

1 **DISTRIBUTION, MOLECULAR IDENTIFICATION AND THE**
2 **EFFECT OF BIOLOGICAL CONTROL OF *PHYTOPHTHORA***
3 ***CINNAMOMI* ON MACADAMIA IN THE LIMPOPO AND**
4 **MPUMALANGA PROVINCES, SOUTH AFRICA.**

5
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11
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DISSERTATION SUMMARY

Macadamia is a nut-bearing tree belonging to the family *Proteaceae*. *Macadamia tetraphylla*, and *Macadamia integrifolia* (also *M. ternifolia*), and their hybrids are of importance in commercial cultivation. Root rot and trunk canker are the most important diseases caused by *P. cinnamomi* that could cause 60% yield losses and an estimated 10% of the annual gross value of macadamia. The objective of this study was to determine the distribution, molecular identification and the effect of biological control of *P. cinnamomi* in the main macadamia growing areas of South Africa.

The first part of this study assesses disease incidence and severity as well as the distribution of *P. cinnamomi* in the main macadamia growing areas of South Africa. *Phytophthora cinnamomi* was recovered from soil samples by baiting and from plant tissues by plating on *P. cinnamomi* selective medium. Root rots and stem cankers were recorded in 52 % of the farms sampled. No significant ($P > 0.05$) differences were observed in disease incidence and severity between the sampled provinces. The highest disease incidence (64.2 %) was found in the Mpumalanga province. *Phytophthora cinnamomi* had a wide distribution in all the main macadamia growing areas.

The second part of the study investigated DNA detection of *P. cinnamomi* from soil samples. A nested PCR amplification protocol was optimised with both primary and nested PCR specific for *P. cinnamomi* detection. The protocol improved both the specificity and sensitivity of PCR amplification in comparison to the one-step PCR. The application of diagnostic nested PCR together with the DNA extracted using the baiting bioassay was verified by comparison with DNA extracted using a kit. The nested PCR using DNA extracted by baiting was found to be more sensitive.

The final part of the study examined two *Trichoderma* spp. and eight unknown *Bacillus* spp. as potential biological control agents (BCAs) for management of *P. cinnamomi*. The potential BCAs were evaluated for their *in vitro* growth inhibition of seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates. All the isolates were sensitive to the ten potential bio-control agents. The *Trichoderma* spp. and two best *Bacillus* spp. (B 41b and NB 4) caused *in vitro* growth inhibition of 22 – 90 % in the laboratory *in vitro* studies. Depending on the mode of action, these BCAs should be evaluated further for their potential use in the integrated management of root rots and stem canker of macadamia.

Declaration

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I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree at any other tertiary education institution. To the best of my knowledge, this dissertation contains no material or work performed by others, published or unpublished without due reference being made within the text.

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Acknowledgements

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Abba Baba, Mvelinqangi... Ngiphakamisa udumo Kuwe.

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Dedication

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{To iNdlovukazi, Jobe kaMatshane, Mthembu weGubazi... Gogo, this one is for you}

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INTRODUCTION TO DISSERTATION

Macadamia is a nut-bearing tree that belongs to the family *Proteaceae* that consists of evergreen woody plants (Augstburger *et al.*, 2002). The aboriginal tribes used the nuts as a staple food and as a base for medicines and cosmetics in Australia, where the nut originated from (de Villiers, 2003). Two different species of macadamia, namely *Macadamia integrifolia* (Maiden and Betche) (also *M. ternifolia*), and *Macadamia tetraphylla* (L.A.S. Johnson), together with their hybrids, are of importance in commercial cultivation (Augstburger *et al.*, 2002). Macadamia production is limited to the tropical and subtropical regions of the world, but the nut is exported worldwide. In South Africa, macadamia production is mainly confined to the Limpopo, Mpumalanga, and KwaZulu-Natal provinces; and to a lesser extent to the Eastern and Western Cape provinces (DAFF, 2015).

Plant pathogens (fungi, stramenopiles, bacteria, viruses, nematodes) are a major threat to plant production since they result in quality and quantity reduction of commercial crops worldwide (Bailey, 2010). There are major losses in agriculturally essential crops due to these pathogens, and they, therefore, remain important constraints in agricultural production (Bailey, 2010). A number of factors affect macadamia production, but those of great economic importance are the disease-causing and quality-reducing pathogens. The main and most severe diseases in macadamia are caused by *Phytophthora* spp. These are capable of reducing vigour, production, and may cause complete trunk death (Akinsanmi and Drenth, 2010). *Phytophthora cinnamomi* (Rands) has been the chief limiting cause to successful macadamia production in countries such as Hawaii (Ko, 2009), Australia (Rosengarten, 2004), California (Zentmyer, 1980), Kenya (Sikinyi, 1993) and South Africa (Manicom, 2003). It causes stem canker, root rot and quick decline in macadamia worldwide (Serfontein *et al.*, 2007). Root rot and trunk canker are major diseases that could cause 60% yield losses and an estimated 10% of the annual gross value of macadamia (Muthoka *et al.*, 2005).

P. cinnamomi is the most important and destructive oomycete of not only macadamia worldwide, but over 1000 plant types (Zentmyer, 1980), including avocados, eucalyptus, kiwi fruit, chestnut, peach, pineapple, pear, and many native Australian and

1 South Africa plants (Pegg *et al.*, 2002). The pathogen is of specific importance to the
2 avocado (*Persea americana* Mill.) and macadamia industries because of its potential to
3 destroy avocado and macadamia orchards in a short time frame. It infects and kills trees of
4 all ages, from nursery trees to large fruit-bearing trees through the destruction of feeder
5 roots (Bekker, 2007). *P. cinnamomi* is responsible for the widespread damage of
6 macadamia trees worldwide. It infects the feeder roots. Infection occurring through the fine
7 feeder roots results in root rots whereas infection occurring through wounded trunks of
8 mature trees results in the development of trunk cankers (Mbaka, 2011). Infected trees die
9 in three to five years; this, however, depends on the management of the orchard.

10

11 **Significance of Research**

12 More than 95 % of produced macadamia nuts are exported internationally to Europe, Japan
13 and the United States of America (DAFF, 2015). The industry has the capability to enrich
14 rural livelihoods of macadamia growers. However, root rot and stem cankers caused by *P.*
15 *cinnamomi* are a notable macadamia production constraint in South Africa. To develop
16 effective management strategies for root rot and trunk cankers, the distribution of *P.*
17 *cinnamomi* in macadamia growing areas of the country needs to be established.

18 Early and reliable detection is fundamental to developing appropriate control
19 strategies for plant diseases and limit their further spread. Routine methods that are
20 currently used for the detection and identification of *P. cinnamomi* entail isolating the
21 pathogen directly from soil samples onto antibiotic media (Anderson, 2006). The potential
22 for improved control of this pathogen requires development of molecular detection
23 techniques to confirm morphological identification of *P. cinnamomi*.

24 Chemical control is the most effective control measure for *P. cinnamomi*, and to this
25 end, phosphate-based fungicides play the prime role (Bekker, 2007). Pathogens, however,
26 have the potential to overcome chemicals by developing resistance. Biological control
27 agents (BCAs) such as *Trichoderma* and *Bacillus* spp. have been reported to control
28 several soil-borne diseases. Their effectiveness in control of *P. cinnamomi* induced root
29 rots, and trunk cankers of macadamia need to be established. This will structure a
30 foundation for their addition in the integrated management of the two diseases.

1 **Research Objectives**

2 The objectives of this study were, therefore, to:

- 3 1. Determine the presence and severity of *P. cinnamomi* in the main macadamia
4 producing areas of South Africa through surveys;
- 5 2. Detect *P. cinnamomi* from macadamia soil using nested PCR;
- 6 3. Evaluate the use of biological control agents (BCAs) to control *P. cinnamomi* on
7 macadamia.

8

9 **Dissertation Structure**

10 This dissertation is composed of five chapters. The first chapter is a review of
11 literature which outlines the history and economic importance of macadamia and the
12 industry, the *Phytophthora* genus, the epidemiology, pathology, and management of *P.*
13 *cinnamomi* as well as the detection methods used for *P. cinnamomi*. The second chapter
14 focuses on surveys conducted in macadamia farms within the two main macadamia
15 growing provinces, Limpopo and Mpumalanga, as well as disease incidence and severity
16 caused by *P. cinnamomi* on macadamia. The third chapter concentrates on the detection
17 and characterization of *P. cinnamomi* from the soil using an optimized nested PCR. The
18 fourth chapter zeros in on the *in vitro* evaluation of selected bio-control agents against
19 *Phytophthora cinnamomi*. The dissertation ends with Chapter 5 that outlines the major
20 outcomes of this study as well as suggestions for future research.

21

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CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Macadamia

1.1.1 History and Distribution

Macadamia is an evergreen tree that is indigenous to Australia. Knowledge of its existence dates back to 1828 when its nuts were observed to make good food for pigs (Anonymous, 1998). This nut tree was originally found in the subtropical rainforests on the Australian East Coast, in Queensland and New South Wales (Rosengarten, 1984). The Aborigines gathered the nuts during autumn as it was an essential source of food, but did not commercially cultivate the plant. They also used the plant as a base for medicines as well as cosmetics for facial decoration (Anonymous, 1998). In 1858, botanist Baron Sir Ferdinand Jakob Heinrich von Mueller taxonomically classified *Macadamia ternifolia* to honour his good friend Dr. John Macadam, naming the plant macadamia, hence, establishing the genus *Macadamia*, which was endemic to Australia (Shigeura and Ooka, 1984). Before the public adopted the common name macadamia, the nut was also known as the Australian nuts, Queensland nuts, Bauple nuts, Bush nuts or the Australian hazelnut.

Macadamia is the only native Australian plant developed as a commercial food crop (Rosengarten, 1984). The macadamia nuts were domesticated for the first time in 1858 in Australia, and the first commercial plantation was established in 1888 (Rosengarten, 1984). In only 40 years, the Australian macadamia industry expanded from virtually nothing to the largest producer globally (Rosengarten, 1984). William Herbert Purvis then introduced macadamia to Hawaii in 1881 (Forbes, 1928). The Jordan brothers introduced the macadamia nut again in Hawaii in 1892 (Shigeura and Ooka, 1984); the seedlings of the top yielding macadamia cultivars during those years formed the backbone of the present day macadamia industry. Macadamia was successfully cultivated in Hawaii in 1931, where the first processing factory was established (Shigeura and Ooka, 1984). Commercial cultivation of the nuts has since spread to many other subtropical counties throughout the world.

There is uncertainty as to when the first macadamia trees were introduced in South Africa, but the Durban Botanical Garden already had a tree in 1915 (de Villiers and Joubert,

1 2003). The tree was possibly established at least eight years earlier (Joubert, 1986). In
2 1931, the Agricultural Research Council - Tropical and Subtropical Crops (ARC-TSC)
3 established the first seedling trees from imported seeds (Joubert and Thomas, 1963). The
4 seedlings were planted at Soekmekaar in 1957, and by 1960, Reims nursery in KwaZulu-
5 Natal (KZN) had sold over 60 000 seedlings (de Villiers, 2003). The first research on
6 macadamia was conducted by the ARC-TSC in 1963 (Joubert, 1986). Vegetative
7 propagation of suitable, locally selected cultivars, Nelmak 1, 2 and 26, was initiated during
8 the 1970's and since then their production has increased. The first macadamia and pecan
9 nut symposium were held at Polotisi in the Limpopo province in 1979. The interest
10 generated during the symposium led to the formation of the South African Macadamia
11 Growers' Association (SAMAC) (Anonymous, 1988) and the first grower's handbook was
12 published in 1993 (de Villiers, 2003). Macadamia has since become the fastest growing tree
13 crop industry in the country, and macadamias are now widely distributed throughout South
14 Africa.

15 Macadamia is grown mainly in Australia, Brazil, China, Costa Rica, Guatemala,
16 Hawaii, Kenya, Malawi, South Africa, and Zimbabwe (Wilkie, 2008). There are a number of
17 countries that grow the crop on a small scale, such as Argentina, Colombia, Fiji, Israel,
18 Jamaica, Mexico, New Zealand, Swaziland, Tanzania, United States of America, and
19 Venezuela (Wasilwa *et al.*, 2003). The prices of the nuts are increasing continuously to this
20 day due to the worldwide increase in familiarity and popularity of macadamia, leading to the
21 continuous demand of the "gourmet nut."

22

23 **1.1.2 Botany**

24 Macadamia belongs to a family which consists of evergreen woody plants, the family
25 Proteaceae. The trees can attain a height of up to 20 m and a width of 15 m (Fig. 1.1). They
26 have an even but rough bark, with a brown exterior but dark-red internally. Around the
27 parent root axis, the trees have compact clusters of short lateral rootlets in well-defined
28 rows referred to as proteoid roots (Duke, 1989). The principal function of plant roots, other
29 than to increase the surface area of the root system, which anchors the plant, is for
30 maximum uptake of water and nutrient elements. The plant is thus supplied with growth
31 hormones (Lovegrove and Hooley, 2000), and serves as storage for carbohydrate reserves
32 (Wolstenholme, 1981).

1



2

3 **Figure 1.1:** Mature macadamia trees.

4 *Macadamia tetraphylla* L.A.S. Johnson and *Macadamia integrifolia* Maiden and
5 Betche are two of the ten species that are commercially cultivated for their edible nuts
6 (McHargue, 1996). The other eight species produce small, inedible and bitter nuts, which
7 contain potentially poisonous cyanogenic glycosides (Joubert, 1986). *M. integrifolia* grows
8 between latitudes 25.5° and 28.3°S; it has round nuts with a smooth shell, leaf margins
9 without spines and three leaves at each node. *M. tetraphylla* is characterised by rough-
10 shelled nuts with a spindle shape and four leaves at each node with serrated spiny leaf
11 margins; it is found more southerly, between 27.6° and 29°S (Nagao and Hirae, 1992;
12 Gross, 1995). Macadamia trees produce bunch-like flower clusters that grow up to 30 cm
13 long with 100-300 blossoms. *M. integrifolia* produces yellow-white blossoms whereas *M.*
14 *tetraphylla* produces pink ones. These trees are hermaphrodites and are capable of self-
15 pollination, but in practice, yields are much higher when two or more varieties are grown in

1 proximity (Schoeman, 2009). This explains why almost every plantation will cultivate a
2 combination of varieties. It takes 6-11 months from blossom to mature fruit. The mature fruit
3 consists of a green husk that surrounds a hard brownish shell which contains a cream white
4 kernel (nut) (Bittenbender and Hiraе, 1990; Yokoyama *et al.*, 1990).

5 Grafting is used to propagate macadamia. The tree takes about ten years to reach
6 maturity and maximum nut yield, and can continue bearing for over 100 years (Nagao and
7 Hiraе, 1992). Macadamia growth is favoured by well-drained, fertile soils, and rainfall of
8 1000–2000 mm. The optimum growth temperature is 25 °C, although once established the
9 trees can withstand light frosts (Hamilton and Fukunaga, 1959).

10

11 **1.1.3 Economic Importance**

12 The macadamia nut is of great economic importance and has achieved the status as
13 the world’s deluxe nut. The nut can be roasted or eaten raw, whole or chopped (Duke,
14 1989). It can be processed into bakery products, confectionery, ice-cream nut paste, and
15 sauces (Sato and Waithaka, 1996; Yokoyama *et al.*, 1990). Macadamia nuts have 80%
16 mono-saturated fatty acids while the nuts themselves contain 75% fat by weight (Hiraoka-
17 Yamamoto *et al.*, 1994) allowing for edible oil extraction. The oil is a health food product
18 and sustains low blood cholesterol levels, as it comprises no cholesterol (Onsongo, 2003).
19 The fatty acids found in macadamia nuts reduce cardiovascular disease risk factors due to
20 the high palmitoleic percentage, which lowers blood cholesterol levels (Nestel *et al.*, 1994;
21 Curb *et al.*, 2000; Amy *et al.*, 2008; Mattham *et al.*, 2009). The high levels of palmitoleic acid
22 in the oil make it a desirable element in soaps and cosmetics as well. Macadamia oil has a
23 similar composition to olive oil (Cavaletto, 1980).

24 After oil extraction, the seed cake that contains 43.3 % free nitrogen extract remains,
25 33.4 % crude protein, 12.6 % oil, 8.1 % moisture, and 2.6 % crude fibre (Mueller, 1957).
26 This seed cake is used as a substitute for fodder (Woodroof, 1967). The husk and shell are
27 useful fuel sources and can be used as potting soil, mulching, and compost (Jenkins and
28 Ebeling, 1985). The husk is used for manufacturing coke, roasting coffee and to dry the
29 macadamia nuts (Augstburger *et al.*, 2002). It was suggested by Rumsey (1927) that the
30 tree is used as an ornamental and as timber. *M. tetraphylla* and *M. integrifolia* nuts have

1 equal oil content (Saleeb *et al.*, 1973). The nut contains 691 calories, 15.1 - 15.9g total
2 carbohydrates, 3.0 - 3.1g of water, 71.4 - 71.6g fat, 7.8 - 8.7g protein, 2.5g fibre, 1.7g ash,
3 48mg calcium, 161mg phosphorous, 20mg iron and 264mg potassium in 100g.

4 The steady and increasing demand for the “prime” edible nut, as well as the growth
5 in world production results in the high market value for macadamia nuts. The need to
6 expand sources of agricultural income and the constantly increasing value of macadamia
7 nuts, especially in developing countries, has led to more plantings and production
8 (Serfontein *et al.*, 2007; Wilkie, 2008).

9

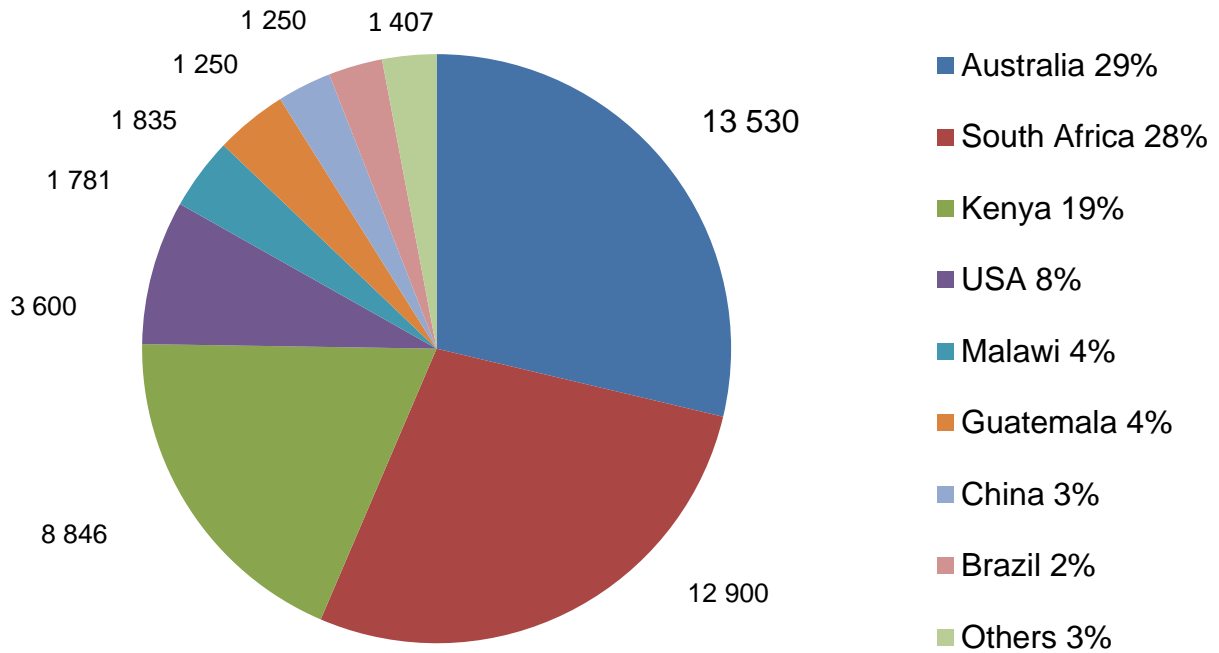
10 **1.2 The Macadamia Industry**

11 **1.2.1 Global Macadamia Industry**

12 Macadamias have had significant growth of 78% in world production, from 2004 to
13 2015, achieving 46 399 metric tons (MT) (kernel basis) in 2015 (INC, 2015). Australia has
14 been the largest macadamia nut producer since 2015. It produced 13 530 MT of
15 macadamia, followed by South Africa (12 900 MT), Kenya (8 846 MT), The United States of
16 America (USA) (3 600 MT), and Malawi (1 781 MT) (Fig. 1.2). These countries account for
17 88% of the world production as indicated in Figure 1.3 (INC, 2015).

18 Australia provides approximately 29 % of the world supply to more than 40 countries,
19 leading South Africa and Hawaii, which supply 25 and 16 % of macadamia kernels,
20 respectively (AMS, 2016). South Africa was the top exporter of shelled macadamias with
21 the USA as the principal destination accounting for 43 % of all South African kernel exports.
22 Australia has ranked number one in export since 2015 with Japan being their biggest export
23 market, followed by Europe and North America (AMS, 2016). The AMS (2017) announced
24 that in 2017 the Australian macadamia crop was forecast to reach 54 000 tons in shell at 10
25 % moisture and 50 500 tons at 3.5 % moisture; this represents the fourth consecutive year
26 of steady growth for the Australian industry.

27

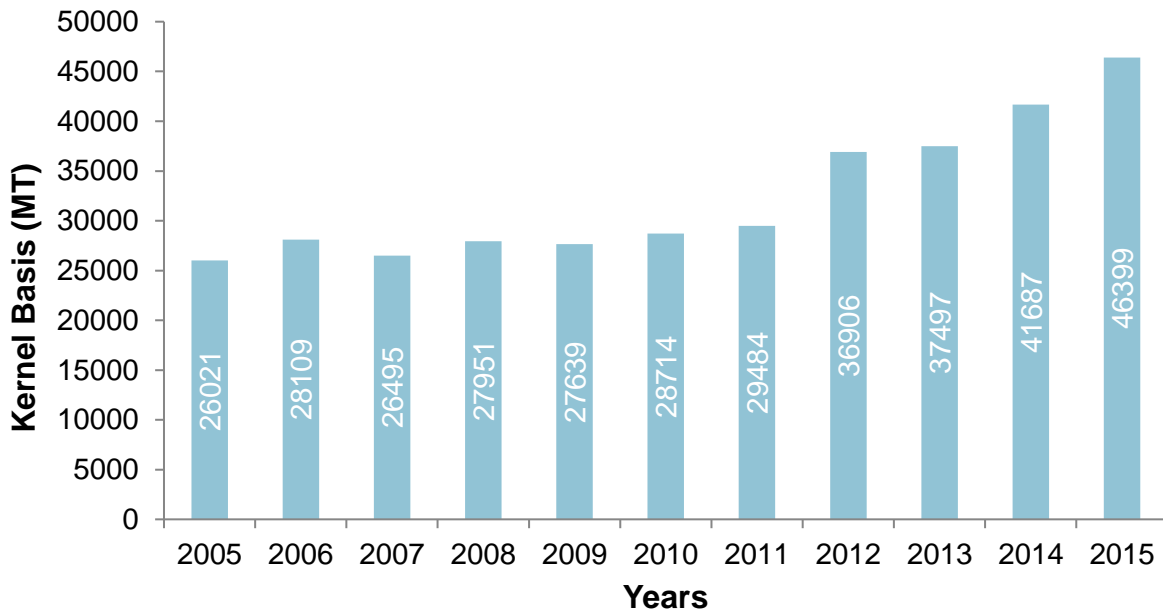


1

2 **Figure 1.2:** Estimated macadamia production in 2015 (INC, 2015).

3

4



5

6 **Figure 1.3:** Macadamia global production from 2005 to 2015 (INC, 2015).

1 Macadamias currently account for less than 3% of the world tree nut market,
2 therefore, marketing into new and existing markets, allows the unlimited potential for
3 macadamia nuts. On average, South Africa exports 9 254 MT of shelled macadamia to
4 other countries; that is 30% of the world production exported worldwide (INC, 2015).
5 Australia and China export 5 647 (18%) and 3 927 (13%), respectively. These three
6 countries are the highest in macadamia export worldwide (INC, 2015).

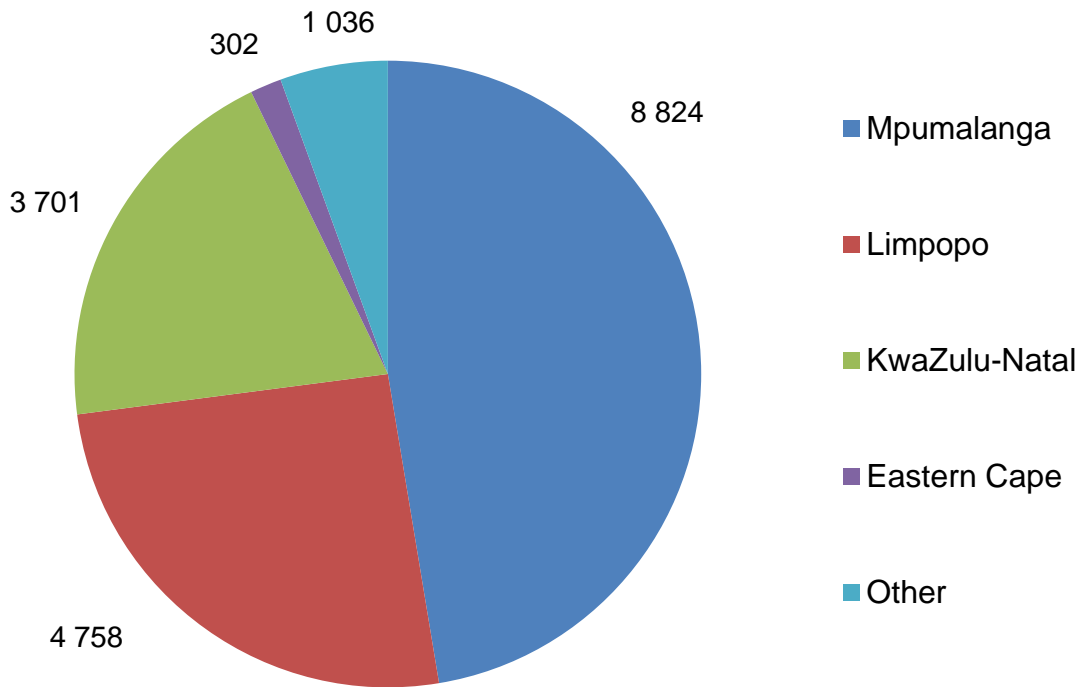
7

8 **1.2.2 The South African Macadamia Industry**

9 Macadamia nuts are one of four most broadly grown subtropical tree crops in South
10 Africa together with avocado, litchi, and mango. Macadamias are the fastest growing tree
11 crop industry in the country as they cover 44% of agricultural land used followed by
12 avocados which cover 34% (Jaskiewicz, 2015).

