortality of Radopholus similis. Sum mary of the Third International Workshop in Biological Control and Management of Chromolaen odorata. A bidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, hosted by IDEFOR, La Me, Côte d'Ivoire and the FAO Regional Office.
- Todar, K. 2005. Today's Online Textbook of Bacteriology. University of Wisconsin-Madison Department of Bacteriology.
- Truiti, M. C. T., M. H. Sarragiotto, B. A. A. Filho, C. V. Kakamura, and B. P. D. Filho.

  2003. In vitro Antibacterial Activity of a 7-O-b-D-glucopyranosylnutanocoumarin from Chaptalianutans (Asteraceae). Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz 98:2.
- Van Wyk, B. E., B. Van Oudtshoorn, and N. Gericke. 1997. Medicinal Plants in South Africa. Briza, Pretoria.
- Velickovic, D. T., N. V. Randjelovic, M. S. Ristic, A. Velickovic, and A. A. Smelcerovic. 2003. Chemical constituents and antimicrobial activity of the ethanol extracts obtained from the flower, leaf and stem of Salvia officinalis

  L. Journal of Society for Experimental Biology 68:17-24.
- Zareen, A, M. J. Zaki, and N. Javed. 2003. Nem aticidal activity of Ginger and its effect on the efficacy of *Pasteuria penetrans* for the control of root-knots nem atodes on tom ato. A sian Journal of Plant Sciences 2:858-860.

## APPENDICES

Appendices 1: Extractible plant compounds by solvents used in this study

S o l v e n t	Extractible plant com pounds	Com monly
		e x tra c t i b l e
		com pounds
W ater	Phenolics, flavonoids, tannins, terpenoids, saponins.	Flavonoids,
		terpenoids,
		tannins,
		p h e n o lic s
Ethanol	Terpenoids (diterpenoids, monoterpenoids),	Flavonoids,
	heleanolides, guaianolides, pseudogluaianolides, flavonoids, coum arines, sesquiterpenoids, tannins, saponins, steroids.	terpenoids
Hexane	Phenolics, flavonoids, kaenpferol, lutiolin,	Flavonoids,
	palargonidin, oleic acid, trans-asarone,	Phenolics,
	trim ethoxybenzaldehyde, geraniol, Alkaloids,	Alkaloids,
	saponins, glycosides.	saponins
Ethylacetate	Alkaloids, flavonoids, tannins, terpenoids, saponins,	Flavonoids,
	sterols, triterpenoids, lutiolin, polyphenolics,	terpenoids,
	arjunolic acid.	tannins,
		a lk a lo i d s
M ethanol	Cardenolides, flavonoids (flavones), phenols,	Flavonoids,
	alkaloids, tannins, terpenoids (triterpenoids),	terpenoids,
	saponins.	tannins,
		saponins
Petroleum ether	Steroids, terpenoids, flavonoids, tannins,	Flavonoids,
	naphthoquinones, triterpenoids, saponin, glycoside,	terpenoids,
	sterols.	tannins,
		saponins
Toluene	Alkaloids, benzonoid, furanolactone, carbohy drate,	Flavonoids,
	diterpene, triterpenes, flavonoids, sterols.	alkaloids
Acetone	Naphthoquinones, terpenoids (triterpenoids), tannins.	Terpenoids,
		tannins
Dichlorom ethane	Lim onoids, chrom e, flavonoids, coum arins, alk aloids,	Flavonoids,
	terpenoids, tritepenes, diterpene.	terpenoids,
		a lk a lo i d s

Source: (Ankli, Heimann, Heinrich and Sticher, 2000; Chatterjee, Kundu, Chakrabortty and Chandrasekharan, 1970; Chowdhury, Hasan and Rashid, 2002; DaSilva, Agostinho, Paula, Neto, Gamboa and Filho, 1999; Feresin, Tapia and Bustos, 1999; Gupta, Mazumder, Manikandan, Haldar, Buttacharya and Kandar, 2002; Hossain, Paul, Sorab, Rahman and Rashid, 2001; Kumar, Vishwanathan, Suresh and Mohan, 2002; Lall and Meyer, 2000; Neto, Owens, Langfield, Comeau, Onge, Vaisberg and Hammond, 2002; Okoli and Iroegbu, 2003; Prashanth, Asha and Amit, 2001; Sparg, Van Staden and Jager, 2001;).

Appendix 3.1 Number of dead *Meloidogyne incognita* in every second day after treatment initiation for 8 days

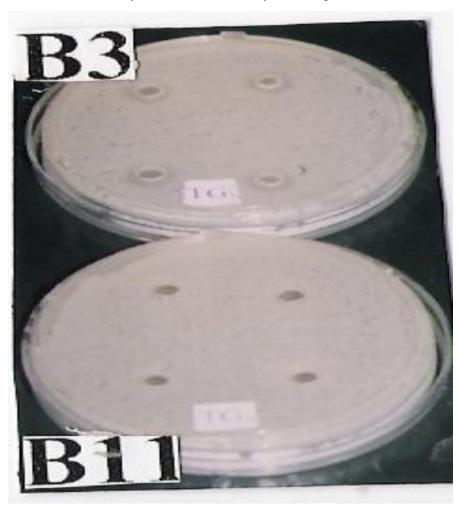
D a y	Fraction 1		Fraction 2	Fraction 3	Fraction 4	Fraction 5	Water	D M S O	
2	100.50	a b	1 3 1 . 7 5 a	1 2 2 . 7 5 a	1 3 4 .0 0 a	1 1 9 . 2 5 a	48.25 b	3 4 .0 0	a b
4	1 3 8 .0 0	a	1 3 3 . 2 5 a	1 4 2 . 5 0 a	147.75a	1 2 6 . 2 5 a	3 3 .7 5 b	3 2 .0 0	b
6	1 3 1 .7 5	a	1 5 2 . 2 5 a	1 5 1 . 5 0 a	1 5 0 .2 5 a	1 2 7 . 7 5 a	28.00b	3 3 . 5 0	b
8	1 4 6 . 5 0	a	173.25a	175.50a	175.25a	129.75a	36.00b	27.50	b

Appendix 3.2 M ortality of Tylenchulus semipenetrans eight days after exposure to biotest solutions

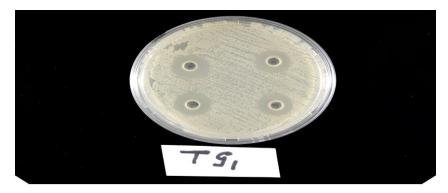
Experi				T reatm ent			
m ent	P 1	P 2	P 3	P 4	P 5	В 1	B 2
1	1466.70a	1 6 0 0 . 5 0 a	1815.00a	1747.20a	7 3 8 . 8 3 b	251.17c	273.17c
2	40.25abc	89.75a	83.75a	62.75abc	7 2 . 2 5 a b	11.25 с	20.50bc

 $B_1=w$  ater;  $B_2=D$  M SO;  $P_1=total$  ethanolic extract;  $P_2=100$ % hexane fraction;  $P_3=h$ exane-ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) fraction;  $P_4=100$ % ethyl acetate fraction;  $P_5=100$ % methanol fraction.

 $A\;p\;p\;e\;n\;d\;ix\;\;4\;.1\;\;B\;io\;a\;c\;tiv\;ity\;o\;f\;B_{\;1}\;,\;a\;n\;d\;in\;a\;c\;tiv\;ity\;o\;f\;B_{\;1\;1}\;\;a\;g\;a\;in\;s\;t\;e\;f\;f\;e\;c\;tiv\;e\;m\;i\;c\;r\;o\;b\;e\;s$ 



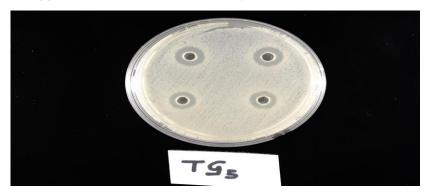
Appendix 4.2 Bioactivity of B  $_3$  against effective microbes