13 The industry is formally organized through an industry body called the South African
14 Macadamia Growers' Association (SAMAC), which is made up of nut growers, processors,
15 nurseries, marketers, international members, handlers and service providers (SAMAC,
16 2016). SAMAC is a member of The International Nut and Dried Fruit Council (INC), which
17 presents the opportunity to interact with international macadamia role players and other
18 numerous significant role players within the international nut trade (SAMAC, 2016). South
19 Africa is the largest producing country in Africa. According to SAMAC (2016), the area
20 under macadamia tree is approximately 17 800 hectare with roughly 5.3 million macadamia
21 nuts trees.

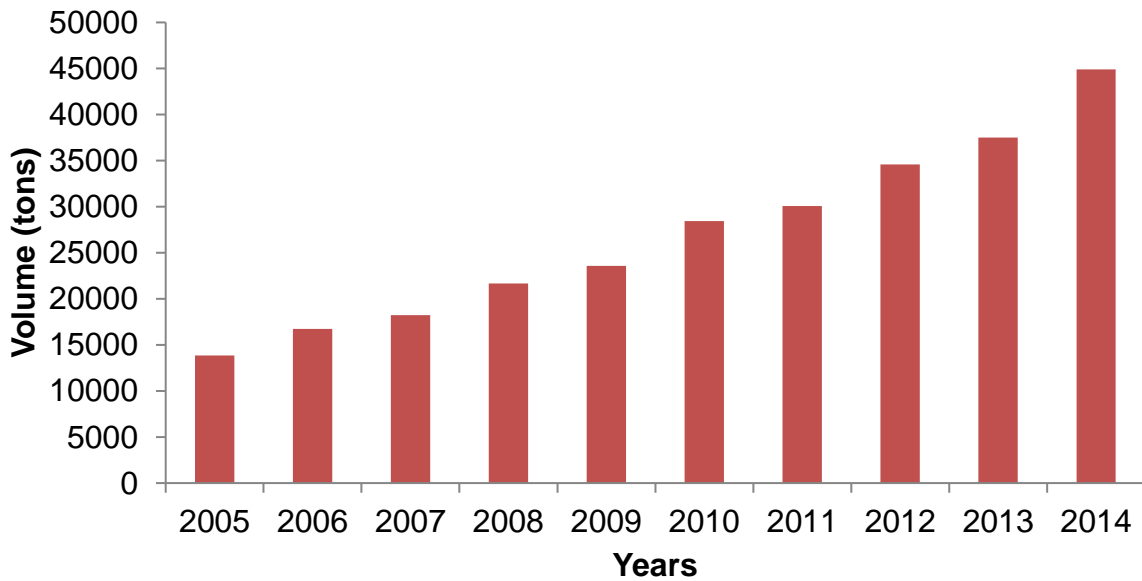
22 Mpumalanga, Limpopo, and KwaZulu-Natal are the main production areas of
23 macadamias due to their subtropical climate; other minor production areas include the
24 Eastern and Western Cape (Fig. 1.4). Mpumalanga has over 2.4 million number of trees
25 followed by Limpopo with over 1.4 million, KwaZulu-Natal with approximately 1.1 million and
26 Eastern Cape with 91 506 (DAFF, 2015). Macadamia production has steadily increased to
27 more than triple (from 16 000 to 43 000 tons) over the last ten years, from 2005 to 2014
28 (Fig. 1.5) (DAFF, 2015).



1

2 **Figure 1.4:** Major macadamia production areas of South Africa in hectares (SAMAC, 2016).

3



4

5 **Figure 1.5:** South Africa's dry in shell macadamia production (DAFF, 2015).

1 There is an average of 20% increase in prices of nuts per kg in the macadamia nut
2 sector every year due to the sector's rapid growth (DAFF, 2015). In 2015, the predicted
3 average price was 16.17 USD per kilogram of kernel (Green Farms, 2015). No regulations
4 are placed on macadamia nut prices by the South African government; the market forces of
5 demand and supply determine the costs. The major purchasers of macadamia nuts in South
6 Africa are Pick n Pay, Spar, and Woolworths; the nuts are also marketed directly to
7 processing companies (DAFF, 2015); and over the last decade, about 3 500 new job
8 opportunities have been created on macadamia farms.

9 The South African macadamia industry is almost entirely export based with more
10 than 95% of annual production shipped to international markets, with South Africa being
11 number one in the world in macadamia nut exports from 2011 to 2014, commanding 37.1%
12 share of the world exports (DAFF, 2015). Of the world production, 12% is exported
13 annually, and in 2015, 52% of nuts were distributed as nut in shell, and the rest were
14 processed to kernel (DAFF, 2015). The primary markets of South African macadamia nuts
15 are Asia (predominantly Hong Kong, China), Europe, and the USA (DAFF, 2015).

16 Raw macadamia kernel that has been vacuum packed, provided it conformed to all
17 quality specifications, is stored in a cool (15°C to 25°C), dry and well-ventilated area
18 (Cavaletto *et al.*, 1966). The nuts should be dried to a moisture content of approximately
19 1.5%. If the nuts are stored immediately without being dried, fungal growth could occur
20 (DAFF, 2015). The macadamia industry suffers a high incidence of local, organized theft
21 and more importantly, it suffers from diseases caused by pests (mostly the stinkbug and nut
22 borer) and pathogens that affect production and nut quality.

23

24 **1.3 Insect Pests and Diseases of Macadamia**

25 The stinkbug (*Nezara viridula* Linnaeus) and the false codling moth best known as
26 the macadamia nut borer (*Cryptophlebia leucotreta* Meyr.) are the two major insect pests
27 that attack macadamia nuts (Jones and Caprio, 1994; Golden *et al.*, 2006). Cultural control
28 methods that produce smoke to repel the insects such as immediately burning the husks
29 after de-husking and burning trash under the trees are used to control the two insect pests
30 (Schoeman, 2009). Termites (*Macrotenus* spp.), thrips (*Heliethrips haemorrhoides* Bouche),

1 and weevils (*Nematocerus* spp.), are minor insect pests that also attack macadamia nuts
2 (Ironsides, 1981).

3

4 **1.3.1 The Macadamia Stinkbug (*Nezara viridula*)**

5 The stinkbug feeds on kernels causing substantial fruit drop of small macadamia
6 fruits as well as sunken lesions on kernels of mature nuts (van de Berg, 1995). It injects
7 saliva which contains enzymes into the kernel by inserting its needle-like mouthpart into the
8 nut. The enzymes liquefy the tissue around the tip of the mouthpart, and the bug consumes
9 the liquid (van de Berg, 1995). Infected kernels are followed by secondary fungal infections
10 causing the kernels to become spongy, sometimes with brown pit-like depressions (Mbaka,
11 2011). Nuts infested on the ground may also have white or brown discolouring. These
12 kernels are not white but have a translucent appearance, are soft, shrivelled and inedible.
13 The damage caused by macadamia stinkbug can be as high as 90% in uncontrolled, large
14 orchards and higher temperature conditions (Wright *et al.*, 2007).

15

16 **1.3.2 The Nut Borer**

17 Nut borers infect fallen nuts and stick-tights (nuts that fail to abscise after
18 maturation). After hatching, the larvae of the nut borer eat and bore their way into the shell
19 of macadamia nuts; they can also penetrate the shell, therefore, destroying the kernel (de
20 Villiers, 1993). The fruit will drop, and larvae develop to maturity on the fallen fruit. Mature
21 fruit damaged by the nut borer may weep and stain other fruit in the cluster or those
22 hanging below (de Villiers, 1993). Actual losses caused by this pest may be underestimated
23 because feeding by the nut borer introduces mould.

24

25 **1.3.3 Raceme Blight**

26 Raceme blight is a disease caused by the fungi *Cladosporium cladosporioides*
27 (Fresen.) and *Botrytis cinerea* (Persoon) (Bittenbender *et al.*, 1998; van de Berg *et al.*,
28 2008). The fungi, causing flower abortion results in a reduction in yield of the nuts. It infects
29 young racemes and the flowers of the macadamia tree. Flowers are susceptible until nuts
30 set. The disease is, however, more severe in older orchards and in situations of high-
31 density plantings where trees are shaded (Sikinyi, 1993).

1 **1.3.4 Macadamia husk spot**

2 This disease is caused by the fungus *Pseudocercospora macadamiae* sp. nov.
3 (Drenth, 2007). Chlorotic spots appear on the husk of the nut; they become dark brown and
4 are harder than the surrounding tissue. Husk spots start as yellow flecks and extend to 3-6
5 mm before turning brown in the centre (Drenth, 2007). Spots may produce a velvety grey
6 carpet of spores under moist conditions. The fungus does not affect the shell and kernel,
7 but infected nuts may drop prematurely. These nuts are usually not suitable for processing
8 as they are immature and of low oil content, causing direct yield losses of up to 40%
9 (Stephenson *et al.*, 2003; Drenth, 2007; Miles *et al.*, 2009).

10

11 **1.3.5 Phytophthora Blight**

12 *Phytophthora* blights destroy flowers and developing nuts and are characterised by
13 blighting of immature racemes and nuts. The fungus *Phytophthora capsici* is responsible for
14 this disease (Hunter *et al.*, 1971; Kunimoto *et al.*, 1975). The first point of infection occurs
15 on the husk, where a brownish-black discolouration is observed (Kunimoto *et al.*, 1975).
16 Infection can occur before the hard nut shell is formed. This causes the fungus to rapidly
17 penetrate and destroy the kernel (Hunter *et al.*, 1971). A few days post infection, diseased
18 nuts fall from the branches. This disease usually develops in rainy or foggy environments,
19 with a lot of moisture (Drenth, 2007). Areas with low air circulation and high planting
20 densities are more susceptible to *Phytophthora* blights; foliage flushes are negatively
21 affected, and yields are reduced (Drenth, 2007).

22 Most fungal diseases that affect macadamia are not of major importance, except
23 *Phytophthora cinnamomi*, which is amongst those of great economic importance
24 (Augstburger *et al.*, 2000). Stem cankers and root rots are the foremost macadamia
25 production constraints. The rots of the feeder roots result in aerial tree symptoms
26 (Zentmyer, 1984). In South Africa, *P. cinnamomi* is reported to cause quick decline, root rot,
27 and trunk cankers in macadamia (Serfontein *et al.*, 2007).

28

29 **1.4 The Genus *Phytophthora***

30 *Phytophthora* is a diverse genus of Oomycete plant pathogens that belong in the
31 Kingdom Stramenopila, and Phylum Oomycota (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). The Oomycetes
32 includes four orders. The important plant pathogens are found in the Peronosporales and

1 the Saprolegniales; the remaining two encompasses small groups of mostly aquatic fungal-
2 like organisms (Table 1.1). The family Pythiaceae is found within the Peronosporales, which
3 contains the best-known genera which are *Phytophthora* and *Pythium* (van der Plaats-
4 Niterink, 1981). The cell wall of oomycetes is composed of a mix of cellulosic compounds
5 and glycan, and not of chitin which is found in true fungi (Money *et al.*, 2004). *Phytophthora*
6 species are water moulds and are favoured by free water in the soil and on foliage.

7
8 The name *Phytophthora* originated from the Greek and means plant (*phyto*)
9 destroyer (*phthora*) (Erwin and Ribeiro 1996). This genus consists of some of the most
10 destructive plant pathogens known; these plant pathogens affect many crops worldwide.
11 One hundred and twenty-three species have been described in the genus *Phytophthora*
12 (www.phytophthoradb.org/species.php), most of which are plant pathogens that cause
13 significant production losses in a wide range of host plants (Zentmyer, 1980). Some
14 *Phytophthora* species are responsible for some of the world's most destructive plant
15 diseases such as the 19th century's European potato famines caused by *P. infestans*
16 (Bourke, 1964).

17 *Phytophthora* species are, therefore, of environmental and economic importance in
18 various plant systems including agriculture, natural ecosystems, forestry and horticultural
19 based industries in the tropical and temperate zones of the world (Hardy and
20 Sivesithamparam, 1988). Due to the wide host range of *Phytophthora* species, numerous
21 species are able to exist within a single system at the same time. For example, *P.*
22 *megasperma*, *P. citricola*, *P. gonapodyoides*, *P. syringae*, *P. haveae*, *P. citrophthora*, *P.*
23 *nicotiane*, *P. drechsleri*, *P. lateralis*, *P. cryptogea* and *P. cinnamomi* are root pathogens of
24 woody ornamental tree species in nursery systems. There is a possibility of the pathogens
25 have the spreading to wherever the plants are sold (Hardy and Sivesithamparam, 1988;
26 Ferguson and Jeffers, 1999). Furthermore, the epidemic recognised as "Jarrah dieback" in
27 the south-west of Western Australia may be caused by *P. cinnamomi*, *P. citricola*, *P.*
28 *cryptogea*, *P. nicotianae* or *P. megasperma* var. *sojae* (Shearer *et al.*, 1987).

29 The integration of structural, biochemical and DNA characteristics determines
30 the taxonomic classification of *Phytophthora* species (Cooke and Duncan, 1997; Cooke *et*
31 *al.*, 2000; Hardham, 2005). According to the most recent taxonomic review, *P. cinnamomi*
32 Rands is classified in the kingdom Stramenopila; Phylum Oomycota; order Peronosporales;
33 family Peronosporaceae and genus *Phytophthora* (Hardham, 2005). This recent

1 classification acknowledges the genetic and biochemical discrepancy between
 2 *Phytophthora* and other fungi.

3

4 **Table 1.1 Classifications of the Oomycetes (Hawksworth *et al.*, 1995).**

5 Kingdom	6 Class	7 Order	8 Family	9 Genus
10 Stramenopila	11 Oomycetes	12 Lagenidiales		
		13 Leptomitales		
		14 Saprolegniales	15 Saprolegniaceae	16 <i>Achlya</i> 17 <i>Saprolegnia</i>
		18 Peronosporales	19 Pythiaceae	20 <i>Pythium</i> 21 <i>Phytophthora</i>
			22 Peronosporaceae	23 <i>Bremia</i> 24 <i>Peronospora</i>
			25 Albuginaceae	26 <i>Albugo</i>

20

21

22 **1.5 *Phytophthora cinnamomi***

23 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* is a notorious soilborne “*pseudofungus*” (Hardy *et al.*,
 24 2001) with a global distribution that affects numerous plants in agricultural, forest and
 25 horticultural ecosystems (Pérez-Jiménez, 2008). Rands was the first to describe this
 26 pathogen in 1922 (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996) as the causal organism of a stem canker on
 27 *Cinnamomum burmannii* Blume (cinnamon tree) in Sumatra (Tucker, 1931). The origin of
 28 this pathogen is unclear, but phylogenetic studies suggest that *P. cinnamomi* originated
 29 from New Guinea-Malaysia-Celebes and was introduced to the various tropical and
 30 subtropical regions of the world where it has been documented (Linde *et al.*, 1999).

1 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* is one of the most universal and destructive plant
2 pathogens. Since its discovery, *P. cinnamomi* has been recognised widely worldwide, being
3 found in more than 75 countries (Pérez-Jiménez, 2008). Within the genus *Phytophthora*, *P.*
4 *cinnamomi* is renowned as the species with the largest host range. More than 3 000 plants
5 have been documented as susceptible to *P. cinnamomi* (Pérez-Jiménez, 2008). Thus the
6 pathogen poses a threat to many economically important agricultural, ornamental and many
7 native Australian and South African plants (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). These plants include:
8 avocado, chestnut, pear, kiwi fruit, and eucalyptus, to name but a few (Pegg *et al.*, 2002).
9 The destruction of an approximated 202 500 ha of the jarrah forests (*Eucalyptus marginata*
10 *Sm.*) of Western Australia between 1927 and 1986, amply demonstrated the destructive
11 potential of *P. cinnamomi* (Podger, 1972).

12 The first record of *P. cinnamomi* in South Africa was on avocado in 1931 (Doidge
13 and Bonomley, 1931; Wager, 1931). This led to diseases of major financial significance,
14 such as root diseases of *Eucalyptus* and *Pinus* species (Wingfield and Knox-Davies, 1980;
15 Linde *et al.*, 1994) and root rot of avocado (Wager, 1942). The first report of this pathogen
16 on macadamia was in October 1959, where stem cankers were seen on two macadamia
17 trees on a commercial farm in Vista, California (Zentmyer, 1960). The macadamia trees
18 were replanted in in an area where avocado trees had been removed because of
19 *Phytophthora* root rot, caused by *P. cinnamomi*. *Phytophthora cinnamomi* was described as
20 the causal agent of macadamia root rots and stem cankers in Hawaii, Australia, and
21 California (Hine, 1961; Zentmyer, 1979; Rosengarten, 2004; Ko, 2009). In the early 1980s,
22 there were cases of death of macadamia trees in South Africa, and the cause was identified
23 as root rot caused by *P. cinnamomi* (Sikinyi, 1983). Evidence that *P. cinnamomi* may be
24 indigenous to the South Western Cape Province of South Africa was presented by von
25 Broembsen and Kruger (1985), as the pathogen was isolated from numerous local plants in
26 undisturbed areas and also from rivers flowing from secluded mountain areas.

27 *P. cinnamomi* is one of the most important and damaging diseases of macadamia
28 causing up to 60% in yield losses (Muthoka *et al.*, 2005). The pathogen attacks trees of all
29 ages, from nursery trees to large fruit-bearing trees, causing decay of the fine feeder roots
30 resulting in leaves are smaller and light green to yellow rather than dark green. On mature
31 macadamia trees, trunk cankers develop above the soil line (Mbaka *et al.*, 2009). Dark,

1 sooty material emanates from the infected areas which become cracked or irregularly
2 flattened due to death of the tree's cambium (Schroth *et al.*, 2000; Janick and Paul, 2008).
3 Due to infection through the fine feeder roots, root rots occur resulting in chlorosis, die back
4 and failure of new branch development leading to a substantial reduction in the incremental
5 growth rate (Zentmyer, 1960). Benson and von Broembsen (2001) noted that depending
6 on soil nutrient and moisture balance, infected trees die in about three years or more.

7

8 **1.5.1 Epidemiology and Aetiology**

9 *P. cinnamomi* has a complex life cycle consisting of many forms, which enhances its
10 persistence in the soil (Zentmyer, 1983). Dissimilar to many soil-borne plant pathogens, *P.*
11 *cinnamomi* is polycyclic, meaning its inoculum can increase from low, often undetectable
12 levels, to high levels in a short period of time, particularly in warm, moist and well-aerated
13 soils (Zentmyer, 1980). The pathogen has a short generation time and an immense
14 reproductive capacity, which promotes further escalation in disease potential.

15 Infection is escalated by high soil moisture due to increased sporangial production,
16 resulting in zoospore release, motility, and movement to feeder roots. Zoospores, which are
17 responsible for rapid colonisation witnessed during epidemics, occur soon after (Zentmyer
18 and Mircetich, 1966). Zoospores are short-lived and only motile in soils for short periods of
19 time (minutes to hours). In the course of unfavourable temperature and moisture conditions,
20 *P. cinnamomi* mainly survives as chlamydospores and mycelium in root debris and soil
21 (McCarren *et al.*, 2005). *P. cinnamomi* can persist in symptomless plants, debris, and
22 topsoil for a few years (Kong *et al.*, 2003b). The rapid rebuilding of the population occurs
23 under favourable conditions from these sources of inoculum. Weste and Vithanage (1978)
24 stated that the prompt production of infective zoospores intensifies the dissemination and
25 persistence of the pathogen to new hosts.

26

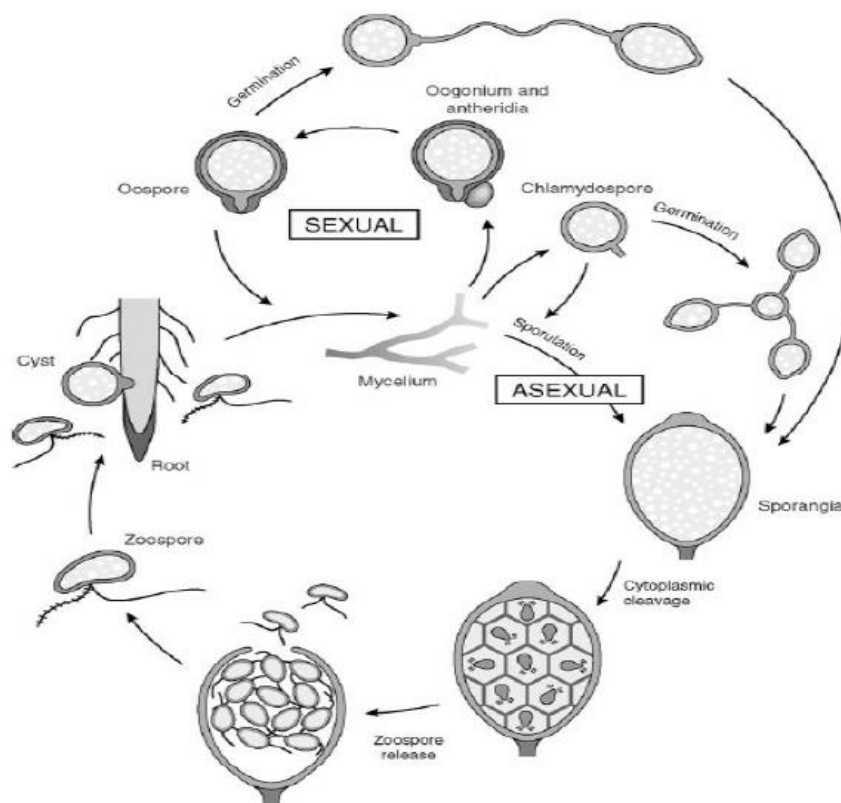
27 **1.5.2 Mechanism of Infection**

28 *P. cinnamomi* has two mating types, A1, which is geographically limited with fewer
29 hosts, and A2, which has a global distribution; it is diploid and heterothallic (Galindo and
30 Zentmyer, 1964). In South Africa, the A2 mating type has been coupled with cultivated

1 forests and agricultural crops (von Broembsen, 1984). *P. cinnamomi* reproduces in two
2 phases: the asexual, which produces motile zoospores, non-motile chlamydospores and
3 sporangia (Ribeiro, 1983); and the sexual, where hetero-gametangial contact takes place to
4 produce non-motile, thick-walled, oospores (Elliot, 1983). The life cycle of *P. cinnamomi* is
5 represented in Figure 1.6. During sexual reproduction, the oogonium penetrates the
6 antheridium resulting in the development of an oospore, by fusion of gametangial nuclei
7 (Ribeiro, 1978).

8 At an early development stage, the antheridium attaches firmly to the oogonium. The
9 attachment can be either amphigynous (where oogonium grows through antheridium) or
10 paragynous (where antheridium is attached on the side of the oogonium) (Pegg *et al.*,
11 2002). Following fertilisation, an oospore nearly filling the interior of the oogonium develops.
12 Thick membranes envelop these oospores, as they are the most resistant structures
13 produced and can survive in the soil for many years (Mckay, 1957; Duncan and Cowan,
14 1980). Oospores can germinate directly (by forming a germination tube) or indirectly (by
15 releasing zoospores) depending on numerous factors. These factors include temperature
16 (Klisiewicz, 1970), light (Ribeiro *et al.*, 1976), nutrition (Banihashemi and Mitchell, 1976) and
17 enzymes (Ribeiro, 1983).

18
19 *P. cinnamomi* can also reproduce asexually by producing non-motile
20 chlamydospores, which germinate by germ tubes, and motile zoospores (Ribeiro, 1983).
21 Zoospores operate as the primary structures involved in the infection development (Erwin
22 and Ribeiro, 1996). They form inside the sporangium before being released through the
23 apex of the sporangium (Zentmyer, 1983). Upon release, zoospores swim towards and
24 adhere to the root surface where they build up (Carlile, 1983). Once they reach the plant
25 root, zoospores develop a cell wall and encyst (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996), providing that
26 highly unfavourable conditions do not cause lysis (Aveling and Rijkenberg, 1989).
27 Zoospores become adhesive during the early stages of encystment allowing them to attach
28 firmly to plant roots and invade them (Sing and Bartnicki-Garcia, 1975).



1
2 **Figure 1.6:** Generalised disease cycle of *Phytophthora cinnamomi* (EPPO, 2004).

3
4 Germ tubes of cysts located near macadamia roots emerge from the side nearest to
5 the root and grow toward it (Zentmyer, 1970). Encysted zoospores can either germinate
6 directly to produce additional zoospores (repeated emergence) or create vegetative hyphae.
7 They produce germ tubes that grow in the direction of the root tip elongation area (Carlile,
8 1983). The germ tubes either penetrate the roots directly and the hyphae grow into the host
9 tissues. Toxins that kill the host cell are produced by the pathogen, followed by host
10 invasion (Carlile, 1983; Guest and Brown, 1997), or they form appressoria-like swellings
11 before penetration (Carlile, 1975).

12
13 **1.5.3 Disease Development on Macadamia**

14 *P. cinnamomi* causes root rot where the macadamia feeder root system is invaded
15 through penetration of the epidermis and cortex, killing the underlying root tissues
16 (Zentmyer, 1980). As the disease progresses, the feeder roots blacken, become brittle,

1 shrivelled and necrotic, ultimately killing the tree (EPPO, 2004). Pegg *et al.* (2002) stated
2 that larger roots could be infected as well, leading to the formation of brown lesions in the
3 wood, resulting in the bark peeling and trunk wounds ultimately causing trunk canker. Trunk
4 cankers are a result of *P. cinnamomi* entering root and trunk wounds. These appear as
5 roughened, sunken, deeply furrowed lesions that expand to 2 m or more up the stem,
6 ultimately girdling the stem and adjacent branches of the plant.