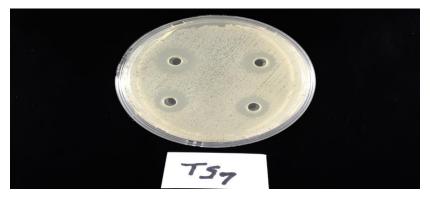
Appendix 4.3 Bioactivity of B  $_4$  against effective microbes



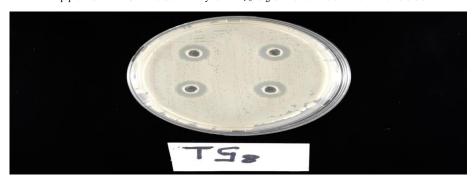
Appendix 4.4 Bioactivity of B<sub>7</sub> against effective microbes



Appendix 4.5 Bioactivity of B  $_9$  against effective microbes



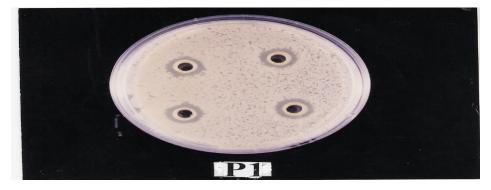
A ppendix 4.6 B ioactivity of B  $_{10}$  against effective m icrobes



A ppendix 4.7 B ioactivity of B  $_{12}$  against effective m icrobes



A ppendix  $4.8\,$  B ioactivity of P  $_1$  against effective m icrobes



A ppendix 4.9 B io activity of P  $_2$  against effective m icrobes



A ppendix 4.10 B ioactivity of P  $_3$  against effective m icrobes



A ppendix 4.11 B ioactivity of P  $_4$  against effective m icrobes



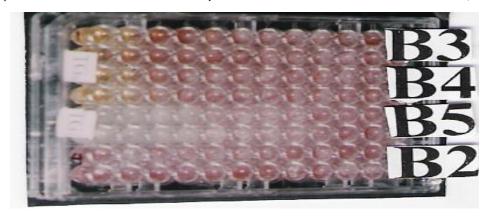
Appendix 4.12 Bioactivity of P<sub>5</sub> against effective microbes



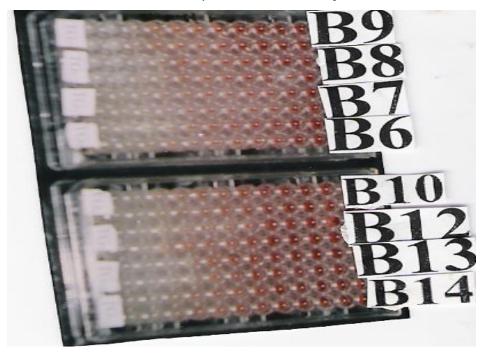
A ppendix 4.13 Inactivity of B  $_2$  against effective m icrobes



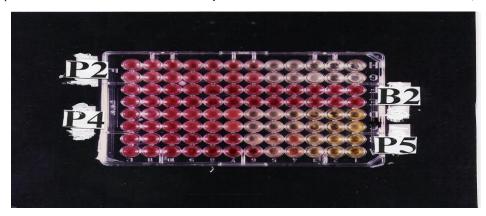
 $A\ p\, p\, e\, n\, d\, ix\ 4\, .1\, 4\ M\ in\, im\, u\, m\ in\, h\, ib\, it\, o\, r\, y\ c\, o\, n\, c\, e\, n\, t\, r\, a\, t\, io\, n\, o\, f\, f\, o\, u\, r\, \, b\, io\, t\, e\, s\, t\, \, s\, o\, l\, u\, t\, io\, n\, s\, \, (\,U\,\, L_{\,\, 1}\,)$ 



Appendix  $4.15\,$  M in im um inhibitory concentration of eight biotest solutions (U L  $_2$ )



Appendix 4.16 M inim um inhibitory concentration of four biotest solutions (U  $P_{\,1}$ )



Appendix 4.17~M inim um inhibitory concentration of four biotest solutions (U P  $_2$ )