7 Water and nutrient uptake by the plant is reduced when the feeder roots are
8 destroyed (Broadley, 1992; Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996); this can decrease nut set and
9 contribute to early nut drop. The disease can promptly spread in younger plants causing
10 sudden wilt (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). Metabolic alterations and phytotoxic metabolites
11 produced by *P. cinnamomi* may indirectly be the cause for water shortage to the
12 aboveground parts of the plant, leading to wilting and disease development on the crop.
13 Additionally, the mycelium that grows through intercellular spaces within macadamia root
14 tissues physically blocks the relocation of plant metabolites, nutrients and water (Keen and
15 Yoshilawa, 1983). Unnatural distribution of nutrients in plant tissue and interference with
16 nutrient uptake results in visible symptoms such as chlorosis, smaller leaves that wilt and
17 drop prematurely, and limited new leaf growth. The canopy then becomes bare and may be
18 reduced to a skeleton of focal branches (Fig. 1.7).

19 *P. cinnamomi* propagules are disseminated by soil movement, including irrigation
20 ditches, debris or wind-blow, or by water flow and run-off in drainage (EPPO, 2004).
21 Nursery stocks may be the main reason for the spread of *P. cinnamomi* to disease-free
22 areas. This kind of distribution, however, has decreased due to the introduction of stringent
23 hygiene procedures in the nursery industry (Hardy and Sivesithamparam, 1988). Control of
24 this pathogen is difficult due to the expansive host range and the durability of propagules in
25 the soil.

26



1

2 **Figure 1.7:** Macadamia tree showing aboveground symptoms of *P. cinnamomi*.

3

4 **1.5.4 Control**

5 *P. cinnamomi* can persevere in plants, plant debris or soil for extensive periods
6 without showing symptoms, making this pathogen challenging to manage (Kong *et al.*,
7 2003b). Control of this pathogen varies in the various systems (agricultural, nursery and
8 native plants) where it exists. *P. cinnamomi* can be eradicated from small sites, and its
9 spread can be controlled by the use of containment methods (Commonwealth of Australia,
10 2014). Further work is, however, required to minimize its dispersal to un-infested sites and
11 to reduce its impact on infested sites (Dunstan *et al.*, 2011). There are currently no robust
12 methods available to exterminate this pathogen from spot infestations or to inhibit its spread
13 along an active disease front. The need to eradicate or contain the pathogen is now
14 paramount to ensure macadamia and other threatened flora are protected for the long term.
15 To limit or eradicate the pathogen, biological, cultural and chemical methods may be
16 applied in controlled environments (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). A combination of these
17 procedures could be used in integrated plant protection predominantly to prevent and, if
18 infection takes place, to coexist with the pathogen, without eradication but controlling the

1 population, enhancing appropriate environmental conditions for root development and plant
2 growth and increase production despite of the pathogen presence (Coffey, 1984).

3

4 **1.5.4.1 Cultural**

5 Quarantine and hygiene are the first line of defence for *P. cinnamomi* and are
6 important in the control of this pathogen. Hygienic procedures focus on averting the
7 introduction of the pathogen through soil, water or tools and its spread from infected areas
8 into nurseries and uninfected parts to secure pathogen-free macadamia plants (Hardy *et al.*,
9 2001). Weste (1983) found that improving aeration by increasing drainage, balanced
10 mineral nutrition and alleviation of high soil moisture levels aids in the plant's tolerance of *P.*
11 *cinnamomi* by enhancing its defence responses and ability to survive low levels of infection.
12 Enhancement of soil organic content escalates the quantity and activity of soil microflora
13 that can inhibit *P. cinnamomi* in some soils and may be prospective biocontrol agents
14 (Menge *et al.*, 2001). Tsao and Oster (1981) stated that animal manures reduce *P.*
15 *cinnamomi* populations. In South African macadamia orchards, composted pig and chicken
16 manure reduced and suppressed *P. cinnamomi* in the soil (Aryantha *et al.*, 2000).
17 Moreover, the use of resistant macadamia trees will inhibit the pathogen. Zentmyer (1979)
18 reported that *M. tetraphylla* seedlings were more resistant to *P. cinnamomi* than those of *M.*
19 *integrifolia*.

20

21 **1.5.4.2 Chemical**

22 In 1977, Schwinn *et al.* (1977) identified phenylamides (acylanines), which
23 contains furalaxyl and metalaxyl as inorganic fungicides to control diseases caused by
24 oomycetes. In that very same year, Bertrand *et al.* (1977) found phosphonates such as
25 fosetyl-Na and fosetyl-Al could control oomycetes as well. These chemicals have proved to
26 be most effective as curative and systemic fungicides for control of *P. cinnamomi* when
27 applied as foliar sprays or soil drench (Aryantha and Guest, 2004; Nartavararat *et al.*,
28 2004). However, accelerated biodegradation has caused limitations in the management of
29 diseases caused by *Phytophthora* spp. (Gisi and Cohen, 1996). Phosphonates have been
30 found to be more ecologically friendly for the management of *P. cinnamomi* infestation
31 (Guest and Grant, 1991).

1 Phosphonate fungicides and their breakdown product, phosphorous acid (H_3PO_3),
2 are highly mobile in plants (Guest *et al.*, 1995). Translocation in association with photo-
3 assimilates, in a source-sink relationship by both phloem and xylem, leads to a direct
4 relationship between phosphite concentration in plant tissue and application rate (Hardy *et*
5 *al.*, 2001). Phosphonates control *P. cinnamomi* by stimulation of host defence mechanisms
6 as well as by direct fungitoxic activity (Guest *et al.*, 1995; Wong *et al.*, 2009). Phosphites
7 (salts of phosphonic acid, H_3PO_3), also have direct effects on controlling the pathogen,
8 resulting in the reduction of zoospores in infected plants (Wilkinson *et al.*, 2001). The
9 efficacy of phosphite differs with various *P. cinnamomi* isolates (Hardy *et al.*, 2001) and
10 environment (Guest and Grant, 1991). Phytotoxic conditions in phosphate-deprived plants
11 can be observed, where phytotoxicity symptoms show a linear relationship with phosphite
12 application rate and are likely to occur in all instances where phosphite is applied, even at
13 recommended rates (Hardy *et al.*, 2001). The fungicide does, however, not affect new
14 growth. Different application methods of phosphites have been applied such as foliar
15 sprays, soil drenches, trunk injections and trunk paints (Hardy *et al.*, 2001). Darvas *et al.*
16 (1983, 1984) first reported the use of a trunk injection method by injecting 0.4g fosetyl-Al.m²
17 canopy area and obtained “outstanding control” of *P. cinnamomi*. Trunk injections require a
18 much lower chemical dosage than foliar sprays (Whiley *et al.*, 1995), are longer lasting
19 (Hardy *et al.*, 2001), and are currently the preferred option.

20 *P. cinnamomi* strains can develop resistance to fosetyl-Al and H_3PO_3 ; this was
21 confirmed *in vitro* when *P. cinnamomi* isolates obtained from trees treated with fosetyl-Al or
22 H_3PO_3 were less affected by fosetyl-Al and H_3PO_3 compared to isolates acquired from
23 untreated trees (Duvenhage, 1994). Duvenhage (1994) concluded that the possibility of
24 resistance exists. However, the use of resistant or tolerant macadamia rootstocks against *P.*
25 *cinnamomi* would be the best method for reducing the pathogen (Coffey, 1987).

26

27 **1.5.4.3 Resistance**

28 One of the most efficient approaches of managing diseases caused by soil-borne
29 pathogens is the use of plants expressing increased natural resistance. Prior knowledge of
30 the presence of *P. cinnamomi* enables the selection of plant species or cultivars resistant or
31 tolerant to *P. cinnamomi*. In this context, the approach to the control of *P. cinnamomi* on
32 macadamia by resistance has to involve two aspects: the search for resistant macadamia

1 rootstocks and the search for resistant plants to use as replacement crops. Genetic diversity
2 must be explored by macadamia breeders to breed favourable traits (McHargue, 1996).
3 This can be done through a number of approaches, such as Marker-assisted selection
4 (MAS) which can select a trait of interest such as disease resistance based on the marker
5 linked to it (Semagn *et al.*, 2006). Tissue culture techniques resulting in clonal plant material
6 can also be used to induce resistance in macadamia trees by enriching the plantlets *in vitro*
7 using endophytes to stimulate resistance against *P. cinnamomi* (Saikkonen *et al.*, 2004).
8 Another way would be through plant genetic transformation, which introduces foreign DNA
9 sequences that result in transgenic plants. The shoots and roots are regenerated from cells
10 that contain the foreign DNA through tissue culture techniques (McClellan, 1998). Since
11 none of these resistant macadamia trees have been developed and more work is still being
12 done, a more sustainable approach to reducing *P. cinnamomi* is the use of biological control
13 agents (BCAs).

14

15 **1.5.4.4 Biological Control**

16 Biological control through alteration of soils with modifications or applying proficient
17 bio-control agents (BCAs) shows promising results in decreasing root rot (Pegg *et al.*,
18 2002). Components of the soil micro-flora subdue *P. cinnamomi* in some soils and are
19 possible BCAs (Borst, 1983; Weste, 1983). A number of authors including Pegg (1977),
20 Casale (1990) and Duvenhage and Kotze (1993) and studied biological methods to manage
21 *P. cinnamomi*. As a result, specific antagonistic isolates of bacterial and fungal species that
22 have shown antagonistic properties have been selected from suppressive soils using
23 various approaches to examine their bio-control potential towards *P. cinnamomi*. This
24 inhibition is via parasitism, antibiosis, nutrient competition, competitive exclusion and
25 saprophytism (Korsten and De Jager, 1995). A reduction of more than 50% in *P. cinnamomi*
26 populations was reported by McLeod *et al.* (1995) using *Trichoderma* isolates. *Angullospora*
27 *pseudolongissima*, *Catenaria anguillae*, *Ceratomyces tessulatus*, *Epicoccum purpurscens*,
28 *Hypochoytrium catenoides*, *Humicola fuscoatra*, *Microsparmacarbonaceae*, *Myrothecium*
29 *roridum*, *Myrothecium verrucaria*, *Streptomyces griseoalbus*, *Streptomyces vioascens* and
30 *Trichoderma harzianum* proved to be antagonistic against *P. cinnamomi* (Erwin and Ribeiro,
31 1996; Duvenhage and Köhne, 1997; Downer, 1998). There are currently some commercial

1 bio-control products available with *Gliocladium*, *Bacillus* or *Trichoderma* as the bio-control
2 agents (Chambers and Scott, 1995).

3

4 **1.6 Detection techniques for *Phytophthora cinnamomi***

5 Early and reliable detection is essential for the restriction of plant diseases, making it
6 a primary weapon against plant pathogens (Eden *et al.*, 2000). Highly specific, robust and
7 sensitive detection techniques are required to allow implementation of management
8 strategies and preventing further spread of the pathogen. Detection assays are especially
9 necessary for diseases that show symptoms only when the pathogen is well established
10 such as those caused by *P. cinnamomi* (Kong *et al.*, 2003b). Early detection and diagnosis
11 of *P. cinnamomi* is hindered by the fact that the pathogen can only be diagnosed once
12 symptoms are visible on plant tissues above the ground (Aberton *et al.*, 2001). Latent
13 symptom expression and infection by secondary pathogens mean pathogen diagnosis
14 based on symptom development may be too late for efficacious management to be
15 undertaken (Anderson, 2006). Detection of the *P. cinnamomi* from soil samples is,
16 therefore, paramount for disease management (Eden *et al.*, 2000). To effectively deal with
17 the needs of the modern commercial world, detection methods for *P. cinnamomi* need to
18 ensure accurate diagnosis, enable surveys in areas with suspected infestations and provide
19 answers rapidly (Judelson and Messenger-Routh, 1996).

20

21 **1.6.1 Isolation**

22 *P. cinnamomi* is a primary invader that attacks only living or freshly wounded tissue
23 that has not been invaded by other pathogens (Drenth and Sendall, 2001). A current routine
24 method for the detection and identification of *P. cinnamomi* involves isolation of the
25 pathogen directly from soil samples and plant tissue onto selective antibiotic media.

26 *P. cinnamomi* isolation from infected macadamia roots is relatively simple and
27 efficacious if the tissue is in an active stage of infection. It is intricate to isolate *Phytophthora*
28 from necrotic tissue as it often contains many secondary pathogens, enabling the pathogen
29 to be present with no visible symptoms (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). For successful *P.*
30 *cinnamomi* isolation from plant tissue, the tissue must be selected from the edge of an

1 actively growing lesion and transferred onto PARPH medium (Drenth and Sendall, 2001).
2 To isolate the pathogen from the roots, the roots are washed with water, cut into small
3 segments, and then plated onto PARPH (EPPO, 2004). Plates are incubated for 2–6 days
4 in the dark at 22–27°C. Following isolation, mycelia suspected to be *P. cinnamomi* is
5 transferred to potato dextrose agar (PDA) for observations by a compound microscope. On
6 PDA *P. cinnamomi* mycelium resembles rose petals or a camellia flower. It is easy to
7 identify *P. cinnamomi* due to its unique morphological features: sessile terminal or lateral
8 protuberances produced singly or in clusters, a distinctive coralloid mycelium with abundant
9 hyphal swellings, and swollen vesicles (EPPO, 2004). Ribeiro (1978) reported that the
10 presence of *Pythium* makes isolation of *Phytophthora* from roots and soil difficult. However,
11 the use of a selective medium PARPH (Jeffers and Martin, 1986) containing hymexazol (a
12 fungicide, 3-hydroxy-5-methyl isoxazole) provided a breakthrough against the contamination
13 of *Phytophthora* isolation media by *Pythium* (Ribeiro, 1978).

14 *P. cinnamomi* is found in low densities in the soil making direct isolations difficult
15 prior to the development of selective media (Tsao, 1983). Mitchell and Kannwischer-Mitchell
16 (1992) stated that because *P. cinnamomi* survives as chlamydospores in the soil, it is easy
17 to collect and germinate on selective media. Sprinkling soil crumbs on PVP agar can
18 qualitatively detect *P. cinnamomi* (Zentmyer, 1980). As difficult as it is to isolate *P.*
19 *cinnamomi* from the soil, baiting techniques increase the frequency of successful isolation
20 even in severely infected soils.

21

22 **1.6.2 Baiting**

23 Baiting is commonly used for successful isolation and detection of *P. cinnamomi*
24 from the soil. Soil samples should be taken from the moist soil, under the edge of the tree
25 canopy near healthy roots, at least 5cm below the soil surface. Soil samples are flooded
26 with water with susceptible pieces of plant material, referred to as baits, floating on the
27 surface (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). Avocado, lemon leaves or pineapple leaf-base may be
28 used as baits, which are left floating for about two to three days allowing the zoospores
29 produced by the pathogen to infect them. The leaves are plated onto PARPH medium and
30 incubated to enable *P. cinnamomi* isolates to grow and be isolated. Nechwatal *et al.* (2001)
31 stated that the key problem with the baiting method is that fast-growing organisms such as

1 *Pythium* can inhibit the growth of *P. cinnamomi*; therefore, the formation of zoospores on
2 the baits is not always adequate for a positive result. Tsao (1983) reported that many
3 different chemical and biological inhibitors found in the soil inhibit the detection of *P.*
4 *cinnamomi* when using the baiting method. When thin layers of soil are baited, that is when
5 detection is most sensitive since detection of low levels of inoculum from thick layers of soil
6 can be limited by the physical blocking of zoospore release from soil samples (Eden *et al.*,
7 2000).

8 Baiting assays are applied in the detection of *P. cinnamomi* since they do not involve
9 extremely complex laboratory equipment; there is, however, variable detection and low
10 levels of the pathogen cannot be detected leading to false negatives in detection analysis
11 (Eden *et al.*, 2000). Wilson *et al.* 2000 stated that in 16% of cases where zoospores were
12 detected in the water, the use of antibody tests showed that the results of the baiting were
13 negative.

14

15 **1.6.3 Immunological Detection**

16 Immunological assays are quick and precise detection methods; however, they
17 should not entirely substitute direct isolation (EPPO, 2004). *P. cinnamomi* can be detected
18 by serological methods, using Double Antibody Sandwich Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent
19 Assay (DAS-ELISA). Cahill and Hardham (1994) described the precise identification of *P.*
20 *cinnamomi* by means of a dipstick immunoassay with a monoclonal antibody, Cpa-3, that
21 identified an antigen positioned on the cyst periphery. In a succeeding study, Wilson *et al.*
22 (2000) revealed that the detection of *P. cinnamomi* soil by baiting could be improved by use
23 of the dipstick assay to test the bait water for the presence of zoospores. An ultraviolet light
24 microscope can be used to detect *P. cinnamomi* using fluorescent antibodies (MacDonald
25 and Duniway, 1979). Immunological assays are sensitive, and have shown to detect low
26 levels of the target pathogen (down to 40 zoospores per millilitre of water) and can
27 additionally be used to give a quantitative assessment of the pathogen in plant tissue or soil
28 samples. These techniques, however, are limited due to detecting dead as well as living
29 tissue, and cross-species reactivity (Cahill and Hardham, 1994). The reliance on ELISA as
30 an initial screening tool is disputable due to the high rate of false negatives obtained.
31 Culture-based and immunological detection methods lack reliability for routine pathogen
32 detection and are inefficient (Coelho *et al.*, 1997). They are time-consuming, labour

1 intensive and have low throughputs, therefore, limiting *Phytophthora* infestation
2 identification at an early phase; therefore, delaying the application of control measures
3 beyond the point when they would be prominently effective (Kong *et al.*, 2003b).

4 Immunological practices should be considered as being complementary to other
5 diagnostic procedures. However, detection methods that are highly specific, rapid, sensitive
6 and more reliable are needed and have been found through molecular identification (Weller-
7 Alm *et al.*, 2000). DNA detection methods overcome numerous difficulties associated with
8 immunological based methods of detecting *P. cinnamomi* (Coelho *et al.*, 1997).

9

10 **1.7 DNA Detection Methods**

11 DNA detection methods are now being widely used due to their specificity,
12 sensitivity, rapidness and reliability (Weller-Alm *et al.*, 2000; Bonants *et al.*, 2003). DNA is
13 detected straightforwardly, and it is present regardless of the pathogens developmental
14 stage or environmental conditions. Moreover, processing large of samples for DNA analysis
15 significantly reduces the cost of processing large numbers of samples and has a high
16 throughput (Martin *et al.*, 2000). Essentially all DNA detection methods include a
17 polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification where a pair of oligonucleotide primers flank
18 a region of interest.

19 Legay *et al.* (2000) stated that PCR is amongst the most convenient and efficient
20 methods used for the detection of nucleic acids. It is a method that uses DNA polymerase
21 to rapidly yield numerous copies of a restricted DNA segment using species-specific primer
22 sequences (Campbell, 1996). The number of copies of the targeted DNA increases
23 exponentially by undergoing 20-40 reaction cycles of synthesis (Campbell, 1996; Henson
24 and French, 1993). This means that a single copy of target DNA is amplified to produce
25 millions of copies of itself (Bohm *et al.*, 1999); therefore, massively increasing the sensitivity
26 of DNA based detection (Henson and French, 1993). The amplification products are then
27 detected by gel electrophoresis. PCR assays have been developed for many species of
28 *Phytophthora*. Most of these assays use internal transcribed spacers (ITS) derived primers,
29 (Cooke *et al.*, 1995a,b; Bonants *et al.*, 1997; Tooley *et al.*, 1997; Trout *et al.*, 1997; Liew *et*
30 *al.*, 1998; Tooley *et al.*, 1998; Schubert *et al.*, 1999; Bonants *et al.*, 2000; Judelson and
31 Tooley, 2000; Winton and Hansen, 2001; Grote *et al.*, 2002; Ippolito *et al.*, 2002) or elicitor
32 genes (Coelho *et al.*, 1997; Lacourt and Duncan, 1997; Kong *et al.*, 2003a).

1 **1.7.1 PCR Detection of *P. cinnamomi***

2 A number of PCR methods targeting various regions in the *P. cinnamomi* genome
3 have been developed (Table 1.2) (Coelho *et al.*, 1997; Kong *et al.*, 2003b; Anderson, 2006;
4 Engelbrecht *et al.*, 2013). PCR by Coelho *et al.* (1997) was combined with colourimetric
5 hybridization; however, the assay was not applied directly to DNA extracts from infected soil
6 samples. Kong *et al.* (2003b) studied the sensitivity of detection from artificially inoculated
7 soilless medium. However, the sensitivity of detection in the presence of PCR inhibitors or
8 detection of *P. cinnamomi* from naturally infested soils was not addressed. Engelbrecht *et al.*
9 *al.* (2013) developed a nested qPCR using the LPV3 primers designed by Kong *et al.*
10 (2003b), which investigated the sensitivity of the PCR assay in plant tissues, again, the
11 issue of sensitivity in the presence of PCR inhibitors or detection from infested soils was not
12 addressed. The above-mentioned procedures are valuable substitutes for identification of
13 the pathogen from pure culture, but they need to undergo further optimization tests for
14 specificity with non-*Phytophthora* species.

15 Most diagnostic primers for *Phytophthora* species were derived from the internal
16 transcribed spacer regions (ITS), and PCR protocols with primers derived from the ITS
17 regions have been reported for *P. cinnamomi* (Ippolito *et al.*, 2002; Grote *et al.*, 2002; Martin
18 *et al.*, 2004). DNA sequences of these regions are easily detected due to high copy
19 numbers in the genome, increasing the concentration of target DNA (Hayden *et al.*, 2004).
20 The ITS1 and ITS2 regions together with the ribosomal DNA found in the ITS (Fig. 1.8)
21 consists of conserved and unique DNA regions, making them ideal for PCR tests (Lindsley
22 *et al.*, 2001). Universal primers may target the highly conserved regions in the ribosomal
23 genes to amplify a variety of related species. The distinction of specific species is, however,
24 permitted by variable regions in the ITS region (White *et al.*, 1990). The use of these
25 regions or genes for species-specific detection has been enabled by the plethora of records
26 available on the level of intraspecific sequence conservation (Hayden *et al.*, 2004).

27 Anderson (2006) developed primers from the ITS region and adopted the nested
28 protocol with both primary and nested PCR specific for *P. cinnamomi* detection. The PCR
29 amplification of *P. cinnamomi* DNA isolated from infested soil was optimized.

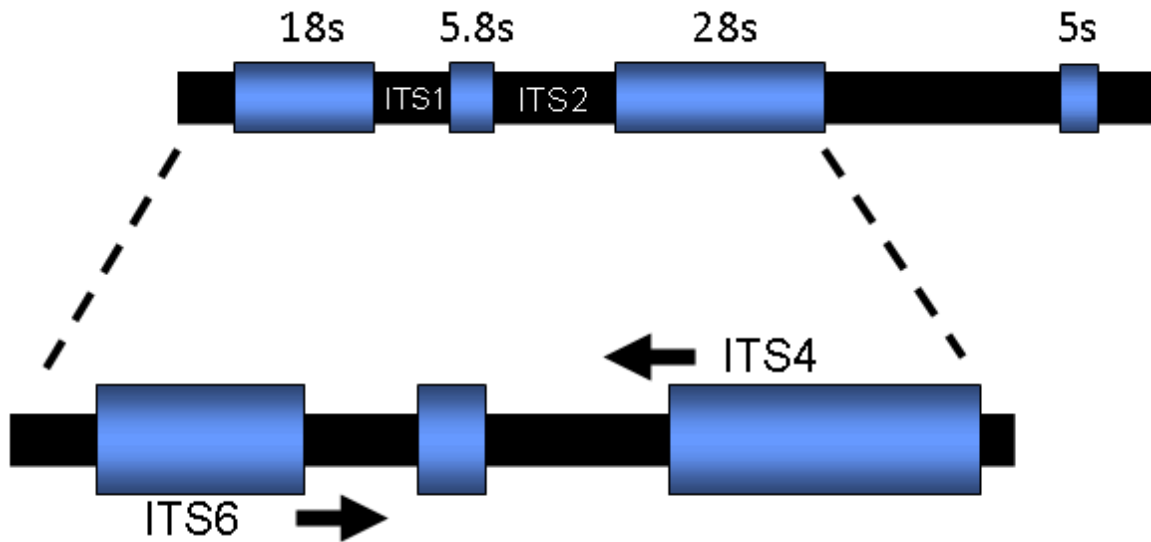
30 A nested design is popular for diagnostic PCR of plant pathogens with low levels of
31 target inoculum (Hayden *et al.*, 2004). It is used regularly for the detection of soil-borne
32 pathogens (Grote *et al.*, 2002), and it increases the sensitivity of detection from soil and
33 plant samples (Grote *et al.*, 2002; Ippolito *et al.*, 2002; Martin *et al.*, 2004).

1 **Table 1.2** Diagnostic primer sets known to produce specific PCR products for *P.*
 2 *cinnamomi*.

3 Reference	4 Primer	5 Sequence	6 Amplicon Length
7 Coelho <i>et al.</i> , 1997	95.422	GCTCGTGAGTATCCTGTCCG	349 bp
	96.007	CTCAGTAAATGGCTAGCCCGATAC	
8 Kong <i>et al.</i> , 2003b	LPV3	GTGCAGACTGTCGATGTG	450 bp
		GAACCACAACAGGCACGT	
9 Engelbrecht <i>et al.</i> , 2013	LPV3N	GTGCAGACTGTCGATGTG	77 bp
10		GAGGTGAAGGCTGTTGAG	
11 Anderson, 2006	CIN3A	CATTAGTTGGGGGCCTGCT	783 bp
12	CINITS4	TGCCACCACAAGCACACA	
13	CIN3B	ATTAGTTGGGGGCCTGCT	396 bp
14	CIN2R	CACCTCCATCCACCGACTAC	

15
 16 Nested PCR involves re-amplification of initial PCR product in a second round of
 17 PCR using a second pair of primers (nested primers) that lie inside the binding sites of the
 18 primary PCR amplicon (Grote *et al.*, 2002). A number of studies on various *Phytophthora*
 19 species have testified that nested PCR significantly improves the sensitivity of PCR
 20 detection from 100 up to 1,000 fold compared to single round PCR (Grote *et al.*, 2002;
 21 Hayden *et al.*, 2004).

22 Even though suitable sets of primers have been developed and used, they have,
 23 however, not been studied for the sensitivity of detecting *P. cinnamomi* directly from soil and
 24 plant material. Therefore, more prompt and reliable practices are necessary for detection of
 25 *P. cinnamomi* directly from the soil. The efficiency of PCR amplification was investigated by
 26 optimization and application of a nested PCR assay for the detection of *P. cinnamomi*, as
 27 well as assessing for sensitivity in comparison to a one-step PCR assay.



1
2
3 **Figure 1.8:** Diagrammatic presentation of nuclear ribosomal DNA regions (Grünwald *et al.*,
4 2011).

5
6
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CHAPTER 2

OPTIMISATION OF A NESTED PCR PROTOCOL FOR THE DETECTION OF *PHYTOPHTHORA CINNAMOMI* ON MACADAMIA IN THE LIMPOPO AND MPUMALANGA PROVINCES, SOUTH AFRICA

Abstract

Accurate identification of plant pathogens is key to developing appropriate and sustainable control strategies to ensure economically viable agricultural production. The aim of this study was to optimize a nested PCR protocol to enable the specific amplification of *P. cinnamomi* DNA with the intention of applying the assay for diagnostic analysis of infected soil and plant material. Seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates and two isolates from soil samples were used for *P. cinnamomi* detection and cultures were preserved over the project period in sterile distilled water at room temperature in the dark. A boiling technique was used in the extraction of DNA from pure *P. cinnamomi* cultures, followed by the baiting bioassay technique to optimise the detection system. DNA was also extracted using a Powersoil® DNA isolation kit and the two DNA extraction methods were compared. *P. cinnamomi* specific primers from the 3' end of 18S gene, through the 5.8S gene to the 5' end of the 28S gene, together with a small multigene family, *Lpv*, were used for polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification. Detection of *P. cinnamomi* using nested PCR yielded the expected amplicon size of 396 bp while detection using one-step PCR was unsuccessful. Nested PCR using the DNA extraction method from cultures obtained with the baiting bioassay displayed the highest level of *P. cinnamomi* specificity and sensitivity in comparison to that of the soil extraction kit. Following the baiting bioassay, nested PCR proved to be the best detection method for *P. cinnamomi* and this assay will be applied as a preferred protocol for the detection of *P. cinnamomi* by macadamia growers.

1 **2.1 Introduction**

2 The genus *Phytophthora* is complex and occupies various terrestrial and aquatic
3 habitats; it comprises about 70 described species (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996). Root infecting
4 *Phytophthora* species such as *Phytophthora cinnamomi* cause symptoms similar to those
5 caused by other *Phytophthora* and *Pythium* species, which include yellowing and wilting of
6 the above-ground foliage (Therman *et al.*, 2002). *P. cinnamomi* causes root rot on a wide
7 host range and is the main cause organism of macadamia root rots and trunk cankers in
8 South Africa (Sikinyi, 1993). Accurate detection and identification of *P. cinnamomi* is,
9 therefore, necessary to effectively manage/control such a widespread and destructive
10 disease.

11 The design of primers and optimization of reaction conditions governs the specificity
12 of any PCR reaction (Ekman, 1999). This makes the identification of microbial species by
13 PCR dependent on specificity and sensitivity of the amplification (Romanowski *et al.*, 1993).
14 Small variations in amplification when optimizing PCR protocols has been widely
15 recognized as necessary and having significant influence on the specificity and yield of PCR
16 amplification (Ekman, 1999). In detection applications, the specificity of PCR amplification is
17 the foundation of all successive analysis of species identity. Target sequences must be
18 distinguished from all other DNA within the biological extract (Liew *et al.*, 1998). A fine
19 balance between target concentration, primer concentration and specificity, and
20 amplification conditions is needed to achieve an efficient and specific PCR reaction (Legay
21 *et al.*, 2000; Grote *et al.*, 2002), Additionally, optimized PCR cycle temperatures for the
22 primer set and amplification conditions are also required (Coelho *et al.*, 1997).

23 In diagnostic applications, it is crucial that molecular detection using PCR are
24 executed under conditions that promote the amplification of target species while minimizing
25 that of non-target species (Ekman, 1999). This takes into consideration that low levels of
26 non-specific amplification occurs in most PCR as primers occasionally bind to non-target
27 DNA sequences that are consequently amplified (Suzuki and Giovannoni, 1996). The
28 optimization of PCR may limit such amplifications to levels below the thresholds detected by
29 agarose gel electrophoresis (Ekman, 1999). A number of authors have employed a
30 universal primary PCR amplification of the ITS regions of ribosomal DNA followed by a
31 specific nested PCR for the detection of the target species (Grote *et al.*, 2002; Ippolito *et al.*,
32 2002). A nested PCR application can overcome the complication of amplifying DNA from

1 environmental samples that have limited target DNA within soil and plant samples by re-
2 amplifying the primary product which may be undetectable by agarose gel electrophoresis
3 (Cullen and Hirsch, 1998; Hayden et al., 2004). The amplification of DNA present in higher
4 titres is reduced using specific primers in the primary and nested PCR cycles, therefore,
5 intensifying specificity and allowing species-specific detection following both cycles (Grote
6 *et al.*, 2002).

7 Against this background, the aim of this study was to optimize a nested PCR
8 protocol to enable the specific amplification of *P. cinnamomi* DNA with the intention to apply
9 the assay for diagnostic analysis of infected soil and plant material.

10

11 **2.2 Materials and Methods**

12 **2.2.1.1 *P. cinnamomi* isolates**

13 Seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates were sourced from the Agricultural Research Council –
14 Plant Protection and Research (ARC-PPR), University of Stellenbosch, Du Roi Laboratory
15 Services and Barnard Farm, together with isolates from two soil samples obtained at ARC –
16 Friendenheim (Table 2.1). To maintain cultures for DNA extraction, these were routinely
17 sub-cultured on PDA in 90 mm diameter Petri dishes and incubated in the dark at 25 ± 2 °C
18 for seven days.

19

20 **2.2.1.2 *P. cinnamomi* isolates from soil samples**

21 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* was recovered from soil samples using a baiting bioassay.
22 This assay involved the flooding of soil samples with distilled water and pineapple leaf-base
23 as host bait to trap the pathogen. After two days, the baits were plated on *P. cinnamomi*
24 selective medium to allow the growth of the pathogen. This baiting bioassay is explained in
25 detail in Chapter 3 under materials and methods.

26

27 **2.2.2 Maintenance of *P. cinnamomi* isolates**

28 *P. cinnamomi* isolates were preserved in sterile distilled water at room temperature
29 in the dark for the duration of the study. Each isolate was grown on potato dextrose agar
30 (PDA) for 5 days after which a few plugs (5mm diameter) were taken from the edge of each

1 colony and placed in sterilised Bijou bottles with 5 ml sterile distilled water (Gerretson-
 2 Cornell, 1983). To regenerate fresh cultures as required, a single plug from the water was
 3 plated on PDA and incubated at 25 ± 2 °C for seven days (Gerretson-Cornell, 1983).
 4 Multiple bottles and plugs were stored for each isolate to enable regeneration of cultures
 5 throughout the study period.

6

7 **Table 2.1** *P. cinnamomi* isolates used for PCR detection experiments

8	Isolate code	Source	Host
9	Bar 7	ARC- PPR	Macadamia soil
10	Ph 333	University of Stellenbosch	<i>Agathosma betulina</i>
11	Ph 336	University of Stellenbosch	<i>Agathosma betulina</i>
12	Ph 347	Du Roi Laboratory Services	Avocado roots
13	Ph 379	Du Roi Laboratory Services	Avocado soil
14	Ph 580	Barnard Farm	Macadamia soil
15	Ph 581	Barnard Farm	Macadamia roots
16	S1	Friedenheim	Macadamia soil
17	S2	Friedenheim	Macadamia soil

18

19 **2.2.3 DNA extraction from mycelial cultures**

20 A boiling technique (Kong *et al.*, 2003b) was used in the extraction of DNA from pure
 21 *P. cinnamomi* cultures following the baiting bioassay. Mycelium was harvested from a week-
 22 old culture using a sterile surgical blade. The surgical blade was sterilized prior to use on a
 23 different culture by placing it in 70% ethanol and passing it through a Bunsen burner. The
 24 harvested mycelia were placed in 2 ml micro-centrifuge tubes containing 500 µl of 10 mM
 25 Tris-HCl (pH 7.5). A spatula was used to break any agar picked with mycelia inside the
 26 micro-centrifuge tube. The tubes were placed in a heat block for 20 minutes and vortexed

1 for three minutes to release DNA. The supernatant was collected and DNA concentrations
2 were measured and recorded using a NanoDrop Lite Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher
3 Scientific Inc, Waltham, MA, USA). The DNA was used immediately or stored at – 20 °C
4 until further use.

5

6 **2.2.4 DNA extraction from soil samples**

7 DNA was extracted from soil using the Powersoil® DNA isolation kit according to the
8 manufacturer's instructions (MO BIO Laboratories, Inc, USA). 0.25 g of soil sample was
9 added to the provided power bead tubes and vortexed to mix. 60 µl of solution C1 was
10 added and briefly vortexed. The samples were homogenised at maximum speed for 10
11 mins in the Precellys24 homogeniser (Bertin Instruments, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France)
12 and spun in an Eppendorf centrifuge (Germany) at 10 000 x g (relative centrifugal force) for
13 30 seconds. The supernatant was transferred to a clean collection tube where 250 µl of
14 solution C2 was added, briefly vortexed and incubated at 4 °C for 5 minutes before being
15 centrifuged at 10 000 x g for 1 min. 600 µl of the supernatant was transferred to a clean
16 collection tube where 200 µl of solution C3 was added, briefly vortexed and incubated at 4
17 °C for 5 mins followed by centrifugation at 10 000 x g for 1 minute. 750 µl of supernatant
18 was collected in a clean collection tube and 1 200 µl of solution C4 was added and vortexed
19 for 5 seconds. 675 µl was loaded onto a spin filter and centrifuged at 10 000 x g for 1
20 minute, discarding the flow through. This process was repeated for each sample until no
21 supernatant was left. 500 µl of solution C5 was added, centrifuged at 10 000 x g for 30
22 seconds and discarded the flow through. Further spinning at 10 000 x g for 1 minute was
23 done before carefully placing the spin filter in a clean collection tube. 100 µl of solution C6
24 was added to the centre of the spin filter and centrifuged at 10 000 x g for 30 seconds
25 before discarding the spin filter. Total elution volume was 100 µl which is the recommended
26 volume for optimal DNA yield according to the manufacturers.

27

28 **2.2.5 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification**

29 The region of the ribosomal repeat from the 3' end of 18s gene, through the 5.8S
30 gene to the 5' end of the 28S gene, together with a small multigene family, *Lpv*, which

1 encode putative storage proteins in large peripheral vesicles in zoospores of *P. cinnamomi*,
 2 were defined by oligonucleotide primers described in Table 2.2. DNA samples of *P.*
 3 *cinnamomi* isolates sourced from descriptions in Table 2.1 were amplified with *P.*
 4 *cinnamomi* specific LPV3 (forward and reverse) primers (Kong *et al.*, 2003b) and the nested
 5 primers CIN3A (forward), CINITS4 (reverse), CIN3B (forward), CIN2R (reverse) (Anderson,
 6 2006).

7

8 **Table 2.2 Sequences of *P. cinnamomi* oligonucleotide primers used in this study**

9	Primer	Sense	Sequence
10	CIN3A	Forward	CATTAGTTGGGGGCCTGCT
11	CINITS4	Reverse	TGCCACCACAAGCACACA
12	CIN3B	Forward	ATTAGTTGGGGGCCTGCT
13	CIN2R	Reverse	CACCTCCATCCACCGACTAC
14	LPV3	Forward	GTGCAGACTGTTCGATGTG
15		Reverse	GAACCACAACAGGCACGT

16

17 Amplifications of DNA were carried out in a ProFlex PCR System (Applied
 18 Biosystems, Singapore). For the nested PCR, amplification was carried out in 25 µl
 19 reactions with 12.5 µl of the EmeraldAmp® Max HS PCR Master Mix (TAKARA BIO INC,
 20 Clontech Laboratories, Inc., China), 2 µl each of 3 µM forward and reverse primers, 2 µl of
 21 3 ng/µl DNA and 8.5 µl. 2 µl of PCR grade water was added to each negative control
 22 instead of DNA. PCR cycling, producing first round products, was optimized using the
 23 CIN3A/CINITS4 primer pair and the reaction started with an initial denaturation of 10
 24 minutes at 94 °C, followed by 30 cycles of 30 seconds at 94 °C, 30 seconds at 60 °C and
 25 30 seconds at 74 °C and a final extension of 74 °C at 10 minutes. The second round PCR
 26 cycling, using the CIN3B/CIN2R primer pair, was run under similar conditions with the only
 27 exceptions being 15 seconds for all intervals instead of 30 seconds and the use of 59 °C
 28 instead of 60 °C as the annealing temperature.

1 For the LPV3 primers, each 25 µl PCR reaction contained 2 µl of DNA templates,
2 12.5 µl of the EmeraldAmp® Max HS PCR Master Mix, 2.5 µl each of 10 µM forward and
3 reverse primers, and 8.5 µl of PCR grade water. The reaction was programmed with initial
4 denaturation at 96 °C for 2 minutes, followed by 39 cycles of 94 °C for 30 seconds, 60 °C
5 for 45 seconds, 72 °C for 1 minute, and a final extension step at 72 °C for 10 minutes (Kong
6 *et al.*, 2003a).

7 8 **2.2.6 Gel electrophoresis**

9 A 10 µl aliquot of PCR product from each reaction was loaded into a 2% agarose
10 gel, SeaKem® LE Agarose (Lonza, Rockland, ME, USA) in 1x TAE buffer (Tris-Acetate-
11 EDTA). Gels were stained with 3 µl ml⁻¹ ethidium bromide for visualization under a UV
12 transilluminator. Fragment sizes were determined by comparison with 6 µl of a 100 bp
13 molecular weight marker, GeneRuler™ (Fermentas Inc., Maryland, USA). Gel plates were
14 immersed in 1x TAE buffer in gel trays and electrophoresed at 110 V for 30 to 45 minutes.
15 Images were captured using the Genesnap1 software.

16 17 **2.3 Results**

18 **2.3.1 Optimized PCR amplification with nested primers CIN3A/CINITS4 and** 19 **CIN3B/CIN2R**

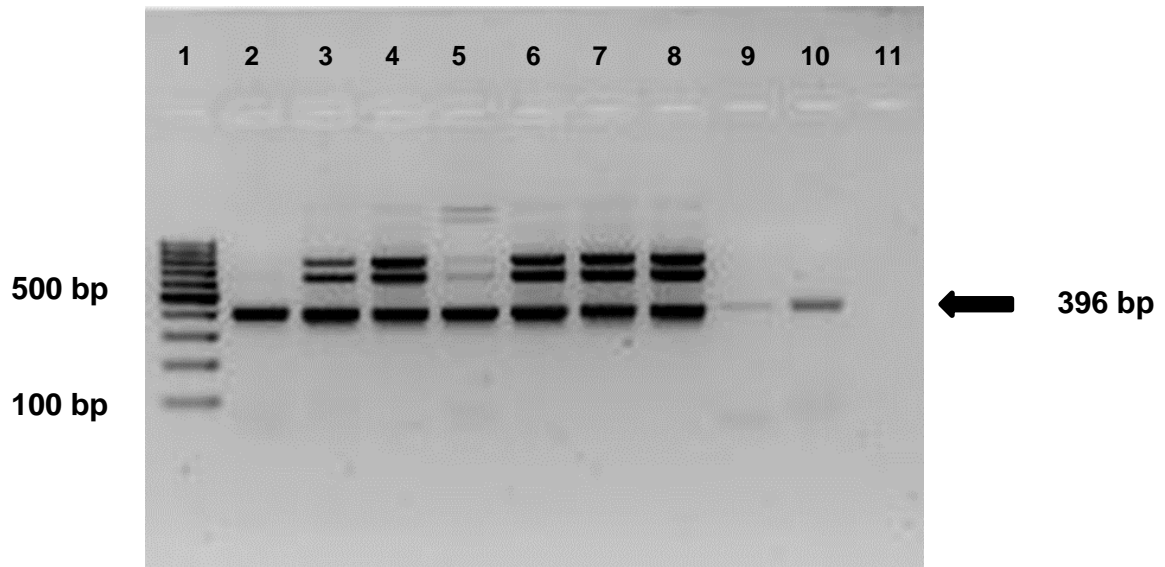
20 The *P. cinnamomi* specific CIN3A/CINITS4 and CIN3B/CIN2R nested primers were
21 able to amplify DNA from all seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates and yielded the expected
22 amplicon size of 396 bp (Fig. 2.1, Lanes 2-8). The presence of *P. cinnamomi* in two of the
23 tested macadamia soil samples was also confirmed (Fig. 2.1, Lanes 9 & 8).

24 DNA obtained using the boiling technique was of adequate quality for template
25 amplification as determined in a study using a ITS6 and ITS7 primer pair (Kong *et al.*,
26 2003b).

27 28 **2.3.2 PCR amplification with LPV3 primers**

29 The LPV3 primers were unable to amplify the seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates and two
30 soil samples and showed unspecific amplification. The PCR did not yield the expected band
31 size of 450 bp (Fig. 2.2).

1



2

3 **Figure 2.1:** Agarose gel electrophoresis of nested PCR products of seven *P. cinnamomi*
4 isolates and two soil samples using primers designed by Anderson (2006). Lane 1: 100 bp
5 DNA ladder; Lane 2: *P. cinnamomi* Bar 7; Lane 3: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 333; Lane 4: *P.*
6 *cinnamomi* Ph 336; Lane 5: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 347; Lane 6: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 379; Lane 7:
7 *P. cinnamomi* Ph 580; Lane 8: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 581; Lane 9: Sample 1 from macadamia
8 soil; Lane 10: Sample 2 from macadamia soil; Lane 11: Negative control.

9

10 **2.3.3 Comparison between DNA isolated with the soil kit and DNA isolated by the** 11 **baiting bioassay using nested PCR amplification**

12 PCR was used to determine the efficacy of the two DNA extraction methods that
13 were employed in the study. PCR was able to amplify *P. cinnamomi* DNA extracted using
14 either technique (Fig. 2.3).Of the two methods, the baiting bioassay displayed the highest
15 level of *P. cinnamomi* specificity and sensitivity (Fig. 2.3A).

16

17

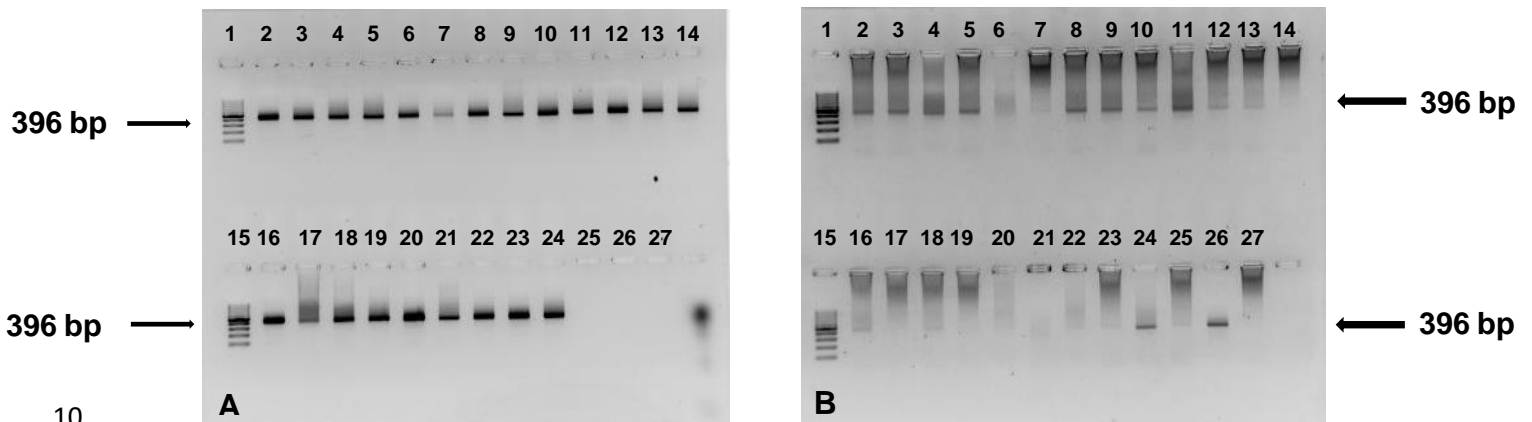


1

2 **Figure 2.2:** Agarose gel electrophoresis of nested PCR products of seven *P. cinnamomi*
 3 isolates and two soil samples using primers designed by Kong *et al.*, (2003b). Lane 1: 100
 4 bp DNA ladder; Lane 2: *P. cinnamomi* Bar 7; Lane 3: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 333; Lane 4: *P.*
 5 *cinnamomi* Ph 336; Lane 5: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 347; Lane 6: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 379; Lane 7:
 6 *P. cinnamomi* Ph 580; Lane 8: *P. cinnamomi* Ph 581; Lane 9: Sample 1 from macadamia
 7 soil; Lane 10: Sample 2 from macadamia soil; Lane 11: Negative control.

8

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11

12 **Figure 2.3:** Comparison of agarose gel electrophoresis of nested PCR products of DNA
 13 isolated using the A) baiting bioassay and B) soil extraction kit. Lane 1 and 15: 100 bp DNA
 14 ladder; Lane 2 and 16: *P. cinnamomi* isolate (Bar 7) positive control; Lanes 3 to 14 and
 15 lanes 17 to Lane 27: Samples from macadamia soil; Lane 28: Negative control.

1 2.4 Discussion

2 *P. cinnamomi* was successfully detected using an optimised nested PCR protocol
3 with the primer pairs described earlier (Anderson, 2006) (Fig. 2.1). The sensitivity of PCR is
4 an important factor in detecting plant pathogens from soil and plant samples (Judelson and
5 Tooley, 2000). To that end, nested PCR was chosen for the detection of *P. cinnamomi* from
6 macadamia soils samples. In other studies (Grote *et al.*, 2002; Martin *et al.*, 2004) where
7 other species of *Phytophthora* were detected, nested PCR showed a 1000-fold increase in
8 sensitivity. Anderson (2006) mentioned that the selection of four specific primers for a
9 nested PCR assay has the benefit of specific amplification of *P. cinnamomi* in the primary
10 and secondary PCR. This assay permits species-specific detection by both rounds of PCR.

11 The one-step PCR using the LPV3 primers was unsuccessful in amplifying *P.*
12 *cinnamomi* (Fig. 2.2). The specificity and sensitivity of PCR amplification are key factors in
13 PCR detection applications (Romanowski *et al.*, 1993). False negatives can occur in the
14 detection assay if the conditions for the reaction are too stringent; equally so, false positives
15 could occur if the parameters are not sufficiently stringent (Ekman, 1999). Specificity and
16 sensitivity need to be balanced as increasing stringency frequently decreases amplification
17 of product with a subsequent loss of sensitivity (Ekman, 1999). The unsuccessful
18 amplification of the pathogen DNA using LPV3 primers could be due to the conditions of the
19 reaction being too stringent as the PCR was not optimised leading to the reaction not being
20 specific. Kong *et al.* (2003a) reported that even though PCR with the LPV3 primers was the
21 most specific for *P. cinnamomi*, two isolates *P. sojae* and one out of six isolates of *P.*
22 *capsici* produced amplicons with sizes similar to that of *P. cinnamomi*, implying that the
23 primers were not specific for *P. cinnamomi* only. This is a case of non-specific binding by
24 the primers. There is need to optimize the PCR reaction conditions to avoid this problem.

25 Amplification of *P. cinnamomi* through nested PCR was successful for both DNA
26 extraction methods using the soil kit extraction and baiting bioassay. The PCR reaction for
27 DNA obtained using the baiting bioassay showed higher specificity and sensitivity than the
28 DNA extracted using the kit (Fig. 2.3). Baiting is commonly used for successful isolation and
29 detection of *P. cinnamomi* from the soil (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996) and detection is most
30 sensitive when thin layers of soil are baited (Eden *et al.*, 2000). The baiting method
31 displayed higher specificity and sensitivity due to a large amount of soil being used to trap
32 the pathogen as compared to using the kit which uses a small amount of soil which

1 increases the probability of taking soil where the pathogen was not present. In this study, *P.*
2 *cinnamomi* detected from the baiting bioassay was confirmed using molecular techniques.
3 As proven by a number of studies, serological or molecular diagnostic methods are more
4 sensitive than just using soil baiting (Pettit *et al.*, 2002; Hayden *et al.*, 2004; Davison and
5 Tay, 2005).

6 In conclusion, nested PCR together with the baiting bioassay proved to be the best
7 detection method for *P. cinnamomi*. To our knowledge, this is the first comparison study
8 conducted in South Africa to test optimal detection *P. cinnamomi* from macadamia soils, as
9 other research have detected it from avocado soils (Engelbrecht and van den Berg, 2013).
10 This assay will, therefore, be practically applied as a protocol for the detection of *P.*
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12

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CHAPTER 3

THE INCIDENCE AND DISTRIBUTION OF *PHYTOPHTHORA CINNAMOMI* IN THE MAIN MACADAMIA GROWING AREAS OF SOUTH AFRICA

Abstract

Limpopo and Mpumalanga are the main macadamia growing provinces in South Africa. 95 % of macadamia nuts produced in the country are exported worldwide. Root rots and stem cankers, caused by *Phytophthora cinnamomi* Rands, are one of the major production constraints of macadamia worldwide. Against this background, the aim of this study was to establish the incidence, distribution and severity of *P. cinnamomi* in macadamia growing areas of South Africa. Surveys were conducted on macadamia farms and commercial orchards to establish the incidence and the distribution of *P. cinnamomi* in the main macadamia growing provinces of South Africa. A baiting bioassay using pineapple leaf-base pieces as host baits was used to recover *P. cinnamomi* from the soil by plating onto a *Phytophthora* selective medium (PARPH). *P. cinnamomi* was identified based on colony, mycelia, and sporangia morphology, and zoospore release using a Nikon Eclipse Ni microscope at various levels of magnification (10 x, 40 x, and 1000 x in oil emersion). Descriptive survey data analysis was done by use of MS Excel 2007 and GenStat for Windows 18th Edition. The root rot incidence and severity on macadamia trees were not significantly different ($P > 0.05$) between the provinces. The highest root rot incidence and severity were observed in Mpumalanga (46.6 ± 4.8 %). Mpumalanga had a 5% higher root rot severity (67.78 ± 12.5 %) when compared to Limpopo (62.0 ± 11.8 %). *P. cinnamomi* was characterized by dense mycelia that grows like rose petals with a creamy white colour as well as by characteristic coraloid hyphae and profuse chlamydo spores distinctive of *P. cinnamomi*. A total of 107 out of 205 samples collected from four different locations in the two provinces tested positive for *P. cinnamomi*. 52 % of *P. cinnamomi* was detected from macadamia soils during these surveys. The study established that *P. cinnamomi* occurs in the main macadamia growing areas of South Africa. The high *P. cinnamomi* incidence requires a closer look at control strategies and assessment of their effectiveness.

1 **3.1 Introduction**

2 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* has a universal distribution and a wide host range,
3 infecting over 3000 plant species (Hardman, 2005). It is the most destructive soil-borne
4 pathogen worldwide causing roots rots and trunk cankers of eucalyptus, avocado,
5 pineapple, peaches and according to the Australian Government's Department of the
6 Environment and Energy (2017), *P. cinnamomi* threatens several plants with extinction. This
7 pathogen is the only soil-borne pathogen to have such an enormous impact globally and
8 over a great range of plant hosts (Hüberli *et al.*, 2001).

9 In South Africa (SA), root rots and stem cankers have been observed in many
10 macadamia orchards in the country, especially those in the main macadamia-growing
11 provinces of Limpopo and Mpumalanga. In other African countries such as Kenya, these
12 diseases were described as economically important causing 60 % yield losses in some
13 macadamia orchards (Sikinyi, 1993; Muthoka *et al.*, 2005; Mbaka *et al.*, 2009). Since SA is
14 the second largest macadamia nut producer in the world, after Australia (DAFF, 2016),
15 diseases caused by *P. cinnamomi* on macadamia need to be properly managed for the
16 economic production of the crop. Due to the increase in SA domestic production,
17 macadamia nut exports have concomitantly increased by 2.5 % and the country continues
18 to lead in macadamia nut exports. To this end, SA was the number one country in exports
19 from 2011 to 2015, with more than 95 % of macadamia being exported worldwide (DAFF,
20 2016). These percentages emphasize the importance of the production of high-quality nuts
21 to stay competitive globally.

22 As a member of both the World Trade Organisation Agreement on the application of
23 Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures and the International Plant Protection Convention, SA
24 has the responsibility to maintain high-quality phytosanitary measures to protect the country
25 on scientific data and international standards. It is imperative to have reliable information
26 transfer to trading partners about the presence and distribution of plant pests within South
27 Africa (Carstens *et al.*, 2012).

28 *P. cinnamomi* is identified to be a pathogen of economic importance on macadamia
29 in SA but there are no current records of its incidence, distribution and severity on the crop.
30 Additionally, there are no effective management strategies for stem cankers and root rot in
31 the macadamia agro-ecosystems of SA currently. In order to develop effective disease

1 management strategies, it is imperative to determine the incidence and distribution of the
2 pathogen in the major macadamia growing areas in the country. The aim of this study,
3 therefore, was to establish the incidence, distribution and severity of *P. cinnamomi* in
4 macadamia growing areas of South Africa.

5

6 **3.2 Materials and Methods**

7 **3.2.1 Disease surveys**

8 Surveys were conducted on macadamia farms and commercial orchards located in
9 the two main macadamia growing provinces of Mpumalanga and Limpopo. Identification of
10 farms was done in collaboration with the South African Macadamia Growers' Association
11 (SAMAC). Macadamia trees were examined for typical *P. cinnamomi* symptoms, such as
12 stem cankers above the soil line. A disease rating score was used where root rot was
13 observed. The root rot severity was calculated from the total number of infected trees in
14 each province and it was expressed as a percentage. The root rot incidence was recorded
15 as the percentage of the total number of macadamia trees that showed a visible decline
16 and/ or trunk cankers above the soil line, described above. From each field, 10 to 20
17 macadamia trees were selected randomly for sample collection, depending on the size of
18 the farm. About 300 – 500 g of soil samples were collected under the tree canopy to a depth
19 of 30 cm after removing the litter from the soil surface. Samples were placed in sterile
20 plastic bags, which were then sealed and labelled before being stored in an insulated foam
21 box until analysis.

22

23 **3.2.2 Recovery of *P. cinnamomi***

24 *P. cinnamomi* was recovered from soil samples using the baiting bioassay, a method
25 that has been validated (Ferguson and Jeffers, 1999) and is routinely used in the
26 Agricultural Research Council - Tropical and Subtropical Crops (ARC-TSC) laboratory. Soil
27 samples were mixed thoroughly and 300 g of soil was placed in a 1000 ml plastic container
28 and flooded with 400 ml of distilled water. Six pineapple (*Ananas comosus* L. Merr.) leaf-
29 base discs (5 mm in diameter) were floated on the surface of the water as baits and
30 incubated at room temperature (22-25 °C) for 3 days. On the third day, leaf discs were blot
31 dried under a laminar flow cabinet and plated on PARPH selective medium to detect *P.*

1 *cinnamomi*. PARPH was prepared according to a modified protocol of Kannwischer and
2 Mitchell (1978). The chemicals 0.2g pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB), 0.34g ampicillin and
3 0.02g rifampicin were dissolved in 10 ml of 95 % ethanol, then 0.08 g pimaricin and 0.1g
4 hymexazol were suspended in 10 ml sterile, distilled water. These mixtures of chemicals
5 were then added to 39 g L⁻¹ of basal medium potato dextrose agar (PDA).

6 The PARPH medium was poured in 90 mm diameter Petri dishes, allowed to cool
7 overnight under a laminar flow bench and stored at 4 °C in the dark to avoid degradation of
8 the antibiotics. The PARPH plates with leaf discs were sealed with parafilm and incubated
9 in the dark at 25 ± 2 °C for 3 days. 5 mm agar blocks were cut from the edge of the growing
10 *P. cinnamomi* mycelia and placed in Petri dishes containing PDA. The plates were sealed
11 and incubated for seven days, after which pure *P. cinnamomi* cultures were easily
12 recognized based on typical morphological features observed (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996;
13 Zentmyer, 1980). Morphological identification was confirmed using a Nikon Eclipse Ni
14 microscope at various levels of magnification (10 x, 40 x, and 1000 x in oil emersion).

15

16 **3.2.3 Detection of *P. cinnamomi***

17 The presence of *P. cinnamomi* in the collected field samples was detected using
18 nested Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), as described in Chapter 1. Following the baiting
19 bioassay, the mycelia were subjected to a boiling method to release DNA which was used
20 in nested PCR (refer to Chapter 2 method's section).

21

22 **3.2.4 Data analysis**

23 Descriptive statistics of the incidence of root rot and severity in two provinces of
24 South Africa data was done by the use of MS Excel 2007 and GenStat for Windows 18th
25 Edition. Descriptive statistics of the nested PCR results was carried out using the Statistica
26 software versions (13.0, StatSoft Inc., USA). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to
27 test for significant differences between provinces. Means were separated using the Least
28 Significant Difference (LSD) test.

29

30

1 3.3 Results

2 3.3.1 Disease surveys

3 The survey areas are in the North-Eastern part of South Africa between latitudes 22°
4 S and 25° S (Table 3.1). Annual rainfall is high (> 1000), but there are some orchards in
5 semi-arid regions with rainfall of \pm 400 mm per annum. These are the avocado zones
6 according to SAAGA (2007) (Fig. 3.1). Due to confidentiality, the specific farm names are not
7 indicated.

8

9 **Table 3.1 Location of survey sites for the distribution of *Phytophthora cinnamomi***
10 **associated with root rot of macadamia in South Africa**

11 Province	12 Location	13 Co-ordinates	14 Number of Farms	15 Number of samples
16 Limpopo	17 Levubu	23.085°S, 30.284°E	6	83
18 Mpumalanga	19 Mbombela	25.465°S, 30.985°E	2	30
	20 Kiepersol	25.063°S, 31.039°E	5	69
	21 Bushbuckridge	24.838°S, 31.073°E	2	23
22 Total			15	205

18

19 Root rot was observed in all the main macadamia growing areas of South Africa.
20 The root rot incidence and severity on macadamia trees were not significantly different ($P >$
21 0.05) between the provinces (Table 3.2). The highest root rot incidence was recorded in
22 Mpumalanga (64.2 ± 4.8 %). Mpumalanga had a 5% higher root rot severity (67.78 ± 12.5
23 %) when compared to Limpopo (62.0 ± 11.8 %).

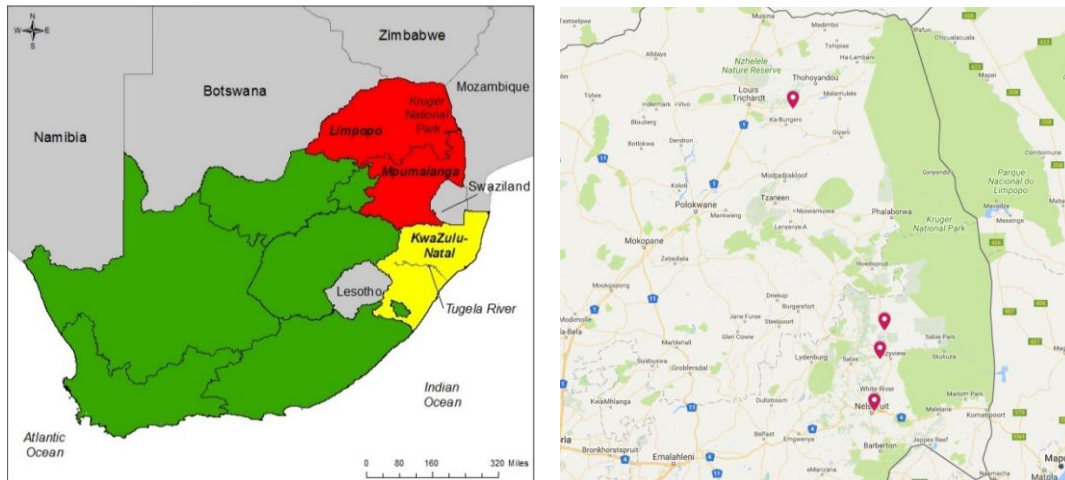
24

25 3.3.2 *P. cinnamomi* isolates recovered

26 Colony morphology on PDA was used to characterize isolates recovered from the
27 soil samples. *P. cinnamomi* was characterized by dense mycelia that grew like rose petals
28 with a creamy white colour (Fig. 3.2A) as well as coraloid hyphae and profuse

1 chlamydospores distinctive of *P. cinnamomi* (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996), which were
 2 observed microscopically (Fig. 3.2B).

3
 4



5
 6

7 **Figure 3.1:** The avocado growing areas and location of survey sites for the distribution of
 8 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* on macadamia in the Mpumalanga and Limpopo Provinces
 9 indicated in red.

10

11 **Table 3.2 Incidence of root rot and severity in two provinces of South Africa**

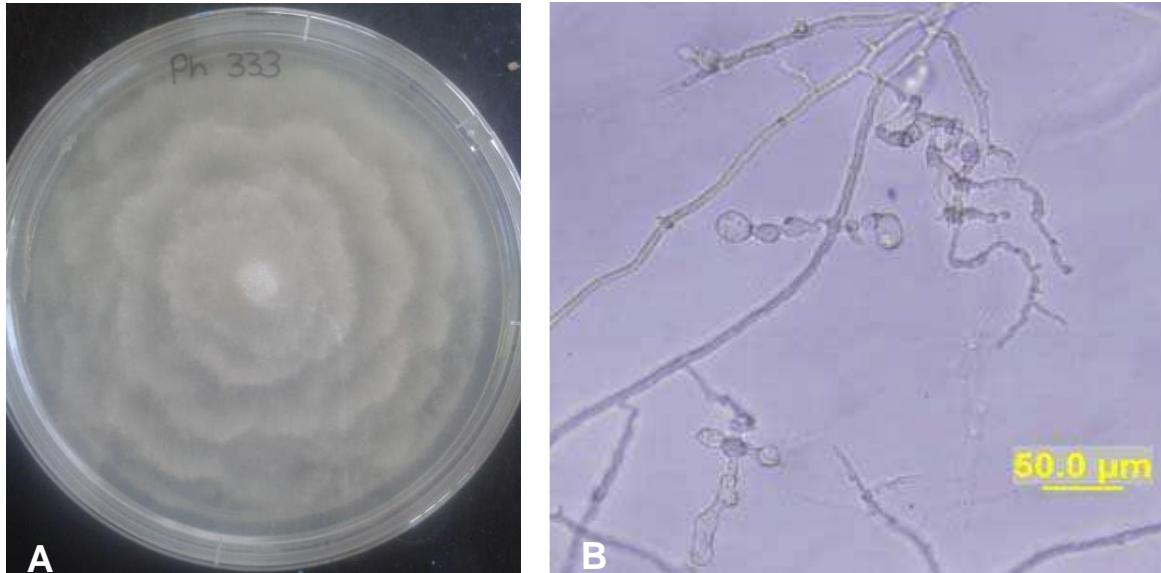
Province	Root rot incidence	Root rot severity
Limpopo	56.05 ± 10.8	62.0 ± 11.8
Mpumalanga	64.16 ± 8.8	67.78 ± 12.5

15 * ANOVA, refer to Appendix 2.

16

17 **3.3.3 Detection of *P. cinnamomi***

18 A total of 107 out of 205 samples collected from four different locations in the two
 19 provinces tested positive for *P. cinnamomi* using specific primers for the pathogen in nested
 20 PCR (Table 3.3). The number of samples positive for *P. cinnamomi* in Mpumalanga was
 21 double (66 %) that of Limpopo. A mean of 52 % for *P. cinnamomi* was detected between
 22 the two provinces. There were significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in the presence of *P.*
 23 *cinnamomi* in each province. Mpumalanga showed high levels of *P. cinnamomi* (0.5 ± 0.45)
 24 compared to Limpopo (0.32 ± 0.42) (Table 3.3).



1 **A**
 2 **Figure 3.2:** Colony morphology of *P. cinnamomi*. A: *P. cinnamomi* mycelia on PDA. B:
 3 Characteristic coraloid hyphae and profuse production of chlamydospores distinctive of *P.*
 4 *cinnamomi*.

5
 6 **Table 3.3** Nested PCR results for the detection of *P. cinnamomi* in soil samples
 7 collected

8 Province	Samples tested	Positive samples	(%)	Mean PCR results
9 Limpopo	83	27	33	0.32 ± 0.42a
10 Mpumalanga	122	80	66	0.5 ± 0.45b
11 Total	205	107	52	0.52 ± 0.5

12 * ANOVA, refer to Appendix 1.

13

14 3.4 Discussion

15 The surveys were done in the provinces of Limpopo and Mpumalanga, in which are
 16 the main macadamia growing areas in South Africa. The crop is also grown to a lesser
 17 extent in KwaZulu-Natal (DAFF, 2016). The results showed a high incidence (64.2 %) of
 18 macadamia root rot in the Mpumalanga province. This could be due to the presence of
 19 other crop and tree species such as avocado that are hosts of *P. cinnamomi*. This is in
 20 agreement with a report by Muthoka *et al.* (2005), which states that the presence of plants

1 that are hosts of *P. cinnamomi* in the macadamia orchards will increase the root rot
2 incidence in that area. A lower root rot incidence (56.05 %) was observed in Limpopo; this
3 could be because a number of farmers reported the use of organic manure in growing
4 macadamia. Several researchers have reported that organic matter in the form of pine bark
5 with a C: N ratio between 25: 1 and 100: 1, yard trimmings, alfalfa straw, wheat straw,
6 sorghum stubble, and maize stubble was inhibitory to avocado root rot caused by *P.*
7 *cinnamomi* (Broadbent and Baker, 1974; Pegg *et al.*, 1982; Borst, 1983; Downer, 1988;
8 Turney and Menge, 1994; Wolstenholme *et al.*, 1996).

9 *P. cinnamomi* was broadly distributed in the Mpumalanga province. Out of the 122
10 samples, 80 tested positive for *P. cinnamomi*, which amounts to 66% of the samples. In
11 Limpopo, only 33 % of the samples tested positive. A high mean disease severity was
12 observed in both provinces. Mpumalanga had a higher root rot severity (67.78 ± 12.5 %)
13 and high levels of *P. cinnamomi* (0.5 ± 0.45) compared to Limpopo's severity (62.0 ± 11.8
14 %) and levels of *P. cinnamomi* (0.32 ± 0.42). This indicates that *P. cinnamomi* is widely
15 distributed in both provinces and is severe as the severity indicates that more than 60 % of
16 the trees surveyed were infected by *P. cinnamomi*. The low percentage of *P. cinnamomi*
17 from samples collected in the Limpopo province could be due to the fact that the Limpopo
18 regions are drier and more arid compared to those of Mpumalanga, which is hotter and
19 more humid (South Africa Online, 2017). This is in agreement with Zentmyer (1980) who
20 reported that *P. cinnamomi* thrives in warm and wet conditions, which explains the high
21 levels of *P. cinnamomi* detection in the Mpumalanga province. A mean of 52 % for *P.*
22 *cinnamomi* was detected between the two provinces. The wide distribution and high disease
23 incidence and severity observed in this study, like other previous studies (Linde *et al.*, 1997;
24 Manicom, 2003), confirms the existence of *P. cinnamomi* and the threat it poses to
25 macadamia production in Africa and South Africa.

26 Various host baits for detection of *Phytophthora* species from soil have been used.
27 Ideally, a bait used in a bioassay for *Phytophthora* must have the following characteristics;
28 susceptibility to *Phytophthora* species, seasonal nature, high sensitivity, ease of use, and
29 substrate availability (Dance *et al.*, 1975). Due to their possession of the above-mentioned
30 characteristics, pineapple leaf-bases were used in this study. The detection and isolation of
31 *P. cinnamomi* from the soil has been successful using selective media containing
32 antibacterial and antifungal agents (Ribeiro *et al.*, 1976; Masago *et al.*, 1977; Tsao and Guy,

1 1977; Zentmyer, 1980). Plant tissues have been used to detect *P. cinnamomi* but once the
2 tissue dies, the pathogen also dies, therefore, making it possible that root and bark samples
3 could die from infection prior to collection.

4 In conclusion, the study established that *P. cinnamomi* occurs in the two prominent
5 macadamia growing areas of South Africa, namely Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces,
6 where it is associated with root rots and trunk cankers. The use of organic manure could
7 reduce the severity and incidence of root rot, as the manure increases soil fertility as well as
8 soil micro-organisms antagonistic to *P. cinnamomi*. The baiting bioassay was successful in
9 detecting *P. cinnamomi* from soil samples and pineapple leaf-bases were effective as baits
10 for *P. cinnamomi*. This is a simple and affordable method that can be used for qualitative
11 detection of *P. cinnamomi* in soils. The wide distribution and high *P. cinnamomi* incidence
12 and severity necessitate a closer look at control strategies and assessment of their
13 effectiveness.

14

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5 [AIN%20%20PROFILE%202016.pdf](http://www.nda.agric.za/doaDev/sideMenu/Marketing/Annual%20Publications/Commodity%20Profiles/field%20crops/MACADAMIA%20NUTS%20MARKET%20VALUE%20CHAIN%20PROFILE%202016.pdf)
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CHAPTER 4

IN VITRO EVALUATION OF BIOLOGICAL CONTROL AGENTS AGAINST *PHYTOPHTHORA CINNAMOMI* ON MACADAMIA IN LIMPOPO AND MPUMALANGA, SOUTH AFRICA

Abstract

Biological control is an effective tool used for the management of disease-causing pathogens. The use of biological control agents (BCAs) is important in the face of the indiscriminate use of pesticides that negatively affects the environment and has resulted in the development of resistant strains of pathogens. Against this background, the aim of the study was to determine the *in vitro* inhibitory effect of selected BCAs against *P. cinnamomi*. To this end, six *P. cinnamomi* isolates were first screened for their pathogenicity and virulence on green apples. *Trichoderma hamatum*, *Trichoderma harzianum*, and eight unknown *Bacillus* spp. were evaluated for their biocontrol activity against *P. cinnamomi* growth *in vitro* using the dual culturing technique. Data generated was analysed using a factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA). All six *P. cinnamomi* isolates examined in this study were pathogenic to green apples. Both *Trichoderma* spp. were able to inhibit all six isolates of *P. cinnamomi*. *T. hamatum* inhibited *P. cinnamomi* through deadlock with mycelial contact, whereas *T. harzianum* replaced and overgrew the pathogen. There was no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) in *in vitro* growth inhibition by the two *Trichoderma* spp. among all *P. cinnamomi* isolates. All the *Bacillus* species had the ability to inhibit the growth of *P. cinnamomi* *in vitro*; B 41b and NB 4 caused high levels of growth inhibition. There were significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in *in vitro* growth inhibition by different *Bacillus* spp. and in the sensitivity of *P. cinnamomi* isolates to the different *Bacillus* spp. The study showed that the pathogenicity test could be used to determine the presence of *P. cinnamomi* inoculum in soils and to evaluate the efficacy of soil treatment for control of *P. cinnamomi*. Additionally, it was shown that the fungal and bacterial BCAs had inhibitory effects on the mycelial growth of *P. cinnamomi* *in vitro*, demonstrating their potential to be used in the management/control root rots and trunk cankers of macadamia under field conditions.

1 **4.1 Introduction**

2 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* has an extensive host range and is found globally in
3 countries that commercially grow avocados and macadamia (López-Hèrrera and Pèrèz-
4 Jimènèz, 1995). A broad variation in pathogenicity of *P. cinnamomi* isolates has been
5 observed, which is not related to mating type (Dudzisnki *et al.*, 1993). Rands (1922)
6 revealed that *P. cinnamomi* isolates varied in pathogenicity when he first described the
7 pathogen. The pathogen's resistance to control measures and its endurance in hostile
8 environments may be enhanced by the occurrence of variation among isolates. When there
9 is a high level of variety, there is a possibility for the pathogen to evolve and adjust to its
10 environment as selection pressure creates circumstances where the pathogen is compelled
11 to change to survive (Mbaka, 2011). The environment suffers through exploitive agriculture
12 worldwide, and the indiscriminate use of pesticides resulted in the development of resistant
13 strains of pathogens (Nakkeeran *et al.*, 2005). Biological control is thus a solution to the
14 efficient management of disease-causing pathogens.

15 *Phytophthora* does not rely on sterol synthesis, which inhibits true fungal pathogens,
16 therefore, a lot fungicides do not have the ability to control of this genus (Bartinicki-Garcia
17 and Wang, 1983). However, a few classes of compounds do inhibit *Phytophthora* growth
18 and plant infection (Griffith *et al.*, 1992; Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996; Schwinn and Staub, 1995).
19 Chemicals that caused inhibition of *P. cinnamomi* *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies are the
20 phenylamides (Gisi and Cohen, 1996) and the phosphonates (Hardy *et al.*, 2001), which are
21 systemic inhibitors. Resistance to the phenylamide, metalaxyl, is one of the main
22 restrictions in the management of *Phytophthora* diseases as it has been witnessed in many
23 agricultural systems in which this fungicide has been applied (Coffey and Bower, 1984).
24 Phosphonates such as phosphite are a valued inhibitor. On the other hand, its efficiency
25 differs with various *P. cinnamomi* isolates (Hardy *et al.*, 2001; Wilkinson *et al.*, 2001).
26 However, it may become ineffective due to *P. cinnamomi* developing resistance
27 (Duvenhage, 1994). Due to the development of resistance, control measures should be
28 focused on the use of biocontrol agents (BCAs), which reduce the disease, with a high level
29 of safety and minimal environmental impact (Osman *et al.*, 2011).

30 Weste (1983) isolated some soil micro-flora that may be potential BCAs as they
31 could subdue *P.cinnamomi* in some soils. Inhibition of *P. cinnamomi* via competition,
32 antibiosis or saprophytism has been shown by a number soil microorganisms. These

1 include; *Ceratomyces tessulatus* (Cooke), *Streptomyces vioascens* (Preobrazhenskaya and
2 Sveshnikova), *Trichoderma hamatum* (Bonorden), and *Trichoderma harzianum* (Rifai)
3 (Downer, 1998; Duvenhage and Kotzè, 1993; Duvenhage and Köhne, 1995; Erwin and
4 Ribeiro, 1996). Bell *et al.*, (1982) revealed that *Trichoderma* spp are potential candidates for
5 the management of plant diseases as they antagonise and contest with plant pathogens by
6 overpowering pathogenicity enzymes of the pathogens and competing for space and
7 nutrients with the pathogen. They also stimulate plant resistance against disease and aid
8 roots in the absorption of soil nutrients (Yedidia *et al.*, 1999). *Trichoderma* spp. formulations
9 are, hence, used as wound dressings in infected trees (Neri *et al.*, 2008), as soil drenches,
10 soil and seed treatments, and as foliar sprays (Otieno *et al.*, 2003; Onsando and Waudu,
11 1994). Numerous bacterial species have displayed antagonistic activity towards fungi
12 (Kotze *et al.*, 2011). Bacteria belonging to the genera *Bacillus* are considered to be safe and
13 beneficial microorganisms for agronomical industries (Stein, 2005). Some of these bacilli
14 are endophytes (Sneath, 1986; McSpadden-Gardener, 2004). The effectiveness of using
15 *Bacillus* spp. as BCAs applied to soil has been reported (Pérez-García *et al.*, 2011).

16 To date, no single control measure has been reported to be effective against *P.*
17 *cinnamomi* which causes stem cankers and root rots of macadamia (Aryantha *et al.*, 2000).
18 There are currently no recommended control strategies for the management of these
19 diseases, and there is a need for the development of an integrated management strategy
20 for macadamia root rots and stem cankers in South Africa. The aim of the study, therefore,
21 was to determine the *in vitro* inhibitory effect of selected BCAs against *P. cinnamomi*.

22

23 **4.2 Materials and Methods**

24 **4.2.1 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* isolates**

25 Six of the seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates listed in Table 2.1 were used in this study. Ph
26 379 could not be revived, and was, therefore, omitted from the study. Agar plugs of the
27 isolates were transferred from the Bijou bottles in storage and plated on PDA in 90 mm Petri
28 dishes, sealed with Parafilm® and incubated at 25 ± 2 °C to allow regrowth for five days.

29

4.2.2 Screening of *P. cinnamomi* isolates for pathogenicity and virulence on green apples

The six *P. cinnamomi* isolates were screened for their pathogenicity and virulence on green apples. Green apples (*Malus domestica* Mill. × *M. sylvestris* Borkh.) cultivar Granny Smith were sourced from a local supermarket, and only those with no spots were used for the test.

Ethanol (70%) was used to surface sterilise the apples. A sterile scalpel was used to cut a 10 × 10 mm incision in the apple and a 5 mm *P. cinnamomi* plug of each isolate grown on PDA for five days was inserted (mycelia face down) into the incision and sealed with Parafilm®. The apple tissue in contact with the inoculum disc will therein be referred to as the site of inoculation. Controls were inoculated with sterile PDA agar discs. Five replications were used for each isolate and control treatments. The fruits were incubated in disinfected plastic trays at 25 ± 2 °C in the dark and were arranged in a complete randomized design (CRD). Eight days post inoculation (dpi), the total length of each externally visible lesion extending from the site of inoculation was measured. The daily lesion extension (mm^{d-1}) was calculated by subtraction of the distance from the centre of point of inoculation to beginning of lesion on the apple fruit from the lesion length (mm) 8 dpi then dividing by 8. Two apples were randomly selected per isolate and control measures for re-isolation on PARPH medium to confirm the presence of *P. cinnamomi*. Pathogenicity was determined by the presence of necrosis, however small. The size of lesion extension per day was taken as a measure of virulence of the pathogenic isolates.

4.2.3 Selected potential biological control agents

Two *Trichoderma* spp., namely; *Trichoderma hamatum* and *Trichoderma harzianum*, and eight unknown *Bacillus* spp. were sourced from the Agricultural Research Council – Plant Protection and Research (ARC-PPR), Pretoria. They were selected based on their proven antagonistic ability against *Phytophthora* and as a means of controlling the pathogen *in vitro* (Table 4.1).

1 **Table 4.1. Selected BCAs evaluated for their *in vitro* effect on isolates of *P.***
 2 ***cinnamomi***

3 Type	Genus	BCA code
4 Fungi	<i>Trichoderma</i>	<i>T. hamatum</i> strain 382
5 Fungi	<i>Trichoderma</i>	<i>T. harzianum</i> strain SQR-T037
6 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	B 31a
7 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	B 31b
8 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	B 41b
9 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	B 616
10 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	BV 1C
11 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	NB 4
12 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	NB 51b
13 Bacteria	<i>Bacillus</i>	NB 616

14
15

16 **4.2.4 *In vitro* antagonistic bioassays**

17 A dual culture technique was used to evaluate the *in vitro* biocontrol activity of
 18 selected BCAs against *P. cinnamomi* growth. Hyphal plugs (5 mm) of *P. cinnamomi* isolates
 19 were placed 2 cm from one edge of 90 mm Petri dishes containing PDA. Two days later, a 5
 20 mm mycelial plug from the margin of a four day old *Trichoderma* culture or a two day old
 21 *Bacillus* culture was placed on the opposite side on the same plate. Trials for each
 22 pathogen were set up in five replications, with five Petri dishes for the controls and dual
 23 culture plates. The plates were incubated at 25 ± 2 °C, and the evaluation of interactions
 24 was evaluated seven days after they were placed into assay plates. Antagonism towards
 25 *P.cinnamomi* was scored using the Badalyan (2002) rating scale where A = deadlock with
 26 mycelia contact, B = deadlock at a distance, C = replacement, overgrowth without initial
 27 deadlock. For fungal antagonists, the Antagonism Index (AI) was calculated considering the
 28 ray of *P. cinnamomi* mycelial colony towards the antagonist (rm) and the average of the
 29 three rays of the colony in the radial directions in a Petri dish (RM), it was expressed as a
 30 percentage: AI (%) = [(RM-rm)/RM]x100 (Hakizimana *et al.*, 2000). For bacterial
 31 antagonists, total growth diameter (TGD), *P. cinnamomi* plug inoculum diameter (PcPID)
 32 and radial growth (RG), where RG = (TGD-PcPID)/2, were taken into consideration to

1 determine the level of antibiosis produced by bacterial endophytes. Antagonism (%) = (RG
2 bacteria/RG *Pc* mycelia) x 100 (Hakizimana *et al.*, 2000).

3

4 **4.2.5 Data Analysis**

5 The generated data was subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA). Student's t-LSD
6 (Least significant difference) was calculated at a 5% significance level (P=0.05) to compare
7 means of significant source effects (Snedecor and Cochran, 1967). Laboratory experiments
8 were performed as a randomized complete block design. All the data were analysed using
9 GenStat for Windows 18th Edition (GenStat, 2015).

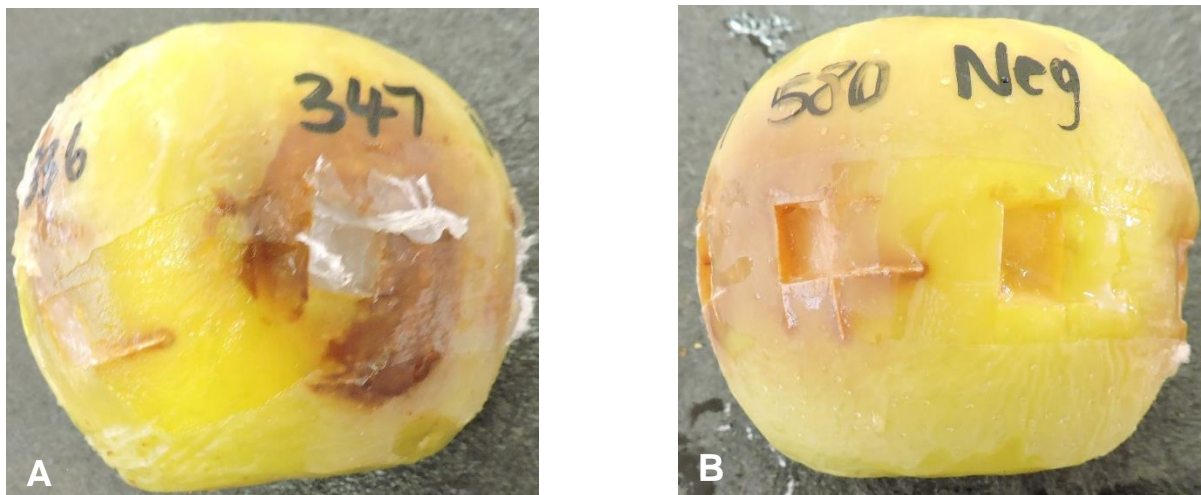
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11 **4.3 Results**

12 **4.3.1 Pathogenicity and virulence tests on green apples**

13 All six *P. cinnamomi* isolates examined in this study were pathogenic to green
14 apples. Lesions were observed eight dpi and extended rapidly up to 16 dpi (Fig. 4.1A). Re-
15 isolation of *P. cinnamomi* was done using tissue from the lesions and from the site of
16 inoculation where no lesions developed. Control apples had no lesions, and *P. cinnamomi*
17 was not recovered from the fruits (Fig. 4.1B). There was no significant difference (P>0.05)
18 in virulence among the isolates (Table 4.2). The lesion extension lengths varied between
19 1.46 and 2.43 mm^{d-1}.

20



21 **Figure 4.1:** Lesions on *Malus domestica*. A: Lesion observed eight days post inoculation. B:
22 Lesion 8 days after inoculation and negative control showing no lesion.

1 **Table 4.2** Means \pm standard deviations for mean lesion extension rate (mm^{d-1}) on
 2 green apples after inoculation with *P. cinnamomi* isolates

3	Isolate	Mean lesion extension rate (mm ^{d-1})
4	7	1.93 \pm 0.66
5	333	1.98 \pm 0.70
6	336	2.28 \pm 0.77
7	347	2.43 \pm 0.40
8	580	1.78 \pm 0.16
9	581	1.46 \pm 0.52
10	P – value	0.144

11 * ANOVA, refer to Appendix 3.

12

13 **4.3.2 *In vitro* antagonistic bioassays of *Trichoderma* against *P. cinnamomi* isolates**

14 Dual plate assays were conducted to evaluate the *in vitro* antagonistic activity of *T.*
 15 *hamatum* and *T. harzianum* against *P. cinnamomi*. Both *Trichoderma* spp. were able to
 16 inhibit all six isolates of *P. cinnamomi* even though the pathogen was allowed to grow
 17 before the BCAs were placed on the same plates. *T. hamatum* suppressed *P. cinnamomi*
 18 through deadlock with mycelial contact, whereas *T. harzianum* replaced and overgrew *P.*
 19 *cinnamomi* (Fig. 4.2). This shows that the tested strains of *T. harzianum* and *T. hamatum*
 20 have a high inhibitory effect on myceliae growth of *P. cinnamomi*.

21 There were significant differences (P < 0.05) in percentage growth and the diameter
 22 of the *P. cinnamomi* isolates towards the antagonist (Table 4.3). The growth percentages
 23 and the diameter of the *P. cinnamomi* isolates towards the antagonist range from 37.1 –
 24 50.9% and 30.4 – 43.4 mm, respectively. This indicates that *T. harzianum* and *T. hamatum*
 25 were able to inhibit the pathogen before it could reach more than 50% growth. Significant
 26 differences (P < 0.05) were observed between the *Trichoderma* strains. This shows tested
 27 strains of *T. harzianum* and *T. hamatum* inhibit *P. cinnamomi* using different mechanisms.

1 There were no interactions between the *Trichoderma* spp. and *P. cinnamomi* isolates, as
2 there was no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) (Appendix 4).

3
4 **Table 4.3 Means \pm standard deviations for mean percentage growth and diameter**
5 **(mm) of *P. cinnamomi* isolates**

6	Isolate	Growth (%)	Diameter towards antagonist (mm)
7	7	50.9 \pm 3.48a	43.4 \pm 4.18a
8	347	46.3 \pm 5.71ab	38.0 \pm 4.69b
9	333	46.2 \pm 6.86ab	37.9 \pm 5.63b
10	581	42.1 \pm 3.88bc	34.5 \pm 3.17bc
11	580	40.4 \pm 8.55c	33.1 \pm 6.99c
12	336	37.1 \pm 4.67c	30.4 \pm 3.82c

13 * Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to the LSD test
14 at $P \geq 0.05$.

15 * Refer to Appendix 4 for ANOVA.

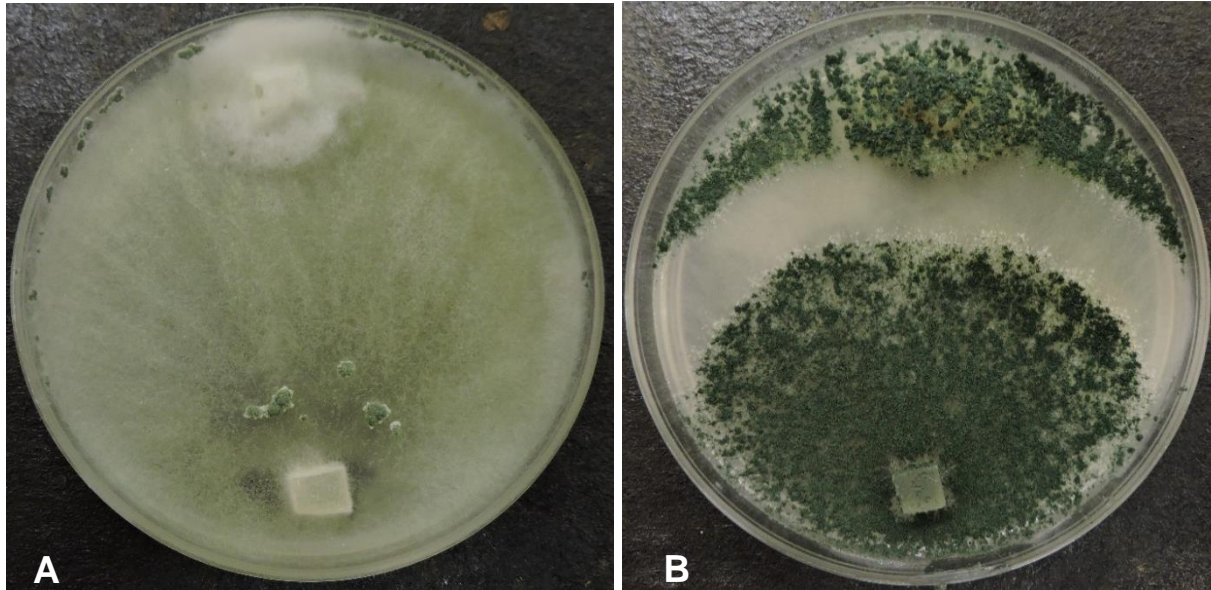
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17 **4.3.3 *In vitro* antagonistic bioassays of *Bacillus* against *P. cinnamomi* isolates**

18 Out of the eight unknown *Bacillus* species tested against *P. cinnamomi*, B 41b and
19 NB 4 caused high levels of growth inhibition (Fig. 4.3). All the strains demonstrated the
20 ability to inhibit the growth of *P. cinnamomi in vitro*, although some showed poor inhibition.
21 *Bacillus* spp. B31a and NB51b caused the lowest level of inhibition. The two strains only
22 managed to inhibit 1 % of the fast-growing *P. cinnamomi* isolate, 7. The other strains of
23 *Bacillus* spp. also caused low inhibition to the *P. cinnamomi* 7, ranging between 2.32 to 3.82
24 %, excluding the two best strains of *Bacillus* spp.

25 There were significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in mean inhibition zones caused by the
26 tested strains of *Bacillus* spp. against *P. cinnamomi* isolates (Table 4.4). Significant
27 differences ($P < 0.05$) were also observed in *in vitro* growth inhibition by different *Bacillus*

1 spp. (Table 4.5). The sensitivity of *P. cinnamomi* isolates to the different *Bacillus* spp. was
2 significantly different according to the LSD ($P < 0.05$) test.

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6 **Figure 4.2:** Competitive interactions between *Trichoderma* and *Phytophthora cinnamomi* on
7 PDA at 25 °C after seven days. A: *T. hamatum* inhibiting *P. cinnamomi* via deadlock with
8 myceliae contact. B: *T. harzianum* inhibiting *P. cinnamomi* through replacement.

9

10 *Bacillus* B 41b and NB 4 caused the highest *in vitro* growth inhibition of 35.6 to 57.5
11 % as well as the highest inhibition zone of 15.1 to 22.7 mm on six of the seven *P.*
12 *cinnamomi* isolates. These were followed by *Bacillus* B 31 b, BV 1C and B 616 that caused
13 growth inhibition between 9.6 and 49.7 % and had inhibition zones between 5.7 to 37.2 mm
14 in six of the seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates. *Bacillus* NB 616, B 31a and NB 51b caused the
15 lowest *in vitro* growth inhibition of 2.8 to 36.9 % and inhibition zones between 2.1 to 21.2
16 mm on six of the seven *P. cinnamomi* isolates.

1 **Table 4.4 Inhibition zone caused by eight strains of *Bacillus* species against six isolates of *P. cinnamomi***

2	<i>Bacillus</i> spp	<i>Phytophthora cinnamomi</i> isolates (Inhibition zone (mm)) *					
3		7	333	336	347	580	581
4	B31a	2.66 ± 1.25pq	7.28 ± 4.49n-p	17.6 ± 6.54b-i	6.28 ± 2.93o-p	10.64 ± 7.49j-o	14.04 ± 4.74g-m
5	B31b	1.06 ± 0.13q	17.6 ± 6.19b-i	37.24 ± 5.28a	10.63 ± 8.17j-o	16.18 ± 7.42d-j	23.34 ± 7.99b
6	B41b	10.66 ± 1.41j-o	15.1 ± 4.0f-m	22.66 ± 4.8bc	22.72 ± 2.96b	20.02 ± 6.8b-g	19.32 ± 5.17b-h
7	B616	1.84 ± 1.09pq	9.7 ± 7.56l-o	19.2 ± 6.19b-h	10.16 ± 7.19k-o	12.46 ± 8.19i-n	9.32 ± 5.79m-o
8	BV1C	1.68 ± 0.95pq	5.72 ± 1.67o-q	21.92 ± 4.12b-d	6.62 ± 1.31n-q	15.72 ± 4.33e-k	15.58 ± 7.55e-l
9	NB4	13.7 ± 4.13h-m	16.72 ± 5.39c-i	21.14 ± 4.65b-e	18.34 ± 4.98b-i	19.0 ± 3.87b-h	20.1 ± 2.73b-f
10	NB51b	1.10 ± 0.14q	6.40 ± 2.39o-q	21.24 ± 5.38b-e	2.14 ± 0.31p-q	10.58 ± 4.27j-o	13.38 ± 7.09h-m
11	NB616	6.32 ± 8.98o-q	7.16 ± 6.95n-p	17.72 ± 2.18b-i	7.34 ± 5.32n-p	9.28 ± 4.75m-o	10.54 ± 5.07j-o

12 * Means in the same column followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to the LSD test at P ≥ 0.05.

13 * ANOVA, refer to Appendix 5.

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1 **Table 4.5** Percentage *in vitro* growth inhibitions of isolates of *P. cinnamomi* by eight strains of *Bacillus* species

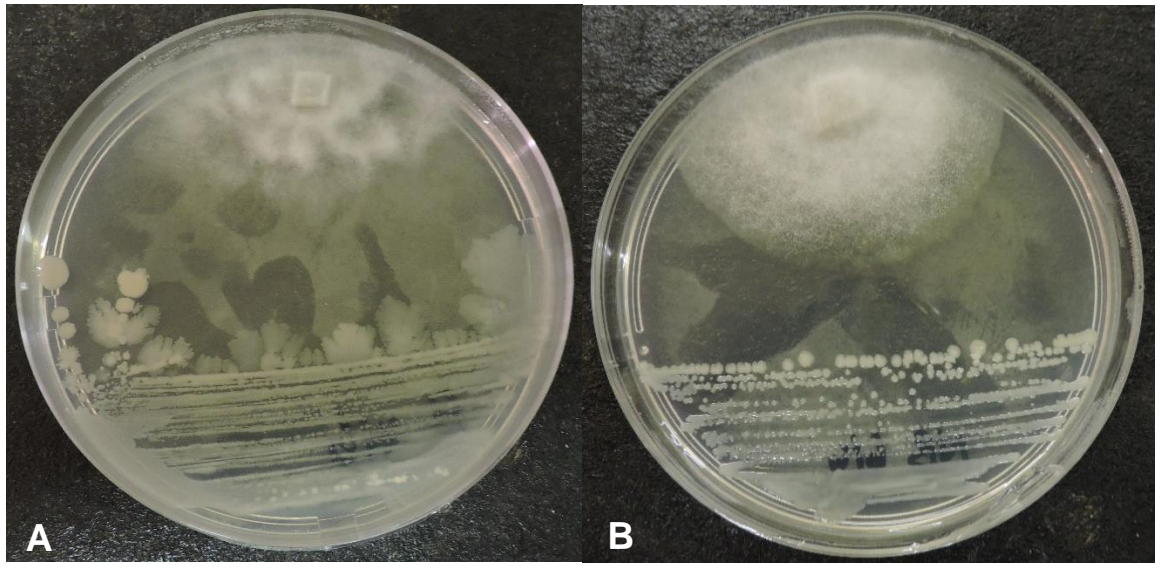
2	<i>Bacillus</i> spp	<i>Phytophthora cinnamomi</i> isolates (percentage growth inhibition) *					
3		7	333	336	347	580	581
4	B31a	3.82 ± 1.9p-s	13.06 ± 9.4n-s	34.64 ± 14.5e-j	12.45 ± 6.2o-s	18.56 ± 13.8k-p	27.90 ± 11.4g-n
5	B31b	1.24 ± 0.3s	27.70 ± 11.3g-n	72.86 ± 17.5a	16.53 ± 12.9l-r	28.24 ± 13.4g-m	49.68 ± 21.1b-d
6	B41b	22.54 ± 4.4h-o	35.58 ± 14.2d-l	55.62 ± 14.3bc	57.52 ± 11.3b	45.76 ± 22.6b-f	46.08 ± 19.2b-f
7	B616	2.36 ± 1.8rs	18.66 ± 18.0k-p	41.76 ± 18.5c-g	22.35 ± 18.4h-o	22.66 ± 15.7h-o	16.18 ± 12.2l-r
8	BV1C	2.32 ± 1.7rs	9.62 ± 3.5o-s	47.72 ± 12.6b-f	10.92 ± 2.8o-s	33.10 ± 12.5f-k	36.74 ± 21.5d-h
9	NB4	28.72 ± 12.5g-l	36.88 ± 15.9d-h	53.64 ± 15.8bc	44.28 ± 16.6b-f	44.72 ± 11.0 b-f	49.40 ± 9.1b-e
10	NB51b	1.14 ± 0.1s	10.02 ± 5.1o-s	36.88 ± 9.6d-h	2.82 ± 0.4q-s	17.62 ± 8.0l-q	21.86 ± 10.1i-o
11	NB616	13.14 ± 21.7n-s	13.48 ± 14.9m-s	34.88 ± 6.6d-j	15.42 ± 14.9l-s	16.38 ± 9.1l-r	20.32 ± 11.5j-o

12 * Means in the same column followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to the LSD test at P ≥ 0.05.

13 * ANOVA, refer to Appendix 5.

1 Isolate 7 displayed a remarkably low sensitivity to all the *Bacillus* spp. tested in this study
2 with growth inhibition ranging from 1.14 to 28.7 % and inhibition zones between 1.1 to 13.7
3 mm. There an interaction between the tested strains of *Bacillus* and *P. cinnamomi* (P <
4 0.05) in inhibition zones and *in vitro* growth inhibition (Appendix 5).

5



6

7 **Figure 4.3:** Highest growth inhibition of *Phytophthora cinnamomi* by *Bacillus* spp. on PDA
8 at 25 °C after seven days. A: Growth inhibition of *P. cinnamomi* by B 41b. B: Growth
9 inhibition of *P. cinnamomi* by NB 4.

10

11 **4.3 Discussion**

12 A number of pathogenicity studies have been conducted on *P. cinnamomi* globally;
13 the challenge. However, there has been the absence of specificity in *P. cinnamomi* isolates
14 of Australian (Dudzisnki *et al.*, 1993), French (Robin and Desprez-Loustau, 1998) and
15 South African (Linde *et al.*, 1997) origin. In the late 2000's, Serfontein *et al.* (2007)
16 established an accurate pathogenicity test, using apples. The test proved to be precise due
17 to the distinctive brown hard rots that appeared on the apples caused by *P. cinnamomi*. The
18 test has since been used to separate pathogenic from non-pathogenic *P. cinnamomi*
19 isolates (Mbaka, 2011). In this study, six of six *P. cinnamomi* isolates were pathogenic to
20 green apples.

21 The inhibitory effect of the test strains of *T. hamatum* and *T. harzianum* on all the *P.*
22 *cinnamomi* isolates indicates that the test strains had a direct effect on suppression of

1 mycelial growth. This was in agreement with Yedidia *et al.*, (1999), who found that the mode
2 of antagonism of *Trichoderma* spp. on *P. cinnamomi* included competition for nutrients on
3 agar media, which explained the inhibitory effect the BCAs displayed on the *P. cinnamomi*
4 isolates *in vitro*. *Trichoderma* spp. inhibit the pathogenic fungi through the non-volatile and
5 volatile metabolites (Küçük and Kivan, 2003). Isolates of *Trichoderma* spp. produce lytic
6 enzymes and antifungal antibiotics which suppress the pathogens (Benitez *et al.*, 2004;
7 Harman, 2000). Shalini *et al.*, (2006) described the different mechanisms active in
8 mycoparasitic activity.

9 The eight strains of unknown *Bacillus* spp. were able to suppress the growth of *P.*
10 *cinnamomi* *in vitro*. This proved what Shoda (2000) stated, that bacteria produce cell wall-
11 degrading enzymes and secondary metabolites to inhibit the growth of other
12 microorganisms. *Bacillus* B 41b and NB 4 caused the highest *in vitro* growth inhibition of *P.*
13 *cinnamomi*. This could be because, as some researchers have observed, *Bacillus* spp. can
14 intensively colonise *Phytophthora* spp. hyphae (Broadbent and Baker, 1974a, 1974b;
15 Nesbitt *et al.*, 1981a; Malajczuk, 1988). The interaction (Appendix 5) of the eight unknown
16 strains of *Bacillus* spp. and the six *P. cinnamomi* isolates showed that *Bacillus* species are
17 able to inhibit *P. cinnamomi*. This was proved by Sneh *et al.* (1977) who stated that the
18 inoculum of *P. cinnamomi* in the soil is reduced by antagonistic bacteria that attack the
19 sporangia, mycelium or the more resistant oospores and chlamydospores. Another
20 possibility would be the process of feeding on exudates; the bacteria may produce
21 metabolites that degrade *P. cinnamomi* (Nesbitt *et al.*, 1981b).

22 Isolate 7 had the lowest sensitivity to the test bio-control agents. These results were
23 contrary to the findings of Coffey and Bower, (1984), who stated that in spite of *P.*
24 *cinnamomi*'s broad host range, it had a comparatively narrow spectrum of sensitivities.

25 In conclusion, researchers can use the pathogenicity test to determine the presence
26 of *P. cinnamomi* inoculum in soils. The test can also be used to evaluate the efficacy of soil
27 treatment (drenching with chemicals, fumigation, and solarisation) for control of *P.*
28 *cinnamomi*. The fungal and bacterial BCAs tested in this study had inhibitory effects on the
29 mycelial growth of *P. cinnamomi* *in vitro*, demonstrating the potential for use to manage root
30 rots and trunk cankers of macadamia under field conditions. It is, however, necessary to
31 compare *in vitro* with *in vivo* inhibitions to see whether they are parallel. The *Bacillus* spp.
32 used in this study need to be characterised further with molecular comparisons.

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CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

5.1 Overview of major outcomes

This study, along with other *P. cinnamomi* studies in South Africa (Linde *et al.*, 1997; Manicom, 2003), confirms the existence of *P. cinnamomi* and the threat it poses to macadamia production in Africa and South Africa. In Chapter 2, based on an optimised nested PCR, it was confirmed that there is a widespread distribution of macadamia root rots and trunk cankers in the main macadamia growing areas of South Africa. The optimised nested PCR was more sensitive in the detection of *P. cinnamomi* in comparison to the one-step PCR. This was shown in previous studies where other species of *Phytophthora* were detected with nested PCR showing a 1000-fold increase in sensitivity (Grote *et al.*, 2002; Martin *et al.*, 2004). This assay permits species-specific detection by both rounds of PCR.

Results reported in Chapter 3 highlighted that macadamia root rot, and trunk cankers are caused by the oomycete *Phytophthora cinnamomi*. This was in agreement with Mbaka (2011) who reported that *P. cinnamomi* was the causal organism for macadamia root rot and trunk cankers in Kenya. A high mean disease incidence of 60.9% and severity of 65.5% in the core macadamia growing areas of South Africa was reported. This high *P. cinnamomi* incidence and severity requires a closer look at control strategies and assessment of their effectiveness.

The outcomes of Chapter 4 emphasized the ability of some strains of *Trichoderma* spp. and *Bacillus* spp. to inhibit *P. cinnamomi* *in vitro*. No single method has been found to be efficacious for the control of *P. cinnamomi* (Aryantha *et al.*, 2000). To this end, an integrated management strategy that combines chemical, cultural and biological control is needed.

5.2 Implications of outcomes

The distribution of *P. cinnamomi* in macadamia growing areas has a negative impact on farming. *P. cinnamomi* reduces vigour, production and may cause complete trunk death of macadamia trees, resulting in a loss in the annual gross value of macadamia. Nested PCR and the baiting bioassay will find practical application as

1 protocols for the detection of *P. cinnamomi*. The bio-control agents evaluated in this
2 study can be included in an integrated management strategy for the control of
3 macadamia root rots and trunk cankers depending on their mode of action. They could
4 be applied as foliar sprays, root dips, soil drenches, trunk injections and wound
5 treatments.

6

7 **5.3 Recommendations**

8 *Phytophthora cinnamomi* has an expansive host range and wide distribution. It is,
9 therefore, recommended to undertake studies that will find susceptible crops and tree
10 species in macadamia growing regions of South Africa. Cross pathogenicity of *P.*
11 *cinnamomi* isolates from diverse hosts should be established so as to be able to select
12 crops that should be used in macadamia orchards when intercropping.

13 All macadamia growing areas of South Africa need to be surveyed to determine
14 the distribution of *P. cinnamomi*. To reduce the incidence of macadamia stem cankers
15 and root rots, susceptible crop hosts such as *Eucalyptus* species, *Grevillea*, and
16 avocado should be avoided when intercropping macadamia.

17 The optimized nested PCR established in this study and the baiting bioassay
18 should be used in combination for the detection of *P. cinnamomi*. To conduct successful
19 disease surveys, DNA based strategies for isolation of the pathogen from plant tissues
20 and plagued soils should be developed as customary techniques for isolation, culturing
21 and identification of *P. cinnamomi* are dreary and require skill and labour. The strategies
22 will be pertinent to macadamia and other crops. Farmers and researchers in poor
23 environments need to be taught about these molecular procedures.

24 The BCAs that were identified in this study should be evaluated for their
25 effectiveness in the management of *P. cinnamomi* induced macadamia root rots *in vivo*
26 and field trials. If these BCAs are then successful in inhibiting *P. cinnamomi*, they could
27 be used as an active ingredient in agrochemicals.

28 Tolerant or resistant macadamia cultivars need to be established and used in
29 macadamia propagation. There is an urgent need to distinguish macadamia genotypes
30 and assess them for tolerance or resistance to *P. cinnamomi* infections. A vital aspect of
31 disease management is the planting of disease-free plant material. Macadamia
32 nurseries and field operators should be taught about *P. cinnamomi* affecting macadamia
33 and how to identify and manage the pathogen.

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PROJECT OUTCOMES

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The research was presented at the following conferences:

NS Kunene, MD Ncango, M Schoeman, B Christie, A Gubba and G Tlou. A rapid diagnostic tool for *Phytophthora cinnamomi* on Macadamia using fluorescence-based qualitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR), a review. 7th International Macadamia Symposium. 11-13 August, Kruger National Park, Skukuza, South Africa.

NS Kunene, MD Ncango, M Schoeman, B Christie, A Gubba and G Tlou. Resistant rootstocks as disease management options against *Phytophthora cinnamomi* on Macadamia, a review. 7th International Macadamia Symposium. 11-13 August, Kruger National Park, Skukuza, South Africa.

N. Kunene, G. Gubba and A.E.C. Jooste. 2016. Let your soil speak for you....are you *Phytophthora* free? SAMAC Research Symposium. 24 August 2016, Emnotweni Arena, Riverside, Mbombela, South Africa.

Kunene, N.S., Jooste, A.E.C., Gubba, A. Molecular Identification and the effect of Biological Control of *Phytophthora cinnamomi* on Macadamia in South Africa. 50th Anniversary congress of the Southern African society for Plant Pathology. 15th-18th January 2017, Champagne Sports Resort, Drakensberg, South Africa.

Kunene, N.S., Gubba, A., Jooste, A.E.C., Distribution, molecular identification and the effect of biological control of *Phytophthora cinnamomi* on macadamia in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces. Professional Development Programme Conference. 4-6 September 2017, ARC-VOP, Pretoria, South Africa.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: PCR results data

Effect	Univariate Results for Each DV (PCR results) Sigma-restricted parameterization Effective hypothesis decomposition				
	Degr. of Freedom	PCR Results SS	PCR Results MS	PCR Results F	PCR Results p
Intercept	1	52.45672	52.45672	254.5426	0.000000
Province	14	11.99559	0.85683	4.1577	0.000002
Error	190	39.15563	0.20608		
Total	204	51.15122			

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Root incidence and severity + PCR results)				
	Level of Factor	N	PCR Results Mean	PCR Results Std.Dev.	PCR Results Std.Err
Total		205	0.521951	0.500741	0.034973
Province	Mpumalanga1	20	0.900000	0.307794	0.068825
Province	Mpumalanga2	11	0.818182	0.404520	0.121967
Province	Mpumalanga3	17	0.235294	0.437237	0.106046
Province	Mpumalanga4	15	0.466667	0.516398	0.133333
Province	Mpumalanga5	15	0.800000	0.414039	0.106904
Province	Mpumalanga6	11	0.545455	0.522233	0.157459
Province	Mpumalanga7	10	0.800000	0.421637	0.133333
Province	Mpumalanga8	10	0.700000	0.483046	0.152753
Province	Mpumalanga9	13	0.615385	0.506370	0.140442
Province	Limpopo1	12	0.333333	0.492366	0.142134
Province	Limpopo2	10	0.400000	0.516398	0.163299
Province	Limpopo3	19	0.315789	0.477567	0.109561
Province	Limpopo4	10	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
Province	Limpopo5	15	0.466667	0.516398	0.133333
Province	Limpopo6	17	0.411765	0.507300	0.123038

1 **Appendix 2: Root rot incidence and severity data**

2

3 File name is Root rot incidence and severity.GEN

4 Compare root rot incidence and severity between provinces

5 November 2017

6

7 *Message: You have input sufficient data, READ terminated.*

8

9

Identifier	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	Values	Missing
%Severity	46.00	65.47	80.00	15	0
%Rootrot	41.70	60.91	80.00	15	0

13

Identifier	Values	Missing	Levels
PROVINCE	15	0	2

15

16

17

18 **Analysis of variance**

19

20 Variate: %Severity

21

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
PROVINCE	1	120.2	120.2	0.80	0.388
Residual	13	1955.6	150.4		
Total	14	2075.7			

25

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29

30 **Tables of means**

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32 Variate: %Severity

33

34 Grand mean 65.5

35

PROVINCE	Limpopo	Mpumalanga
rep.	62.0	67.8
	6	9

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41 **Standard errors of means**

42

Table	PROVINCE
rep.	unequal
d.f.	13
e.s.e.	5.01
	4.09
	min.rep
	max.rep

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51 **Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation**

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53 Variate: %Severity

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d.f.	s.e.	cv%
13	12.26	18.7

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===== Summary of original data =====

PROVINCE	Mean	Variance	s.d.
Limpopo	62.00	140.0	11.83
Mpumalanga	67.78	156.9	12.53

PROVINCE	%Severity	FITTED	RESIDUAL
Mpumalanga	75.00	67.78	7.22
Mpumalanga	50.00	67.78	-17.78
Mpumalanga	3.000	67.78	-7.78
Mpumalanga	3.000	67.78	-2.78
Mpumalanga	2.000	67.78	-19.78
Mpumalanga	3.000	67.78	9.22
Mpumalanga	3.000	67.78	11.22
Mpumalanga	3.000	67.78	12.22
Mpumalanga	3.000	67.78	8.22
Limpopo	2.000	62.00	-16.00
Limpopo	3.000	62.00	9.00
Limpopo	3.000	62.00	7.00
Limpopo	3.000	62.00	13.00
Limpopo	2.000	62.00	-12.00
Limpopo	3.000	62.00	-1.00

Analysis of variance

Variate: %Rootrot

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
PROVINCE	1	236.52	236.52	2.53	0.136
Residual	13	1217.62	93.66		
Total	14	1454.14			

Tables of means

Variate: %Rootrot

Grand mean 60.9

PROVINCE	Limpopo	Mpumalanga
rep.	56.0 6	64.2 9

Standard errors of means

Table	PROVINCE
rep.	unequal
d.f.	13
e.s.e.	3.95
	3.23
	min.rep
	max.rep

1
2 **Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation**

3
4 Variate: %Rootrot

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6 d.f. s.e. cv%
7 13 9.68 15.9

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11 ===== Summary of original data =====

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	Mean	Variance	s.d.
PROVINCE			
Limpopo	56.05	118.71	10.896
Mpumalanga	64.16	78.01	8.832

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PROVINCE	%Rootrot	FITTED	RESIDUAL
Mpumalanga	63.60	64.16	-0.556
Mpumalanga	60.00	64.16	-4.156
Mpumalanga	55.60	64.16	-8.556
Mpumalanga	66.70	64.16	2.544
Mpumalanga	50.00	64.16	-14.156
Mpumalanga	70.00	64.16	5.844
Mpumalanga	80.00	64.16	15.844
Mpumalanga	70.00	64.16	5.844
Mpumalanga	61.50	64.16	-2.656
Limpopo	41.70	56.05	-14.350
Limpopo	60.00	56.05	3.950
Limpopo	65.00	56.05	8.950
Limpopo	70.00	56.05	13.950
Limpopo	46.70	56.05	-9.350
Limpopo	52.90	56.05	-3.150

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39 End of Nontokozo Kunene - TSC - Project no: P03000100. Current data space: 1 block, peak usage
40 1% at line 44.

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42 **Genstat 64-bit Release 18.2 (PC/Windows 8) 13 November 2017 11:52:52**

43 **Copyright 2016, VSN International Ltd.**

44 Registered to: ARC

1 **Appendix 3: Pathogenicity test green data**

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File name is Pathogenicity test green apples.GEN
P. cinnamomi screened for pathogenicity and virulence on green apples
Pathogenicity tests
October 2017

8 *Message: You have input sufficient data, READ terminated.*

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Identifier	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	Values	Missing
Lesion	1.125	1.972	3.000	30	0
Identifier	Values	Missing	Levels		
REP	30	0	5		
P_cinnamoni	30	0	6		

17 **Analysis of variance**

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Variate: Lesion

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
P_cinnamoni	5	3.0267	0.6053	1.83	0.144
Residual	24	7.9218	0.3301		
Total	29	10.9484			

27 **Tables of means**

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36

Variate: Lesion

Grand mean 1.97

P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580	581
	1.93	1.98	2.27	2.42	1.77	1.46

37 **Standard errors of means**

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Table	P_cinnamoni
rep.	5
d.f.	24
e.s.e.	0.257

46 **Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation**

47
48
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54

Variate: Lesion

d.f.	s.e.	cv%
24	0.575	29.1

55 ===== Summary of original data =====

56
57

		Mean	Variance	s.d.
1				
2	P_cinnamoni			
3	7	1.925	0.4344	0.6591
4	333	1.975	0.4953	0.7038
5	336	2.275	0.5891	0.7675
6	347	2.425	0.1609	0.4012
7	580	1.775	0.0266	0.1630
8	581	1.455	0.2742	0.5236

	REP	P_cinnamoni	Lesion	FITTED	RESIDUAL
11					
12					
13	1	347	2.125	2.425	-0.3000
14	2	347	2.750	2.425	0.3250
15	3	347	1.875	2.425	-0.5500
16	4	347	2.625	2.425	0.2000
17	5	347	2.750	2.425	0.3250
18	1	580	2.000	1.775	0.2250
19	2	580	1.625	1.775	-0.1500
20	3	580	1.750	1.775	-0.0250
21	4	580	1.625	1.775	-0.1500
22	5	580	1.875	1.775	0.1000
23	1	336	3.000	2.275	0.7250
24	2	336	2.625	2.275	0.3500
25	3	336	2.750	2.275	0.4750
26	4	336	1.875	2.275	-0.4000
27	5	336	1.125	2.275	-1.1500
28	1	581	1.250	1.455	-0.2050
29	2	581	1.125	1.455	-0.3300
30	3	581	1.375	1.455	-0.0800
31	4	581	2.375	1.455	0.9200
32	5	581	1.150	1.455	-0.3050
33	1	7	1.625	1.925	-0.3000
34	2	7	1.250	1.925	-0.6750
35	3	7	1.500	1.925	-0.4250
36	4	7	2.500	1.925	0.5750
37	5	7	2.750	1.925	0.8250
38	1	333	2.125	1.975	0.1500
39	2	333	2.500	1.975	0.5250
40	3	333	2.750	1.975	0.7750
41	4	333	1.125	1.975	-0.8500
42	5	333	1.375	1.975	-0.6000

45 End of Nontokozo Kunene - TSC - Project no: P03000100. Current data space: 2 blocks, peak usage
 46 1% at line 60.

48 [Genstat 64-bit Release 18.2 \(PC/Windows 8\) 25 October 2017 12:28:19](#)

49 [Copyright 2016, VSN International Ltd.](#)

50 Registered to: ARC

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1 **Appendix 4: *Trichoderma* spp. biocontrol data**

2
3 File name is Bell test results Fungal.GEN
4 In vivo evaluation of different biocontrol agents against different isolates of *P. cinnamomi*
5 Fungal isolates
6 October 2017
7

8 *Message: You have input sufficient data, READ terminated.*

Identifier	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	Values	Missing
%Growth	25.00	43.83	62.80	60	0
Diameter	20.50	36.21	59.20	60	0
AI	4.400	20.92	32.30	60	0

Identifier	Values	Missing	Levels
REP	60	0	5
FUNGAL	60	0	2
P_cinnamoni	60	0	6

19
20 **Analysis of variance**

21
22 Variate: %Growth

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
REP stratum	4	122.04	30.51	0.86	
REP.*Units* stratum					
FUNGAL	1	1873.77	1873.77	52.93	<.001
P_cinnamoni	5	1221.80	244.36	6.90	<.001
FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni	5	172.72	34.54	0.98	0.443
Residual	44	1557.66	35.40		
Total	59	4947.99			

36
37 **Tables of means**

38
39 Variate: %Growth

40
41 Grand mean 43.82

FUNGAL	Trichoderma_hamatum	Trichoderma_harzanium
	49.41	38.24
P_cinnamoni	7 333	336 347 580 581
	50.86 46.21	37.05 46.34 40.39 42.10
FUNGAL P_cinnamoni	7 333	336 347 580 581
Trichoderma_hamatum		59.64 49.52 43.42 51.46 45.76
Trichoderma_harzanium		42.08 42.90 30.68 41.22 35.02
FUNGAL P_cinnamoni	581	
Trichoderma_hamatum		46.68
Trichoderma_harzanium		37.52

57
58 **Standard errors of means**

1				
2	Table	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	FUNGAL
3				P_cinnamoni
4	rep.	30	10	5
5	d.f.	44	44	44
6	e.s.e.	1.086	1.882	2.661
7				
8				
9				

10 **Least significant differences of means (5% level)**

11				
12	Table	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	FUNGAL
13				P_cinnamoni
14	rep.	30	10	5
15	d.f.	44	44	44
16	l.s.d.	3.096	5.363	7.584
17				
18				
19				

20 **Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation**

21				
22	Variate: %Growth			
23				
24	Stratum	d.f.	s.e.	cv%
25	REP	4	1.595	3.6
26	REP.*Units*	44	5.950	13.6
27				
28				

29 **Fisher's protected least significant difference test**

30
31
32 **FUNGAL**

34 *Warning 231, code UF 2, statement 180 in procedure AMCOMPARISON*

36 The number of MEANS must be greater than 2.

39 **P_cinnamoni**

40			
41		Mean	
42			
43	7	50.86	a
44	347	46.34	ab
45	333	46.21	ab
46	581	42.10	bc
47	580	40.39	c
48	336	37.05	c
49			
50			

51 **FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni**

53 *Warning 232, code UF 2, statement 194 in procedure AMCOMPARISON*

55 Fisher's protected LSD is not calculated as variance ratio for FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni is not significant.

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===== Summary of original data =====

P_cinnamoni	7			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	59.64	11.73		3.425
Trichoderma_harzanium	42.08	12.51		3.537
Margin	50.86	96.43		9.820
P_cinnamoni	333			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	49.52	82.75		9.097
Trichoderma_harzanium	42.90	21.32		4.618
Margin	46.21	58.43		7.644
P_cinnamoni	336			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	43.42	22.88		4.783
Trichoderma_harzanium	30.68	20.68		4.547
Margin	37.05	64.44		8.028
P_cinnamoni	347			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	51.46	27.58		5.252
Trichoderma_harzanium	41.22	38.10		6.173
Margin	46.34	58.32		7.637
P_cinnamoni	580			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	45.76	104.19		10.207
Trichoderma_harzanium	35.02	47.42		6.886
Margin	40.39	99.42		9.971
P_cinnamoni	581			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	46.68	19.93		4.464
Trichoderma_harzanium	37.52	10.84		3.292
Margin	42.10	36.98		6.081
P_cinnamoni	Margin			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
FUNGAL				
Trichoderma_hamatum	49.41	65.65		8.102
Trichoderma_harzanium	38.24	40.36		6.353
Margin	43.83	83.86		9.158

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	REP	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	%Growth	FITTED	RESIDUAL
3	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	58.50	53.36	5.140
4	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	50.00	49.63	0.373
5	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	44.50	50.13	-5.635
6	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	50.00	52.66	-2.660
7	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	54.30	51.52	2.782
8	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	40.20	48.58	-8.380
9	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	51.20	44.85	6.353
10	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	50.60	45.36	5.245
11	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	45.70	47.88	-2.180
12	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	45.70	46.74	-1.038
13	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	62.80	51.42	11.380
14	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	45.80	47.69	-1.887
15	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	39.60	48.20	-8.595
16	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	45.10	50.72	-5.620
17	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	54.30	49.58	4.722
18	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	54.30	47.66	6.640
19	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	29.90	43.93	-14.027
20	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	54.30	44.44	9.865
21	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	48.20	46.96	1.240
22	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	42.10	45.82	-3.718
23	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	50.00	45.32	4.680
24	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	36.60	41.59	-4.987
25	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	44.50	42.09	2.405
26	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	42.70	44.62	-1.920
27	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	43.30	43.48	-0.178
28	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	58.50	61.54	-3.040
29	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	62.20	57.81	4.393
30	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	54.30	58.31	-4.015
31	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	62.80	60.84	1.960
32	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	60.40	59.70	0.702
33	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	27.40	32.58	-5.180
34	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	36.60	28.85	7.753
35	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	25.00	29.36	-4.355
36	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	32.30	31.88	0.420
37	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	32.10	30.74	1.362
38	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	45.10	43.98	1.120
39	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	36.60	40.25	-3.647
40	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	45.10	40.76	4.345
41	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	42.70	43.28	-0.580
42	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	40.90	42.14	-1.238
43	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	42.10	36.92	5.180
44	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	29.90	33.19	-3.287
45	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	26.20	33.70	-7.495
46	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	40.90	36.22	4.680
47	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	36.00	35.08	0.922
48	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	35.40	39.42	-4.020
49	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	42.10	35.69	6.413
50	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	33.50	36.20	-2.695
51	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	37.80	38.72	-0.920
52	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	38.80	37.58	1.222
53	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	37.20	44.80	-7.600
54	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	45.80	41.07	4.733
55	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	49.10	41.58	7.525
56	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	40.90	44.10	-3.200
57	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	41.50	42.96	-1.458
58	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	37.20	43.12	-5.920
59	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	37.20	39.39	-2.187
60	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	43.30	39.90	3.405

1	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	51.20	42.42	8.780
2	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	37.20	41.28	-4.078

Analysis of variance

Variate: Diameter

Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
REP stratum	4	126.43	31.61	1.28	
REP.*Units* stratum					
FUNGAL	1	1420.09	1420.09	57.37	<.001
P_cinnamoni	5	1038.85	207.77	8.39	<.001
FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni	5	227.05	45.41	1.83	0.126
Residual	44	1089.16	24.75		
Total	59	3901.58			

Tables of means

Variate: Diameter

Grand mean 36.21

FUNGAL	Trichoderma_hamatum	Trichoderma_harzanium				
	41.08	31.35				
P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580	581
	43.38	37.88	30.38	38.00	33.10	34.53
FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580
Trichoderma_hamatum		52.26	40.60	35.60	42.20	37.50
Trichoderma_harzanium		34.50	35.16	25.16	33.80	28.70
FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	581				
Trichoderma_hamatum		38.30				
Trichoderma_harzanium		30.76				

Standard errors of means

Table	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	FUNGAL P_cinnamoni
rep.	30	10	5
d.f.	44	44	44
e.s.e.	0.908	1.573	2.225

Least significant differences of means (5% level)

Table	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	FUNGAL P_cinnamoni
rep.	30	10	5
d.f.	44	44	44
l.s.d.	2.589	4.484	6.342

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Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation

Variate: Diameter

	d.f.	s.e.	cv%
Stratum			
REP	4	1.623	4.5
REP.*Units*	44	4.975	13.7

Fisher's protected least significant difference test

FUNGAL

Warning 233, code UF 2, statement 180 in procedure AMCOMPARISON

The number of MEANS must be greater than 2.

P_cinnamoni

	Mean	
7	43.38	a
347	38.00	b
333	37.88	b
581	34.53	bc
580	33.10	c
336	30.38	c

FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni

Warning 234, code UF 2, statement 194 in procedure AMCOMPARISON

Fisher's protected LSD is not calculated as variance ratio for FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni is not significant.

===== Summary of original data =====

P_cinnamoni	7		
	Mean	Variance	s.d.
FUNGAL			
Trichoderma_hamatum	52.26	29.65	5.445
Trichoderma_harzanium	34.50	8.50	2.915
Margin	43.38	104.57	10.226
P_cinnamoni	333		
	Mean	Variance	s.d.
FUNGAL			
Trichoderma_hamatum	40.60	55.55	7.453

1	Trichoderma_harzanium	35.16	14.43	3.798
2	Margin	37.88	39.32	6.271
3				
4				
5	P_cinnamoni	336		
6	Mean		Variance	s.d.
7	FUNGAL			
8	Trichoderma_hamatum	35.60	15.43	3.927
9	Trichoderma_harzanium	25.16	13.83	3.719
10	Margin	30.38	43.28	6.579
11				
12				
13	P_cinnamoni	347		
14	Mean		Variance	s.d.
15	FUNGAL			
16	Trichoderma_hamatum	42.20	18.58	4.310
17	Trichoderma_harzanium	33.80	25.70	5.070
18	Margin	38.00	39.28	6.267
19				
20				
21	P_cinnamoni	580		
22	Mean		Variance	s.d.
23	FUNGAL			
24	Trichoderma_hamatum	37.50	70.00	8.367
25	Trichoderma_harzanium	28.70	31.70	5.630
26	Margin	33.10	66.71	8.168
27				
28				
29	P_cinnamoni	581		
30	Mean		Variance	s.d.
31	FUNGAL			
32	Trichoderma_hamatum	38.30	13.33	3.650
33	Trichoderma_harzanium	30.76	7.21	2.686
34	Margin	34.53	24.92	4.992
35				
36				
37	P_cinnamoni	Margin		
38	Mean		Variance	s.d.
39	FUNGAL			
40	Trichoderma_hamatum	41.08	58.46	7.646
41	Trichoderma_harzanium	31.35	27.11	5.206
42	Margin	36.21	66.13	8.132

REP	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	Diameter	FITTED	RESIDUAL	
47	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	48.00	44.42	3.578
48	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	41.00	40.41	0.595
49	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	36.50	40.85	-4.347
50	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	41.00	42.91	-1.905
51	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	347	44.50	42.42	2.078
52	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	33.00	40.52	-7.522
53	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	42.00	36.51	5.495
54	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	41.50	36.95	4.553
55	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	37.50	39.01	-1.505
56	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	581	37.50	38.52	-1.022
57	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	51.50	42.82	8.678
58	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	37.50	38.80	-1.305
59	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	32.50	39.25	-6.747
60	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	37.00	41.30	-4.305

1	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	333	44.50	40.82	3.678
2	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	44.50	39.72	4.778
3	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	24.50	35.70	-11.205
4	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	44.50	36.15	8.353
5	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	39.50	38.20	1.295
6	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	580	34.50	37.72	-3.222
7	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	41.00	37.82	3.178
8	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	30.00	33.80	-3.805
9	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	36.50	34.25	2.253
10	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	35.00	36.30	-1.305
11	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	336	35.50	35.82	-0.322
12	1	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	59.20	54.48	4.718
13	2	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	51.00	50.47	0.535
14	3	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	44.50	50.91	-6.407
15	4	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	51.50	52.97	-1.465
16	5	Trichoderma_hamatum	7	55.10	52.48	2.618
17	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	22.50	27.38	-4.882
18	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	30.00	23.37	6.635
19	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	20.50	23.81	-3.307
20	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	26.50	25.86	0.635
21	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	26.30	25.38	0.918
22	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	37.00	36.72	0.278
23	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	30.00	32.70	-2.705
24	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	37.00	33.15	3.853
25	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	35.00	35.20	-0.205
26	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	33.50	34.72	-1.222
27	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	34.50	30.92	3.578
28	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	24.50	26.91	-2.405
29	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	21.50	27.35	-5.847
30	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	33.50	29.41	4.095
31	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	29.50	28.92	0.578
32	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	29.00	32.98	-3.982
33	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	34.50	28.96	5.535
34	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	27.50	29.41	-1.907
35	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	31.00	31.46	-0.465
36	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	31.80	30.98	0.818
37	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	30.50	37.38	-6.882
38	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	37.50	33.37	4.135
39	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	40.30	33.81	6.493
40	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	33.50	35.87	-2.365
41	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	34.00	35.38	-1.382
42	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	30.50	36.02	-5.522
43	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	30.50	32.01	-1.505
44	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	35.50	32.45	3.053
45	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	42.00	34.51	7.495
46	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	30.50	34.02	-3.522
47						

Analysis of variance

48						
49						
50	Variate: AI					
51						
52	Source of variation	d.f.	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
53						
54	REP stratum	4	191.85	47.96	1.74	
55						
56	REP.*Units* stratum					
57	FUNGAL	1	81.43	81.43	2.95	0.093
58	P_cinnamoni	5	221.08	44.22	1.60	0.179
59	FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni	5	59.53	11.91	0.43	0.824
60	Residual	44	1213.47	27.58		

1
 2 Total 59 1767.35
 3
 4

5 Tables of means

6
 7 Variate: AI

8
 9 Grand mean 20.93

10	FUNGAL	Trichoderma_hamatum	Trichoderma_harzanium				
11		22.09	19.76				
12							
13							
14	P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580	581
15		22.14	19.54	23.73	20.57	17.77	21.80
16							
17	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580
18	Trichoderma_hamatum		21.60	20.46	24.60	21.72	20.48
19	Trichoderma_harzanium		22.68	18.62	22.86	19.42	15.06
20							
21	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	581				
22	Trichoderma_hamatum		23.68				
23	Trichoderma_harzanium		19.92				
24							
25							

26 Standard errors of means

27	Table	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	FUNGAL
28				P_cinnamoni
29	rep.	30	10	5
30	d.f.	44	44	44
31	e.s.e.	0.959	1.661	2.349
32				
33				
34				
35				

36 Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation

37
 38 Variate: AI

39	Stratum	d.f.	s.e.	cv%
40	REP	4	1.999	9.6
41	REP.*Units*	44	5.252	25.1
42				
43				
44				

45 Fisher's protected least significant difference test

48 FUNGAL

49
 50 Warning 235, code UF 2, statement 180 in procedure AMCOMPARISON

51
 52 The number of MEANS must be greater than 2.

55 P_cinnamoni

56
 57 Warning 236, code UF 2, statement 194 in procedure AMCOMPARISON

1
2 Fisher's protected LSD is not calculated as variance ratio for P_cinnamoni is not significant.
3
4

5 FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni

6
7 *Warning 237, code UF 2, statement 194 in procedure AMCOMPARISON*
8

9 Fisher's protected LSD is not calculated as variance ratio for FUNGAL.P_cinnamoni is not significant.
10
11

12
13 ===== Summary of original data =====
14

15

16 P_cinnamoni	7			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
17 FUNGAL				
18 Trichoderma_hamatum	21.60	6.49		2.548
19 Trichoderma_harzanium	22.68	25.82		5.081
20 Margin	22.14	14.68		3.832

21
22
23

24 P_cinnamoni	333			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
25 FUNGAL				
26 Trichoderma_hamatum	20.46	60.50		7.778
27 Trichoderma_harzanium	18.62	40.03		6.327
28 Margin	19.54	45.62		6.754

29
30
31

32 P_cinnamoni	336			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
33 FUNGAL				
34 Trichoderma_hamatum	24.60	18.86		4.343
35 Trichoderma_harzanium	22.86	43.51		6.596
36 Margin	23.73	28.56		5.344

37
38
39

40 P_cinnamoni	347			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
41 FUNGAL				
42 Trichoderma_hamatum	21.72	27.08		5.204
43 Trichoderma_harzanium	19.42	19.15		4.376
44 Margin	20.57	22.02		4.692

45
46
47

48 P_cinnamoni	580			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
49 FUNGAL				
50 Trichoderma_hamatum	20.48	9.57		3.093
51 Trichoderma_harzanium	15.06	55.44		7.446
52 Margin	17.77	37.05		6.087

53
54
55

56 P_cinnamoni	581			
	Mean	Variance		s.d.
57 FUNGAL				
58 Trichoderma_hamatum	23.68	22.10		4.701
59 Trichoderma_harzanium	19.92	22.78		4.773

1	Margin	21.80	23.87	4.886
2				
3				
4	P_cinnamoni	Margin		
5		Mean	Variance	s.d.
6	FUNGAL			
7	Trichoderma_hamatatum	22.09	22.44	4.737
8	Trichoderma_harzanium	19.76	35.70	5.975
9	Margin	20.93	29.96	5.473

10	11	12	13	REP	FUNGAL	P_cinnamoni	AI	FITTED	RESIDUAL
14	1	Trichoderma_hamatatum	347	22.10	23.41	-1.312			
15	2	Trichoderma_hamatatum	347	23.70	19.07	4.630			
16	3	Trichoderma_hamatatum	347	26.90	21.54	5.363			
17	4	Trichoderma_hamatatum	347	13.00	23.94	-10.937			
18	5	Trichoderma_hamatatum	347	22.90	20.64	2.255			
19	1	Trichoderma_hamatatum	581	31.30	25.37	5.928			
20	2	Trichoderma_hamatatum	581	25.20	21.03	4.170			
21	3	Trichoderma_hamatatum	581	20.30	23.50	-3.197			
22	4	Trichoderma_hamatatum	581	20.80	25.90	-5.097			
23	5	Trichoderma_hamatatum	581	20.80	22.61	-1.805			
24	1	Trichoderma_hamatatum	333	24.30	22.15	2.148			
25	2	Trichoderma_hamatatum	333	10.20	17.81	-7.610			
26	3	Trichoderma_hamatatum	333	31.00	20.28	10.723			
27	4	Trichoderma_hamatatum	333	19.50	22.68	-3.177			
28	5	Trichoderma_hamatatum	333	17.30	19.39	-2.085			
29	1	Trichoderma_hamatatum	580	16.50	22.17	-5.672			
30	2	Trichoderma_hamatatum	580	21.00	17.83	3.170			
31	3	Trichoderma_hamatatum	580	21.30	20.30	1.003			
32	4	Trichoderma_hamatatum	580	24.80	22.70	2.103			
33	5	Trichoderma_hamatatum	580	18.80	19.41	-0.605			
34	1	Trichoderma_hamatatum	336	25.50	26.29	-0.792			
35	2	Trichoderma_hamatatum	336	18.70	21.95	-3.250			
36	3	Trichoderma_hamatatum	336	26.70	24.42	2.283			
37	4	Trichoderma_hamatatum	336	30.00	26.82	3.183			
38	5	Trichoderma_hamatatum	336	22.10	23.52	-1.425			
39	1	Trichoderma_hamatatum	7	21.30	23.29	-1.992			
40	2	Trichoderma_hamatatum	7	18.70	18.95	-0.250			
41	3	Trichoderma_hamatatum	7	25.30	21.42	3.883			
42	4	Trichoderma_hamatatum	7	22.70	23.82	-1.117			
43	5	Trichoderma_hamatatum	7	20.00	20.52	-0.525			
44	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	25.80	24.55	1.248			
45	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	18.70	20.21	-1.510			
46	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	15.20	22.68	-7.477			
47	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	32.30	25.08	7.223			
48	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	336	22.30	21.79	0.515			
49	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	25.70	24.37	1.328			
50	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	16.20	20.03	-3.830			
51	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	21.00	22.50	-1.497			
52	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	29.50	24.90	4.603			
53	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	7	21.00	21.61	-0.605			
54	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	11.20	16.75	-5.552			
55	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	21.00	12.41	8.590			
56	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	4.40	14.88	-10.477			
57	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	22.60	17.28	5.323			
58	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	580	16.10	13.98	2.115			
59	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	20.30	21.61	-1.312			
60	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	22.40	17.27	5.130			

1	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	11.70	19.74	-8.037
2	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	23.80	22.14	1.663
3	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	581	21.40	18.84	2.555
4	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	22.10	20.31	1.788
5	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	10.20	15.97	-5.770
6	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	27.00	18.44	8.563
7	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	17.60	20.84	-3.237
8	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	333	16.20	17.55	-1.345
9	1	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	25.30	21.11	4.188
10	2	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	13.30	16.77	-3.470
11	3	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	18.10	19.24	-1.137
12	4	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	21.10	21.64	-0.537
13	5	Trichoderma_harzanium	347	19.30	18.35	0.955

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15

16 End of Nontokozo Kunene - TSC - Project no: P03000100. Current data space: 2 blocks, peak usage
17 38% at line 93.

18

19 [Genstat 64-bit Release 18.2 \(PC/Windows 8\) 25 October 2017 12:06:16](#)

20 [Copyright 2016, VSN International Ltd.](#)

21 Registered to: ARC

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1 **Appendix 5: *Bacillus* spp. biocontrol data**

2
3 File name is Bell test results Bacteria.GEN
4 In vivo evaluation of different biocontrol agents against different isolates of *P. cinnamomi*
5 Bacterial isolates
6 October 2017
7

8 *Message: You have input sufficient data, READ terminated.*

Identifier	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	Values	Missing
InhZone	0.9000	13.09	41.00	240	3
%Inh	0.7000	27.04	84.50	240	3

Identifier	Values	Missing	Levels
Rep	240	0	5
Bacteria	240	0	8
P_cinnamoni	240	0	6

19 **Analysis of variance**

21 Variate: InhZone

Source of variation	d.f.	(m.v.)	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
Rep stratum	4		842.65	210.66	9.15	
Rep.*Units* stratum						
Bacteria	7		3711.87	530.27	23.03	<.001
P_cinnamoni	5		6934.51	1386.90	60.25	<.001
Bacteria.P_cinnamoni	35		2403.08	68.66	2.98	<.001
Residual	185	(3)	4258.76	23.02		
Total	236	(3)	18131.26			

36 **Tables of means**

38 Variate: InhZone

40 Grand mean 13.07

Bacteria	B31a	B31b	B41b	B616	BV1C	NB4	NB51b
	9.75	17.68	18.41	10.45	11.21	18.17	9.14
Bacteria	NB616						
	9.73						
P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580	581	
	4.88	10.71	22.34	10.53	14.24	15.70	
Bacteria	P_cinnamoni						
	7	333	336	347	580	581	
B31a		2.66	7.28	17.60	6.28	10.64	14.04
B31b		1.06	17.60	37.24	10.63	16.18	23.34
B41b		10.66	15.10	22.66	22.72	20.02	19.32
B616		1.84	9.70	19.20	10.16	12.46	9.32
BV1C		1.68	5.72	21.92	6.62	15.72	15.58
NB4		13.70	16.72	21.14	18.34	19.00	20.10
NB51b		1.10	6.40	21.24	2.14	10.58	13.38

1 NB616 6.32 7.16 17.72 7.34 9.28 10.54

2
3

Standard errors of means

5

Table	Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	Bacteria P_cinnamoni
rep.	30	40	5
d.f.	185	185	185
e.s.e.	0.876	0.759	2.146

11

(Not adjusted for missing values)

13
14

Least significant differences of means (5% level)

16

Table	Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	Bacteria P_cinnamoni
rep.	30	40	5
d.f.	185	185	185
l.s.d.	2.444	2.117	5.987

22

(Not adjusted for missing values)

24
25

Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation

27

Variate: InhZone

29

Stratum	d.f.	s.e.	cv%
Rep	4	2.095	16.0
Rep.*Units*	185	4.798	36.7

33
34

Fisher's protected least significant difference test

36
37

Bacteria

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	Mean	
B41b	18.41	a
NB4	18.17	a
B31b	17.68	a
BV1C	11.21	b
B616	10.45	b
B31a	9.75	b
NB616	9.73	b
NB51b	9.14	b

50
51

P_cinnamoni

53

	Mean	
336	22.34	a
581	15.70	b

57

1	580	14.24	b
2	333	10.71	c
3	347	10.53	c
4	7	4.88	d

5
6

Bacteria.P_cinnamoni

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9

10		Mean	
11	B31b 336	37.24	a
12	B31b 581	23.34	b
13	B41b 347	22.72	b
14	B41b 336	22.66	bc
15	BV1C 336	21.92	bcd
16	NB51b 336	21.24	bcde
17	NB4 336	21.14	bcde
18	NB4 581	20.10	bcdef
19	B41b 580	20.02	bcdefg
20	B41b 581	19.32	bcdefgh
21	B616 336	19.20	bcdefgh
22	NB4 580	19.00	bcdefgh
23	NB4 347	18.34	bcdefghi
24	NB616 336	17.72	bcdefghi
25	B31b 333	17.60	bcdefghi
26	B31a 336	17.60	bcdefghi
27	NB4 333	16.72	cdefghi
28	B31b 580	16.18	defghij
29	BV1C 580	15.72	efghijk
30	BV1C 581	15.58	efghijkl
31	B41b 333	15.10	fghijklm
32	B31a 581	14.04	ghijklm
33	NB4 7	13.70	hijklm
34	NB51b 581	13.38	hijklm
35	B616 580	12.46	ijklmn
36	B41b 7	10.66	jklmno
37	B31a 580	10.64	jklmno
38	B31b 347	10.63	jklmno
39	NB51b 580	10.58	jklmno
40	NB616 581	10.54	jklmno
41	B616 347	10.16	klmno
42	B616 333	9.70	lmno
43	B616 581	9.32	mno
44	NB616 580	9.28	mno
45	NB616 347	7.34	nop
46	B31a 333	7.28	nop
47	NB616 333	7.16	nop
48	BV1C 347	6.62	nopq
49	NB51b 333	6.40	opq
50	NB616 7	6.32	opq
51	B31a 347	6.28	opq
52	BV1C 333	5.72	opq
53	B31a 7	2.66	pq
54	NB51b 347	2.14	pq
55	B616 7	1.84	pq
56	BV1C 7	1.68	pq
57	NB51b 7	1.10	q
58	B31b 7	1.06	q

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===== Summary of original data =====

P_cinnamoni	7			
	Mean	Variance	s.d.	
Bacteria				
B31a	2.66	1.57	1.254	
B31b	1.06	0.02	0.134	
B41b	10.66	1.98	1.408	
B616	1.84	1.20	1.095	
BV1C	1.68	0.91	0.952	
NB4	13.70	17.08	4.133	
NB51b	1.10	0.02	0.141	
NB616	6.32	80.62	8.979	
Margin	4.88	31.96	5.653	

P_cinnamoni	333			
	Mean	Variance	s.d.	
Bacteria				
B31a	7.28	20.17	4.491	
B31b	17.60	38.26	6.186	
B41b	15.10	16.01	4.001	
B616	9.70	57.17	7.561	
BV1C	5.72	2.77	1.665	
NB4	16.72	29.15	5.399	
NB51b	6.40	5.73	2.395	
NB616	7.16	48.34	6.953	
Margin	10.71	44.34	6.658	

P_cinnamoni	336			
	Mean	Variance	s.d.	
Bacteria				
B31a	17.60	42.72	6.536	
B31b	37.24	27.86	5.279	
B41b	22.66	23.06	4.802	
B616	19.20	38.39	6.196	
BV1C	21.92	16.96	4.118	
NB4	21.14	21.61	4.649	
NB51b	21.24	28.98	5.383	
NB616	17.72	4.74	2.176	
Margin	22.34	56.68	7.528	

P_cinnamoni	347			
	Mean	Variance	s.d.	
Bacteria				
B31a	5.67	8.56	2.926	
B31b	10.18	66.75	8.170	
B41b	22.72	8.74	2.956	
B616	9.55	51.80	7.197	
BV1C	6.62	1.71	1.308	
NB4	18.34	24.81	4.981	
NB51b	2.14	0.10	0.313	
NB616	7.34	28.32	5.322	
Margin	10.47	62.83	7.926	

1	P_cinnamoni	580		
2		Mean	Variance	s.d.
3	Bacteria			
4	B31a	10.64	56.21	7.498
5	B31b	16.18	55.06	7.420
6	B41b	20.02	46.29	6.803
7	B616	12.46	67.07	8.190
8	BV1C	15.72	18.72	4.326
9	NB4	19.00	14.96	3.868
10	NB51b	10.58	18.26	4.273
11	NB616	9.28	22.59	4.753
12	Margin	14.23	45.57	6.751

15	P_cinnamoni	581		
16		Mean	Variance	s.d.
17	Bacteria			
18	B31a	14.04	22.43	4.736
19	B31b	23.34	63.97	7.998
20	B41b	19.32	26.75	5.172
21	B616	9.32	33.48	5.786
22	BV1C	15.58	57.01	7.550
23	NB4	20.10	7.44	2.728
24	NB51b	13.38	50.34	7.095
25	NB616	10.54	25.69	5.068
26	Margin	15.70	50.77	7.125

29	P_cinnamoni	Margin		
30		Mean	Variance	s.d.
31	Bacteria			
32	B31a	9.79	48.23	6.945
33	B31b	17.86	165.39	12.860
34	B41b	18.41	36.09	6.008
35	B616	10.37	61.81	7.862
36	BV1C	11.21	64.59	8.037
37	NB4	18.17	21.97	4.687
38	NB51b	9.14	63.85	7.991
39	NB616	9.73	44.29	6.655
40	Margin	13.09	76.83	8.765

	Rep	Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	InhZone	FITTED	RESIDUAL
45	1	NB4	7	12.70	11.76	0.945
46	2	NB4	7	20.30	11.58	8.720
47	3	NB4	7	14.70	15.52	-0.821
48	4	NB4	7	9.70	16.13	-6.435
49	5	NB4	7	11.10	13.51	-2.409
50	1	NB4	336	23.80	19.20	4.605
51	2	NB4	336	13.50	19.02	-5.520
52	3	NB4	336	22.40	22.96	-0.561
53	4	NB4	336	25.50	23.57	1.925
54	5	NB4	336	20.50	20.95	-0.449
55	1	NB4	580	16.70	17.06	-0.355
56	2	NB4	580	16.80	16.88	-0.080
57	3	NB4	580	22.00	20.82	1.179
58	4	NB4	580	24.20	21.43	2.765
59	5	NB4	580	15.30	18.81	-3.509
60	1	NB4	581	22.50	18.16	4.345

1	2	NB4	581	15.70	17.98	-2.280
2	3	NB4	581	21.70	21.92	-0.221
3	4	NB4	581	19.30	22.53	-3.235
4	5	NB4	581	21.30	19.91	1.391
5	1	NB4	347	12.00	16.40	-4.395
6	2	NB4	347	23.80	16.22	7.580
7	3	NB4	347	14.70	20.16	-5.461
8	4	NB4	347	22.30	20.77	1.525
9	5	NB4	347	18.90	18.15	0.751
10	1	NB4	333	12.50	14.78	-2.275
11	2	NB4	333	12.90	14.60	-1.700
12	3	NB4	333	18.20	18.54	-0.341
13	4	NB4	333	25.50	19.15	6.345
14	5	NB4	333	14.50	16.53	-2.029
15	1	BV1C	581	20.00	13.64	6.365
16	2	BV1C	581	6.30	13.46	-7.160
17	3	BV1C	581	25.70	17.40	8.299
18	4	BV1C	581	11.20	18.01	-6.815
19	5	BV1C	581	14.70	15.39	-0.689
20	1	BV1C	347	7.20	4.68	2.525
21	2	BV1C	347	5.30	4.50	0.800
22	3	BV1C	347	6.20	8.44	-2.241
23	4	BV1C	347	5.80	9.05	-3.255
24	5	BV1C	347	8.60	6.43	2.171
25	1	BV1C	333	4.80	3.78	1.025
26	2	BV1C	333	3.30	3.60	-0.300
27	3	BV1C	333	6.50	7.54	-1.041
28	4	BV1C	333	6.50	8.15	-1.655
29	5	BV1C	333	7.50	5.53	1.971
30	1	BV1C	580	14.80	13.78	1.025
31	2	BV1C	580	12.30	13.60	-1.300
32	3	BV1C	580	13.30	17.54	-4.241
33	4	BV1C	580	23.20	18.15	5.045
34	5	BV1C	580	15.00	15.53	-0.529
35	1	BV1C	336	24.80	19.98	4.825
36	2	BV1C	336	18.70	19.80	-1.100
37	3	BV1C	336	27.70	23.74	3.959
38	4	BV1C	336	19.90	24.35	-4.455
39	5	BV1C	336	18.50	21.73	-3.229
40	1	BV1C	7	1.00	-0.26	1.265
41	2	BV1C	7	3.30	-0.44	3.740
42	3	BV1C	7	1.70	3.50	-1.801
43	4	BV1C	7	1.00	4.11	-3.115
44	5	BV1C	7	1.40	1.49	-0.089
45	1	B31b	7	1.00	-0.88	1.885
46	2	B31b	7	1.00	-1.06	2.060
47	3	B31b	7	1.00	2.88	-1.881
48	4	B31b	7	1.30	3.49	-2.195
49	5	B31b	7	1.00	0.87	0.131
50	1	B31b	581	32.30	21.40	10.905
51	2	B31b	581	10.30	21.22	-10.920
52	3	B31b	581	24.80	25.16	-0.361
53	4	B31b	581	24.70	25.77	-1.075
54	5	B31b	581	24.60	23.15	1.451
55	1	B31b	336	38.50	35.30	3.205
56	2	B31b	336	28.00	35.12	-7.120
57	3	B31b	336	41.00	39.06	1.939
58	4	B31b	336	38.50	39.67	-1.175
59	5	B31b	336	40.20	37.05	3.151
60	1	B31b	580	13.50	14.24	-0.735

1	2	B31b	580	4.40	14.06	-9.660
2	3	B31b	580	21.50	18.00	3.499
3	4	B31b	580	22.20	18.61	3.585
4	5	B31b	580	19.30	15.99	3.311
5	1	B31b	333	11.00	15.66	-4.655
6	2	B31b	333	16.00	15.48	0.520
7	3	B31b	333	27.70	19.42	8.279
8	4	B31b	333	17.90	20.03	-2.135
9	5	B31b	333	15.40	17.41	-2.009
10	1	B31b	347	21.30	8.69	12.615
11	2	B31b	347	3.20	8.51	-5.310
12	3	B31b	347	*	12.45	*
13	4	B31b	347	5.00	13.06	-8.065
14	5	B31b	347	11.20	10.44	0.761
15	1	NB51b	333	6.30	4.46	1.845
16	2	NB51b	333	3.00	4.28	-1.280
17	3	NB51b	333	8.30	8.22	0.079
18	4	NB51b	333	9.00	8.83	0.165
19	5	NB51b	333	5.40	6.21	-0.809
20	1	NB51b	336	26.70	19.30	7.405
21	2	NB51b	336	15.80	19.12	-3.320
22	3	NB51b	336	15.70	23.06	-7.361
23	4	NB51b	336	26.30	23.67	2.625
24	5	NB51b	336	21.70	21.05	0.651
25	1	NB51b	347	2.70	0.20	2.505
26	2	NB51b	347	2.00	0.02	1.980
27	3	NB51b	347	2.00	3.96	-1.961
28	4	NB51b	347	2.00	4.57	-2.575
29	5	NB51b	347	2.00	1.95	0.051
30	1	NB51b	580	6.30	8.64	-2.335
31	2	NB51b	580	8.20	8.46	-0.260
32	3	NB51b	580	9.70	12.40	-2.701
33	4	NB51b	580	17.50	13.01	4.485
34	5	NB51b	580	11.20	10.39	0.811
35	1	NB51b	7	1.20	-0.84	2.045
36	2	NB51b	7	1.00	-1.02	2.020
37	3	NB51b	7	1.00	2.92	-1.921
38	4	NB51b	7	1.00	3.53	-2.535
39	5	NB51b	7	1.30	0.91	0.391
40	1	NB51b	581	21.30	11.44	9.865
41	2	NB51b	581	20.80	11.26	9.540
42	3	NB51b	581	9.90	15.20	-5.301
43	4	NB51b	581	6.70	15.81	-9.115
44	5	NB51b	581	8.20	13.19	-4.989
45	1	B41b	347	24.20	20.78	3.425
46	2	B41b	347	20.70	20.60	0.100
47	3	B41b	347	21.40	24.54	-3.141
48	4	B41b	347	27.20	25.15	2.045
49	5	B41b	347	20.10	22.53	-2.429
50	1	B41b	581	13.70	17.38	-3.675
51	2	B41b	581	19.50	17.20	2.300
52	3	B41b	581	17.20	21.14	-3.941
53	4	B41b	581	27.70	21.75	5.945
54	5	B41b	581	18.50	19.13	-0.629
55	1	B41b	333	8.80	13.16	-4.355
56	2	B41b	333	19.40	12.98	6.420
57	3	B41b	333	15.00	16.92	-1.921
58	4	B41b	333	17.50	17.53	-0.035
59	5	B41b	333	14.80	14.91	-0.109
60	1	B41b	580	11.00	18.08	-7.075

1	2	B41b	580	19.00	17.90	1.100
2	3	B41b	580	29.90	21.84	8.059
3	4	B41b	580	21.70	22.45	-0.755
4	5	B41b	580	18.50	19.83	-1.329
5	1	B41b	336	21.30	20.72	0.585
6	2	B41b	336	18.30	20.54	-2.240
7	3	B41b	336	30.80	24.48	6.319
8	4	B41b	336	20.40	25.09	-4.695
9	5	B41b	336	22.50	22.47	0.031
10	1	B41b	7	10.70	8.72	1.985
11	2	B41b	7	9.20	8.54	0.660
12	3	B41b	7	12.70	12.48	0.219
13	4	B41b	7	9.50	13.09	-3.595
14	5	B41b	7	11.20	10.47	0.731
15	1	B616	336	10.80	17.26	-6.455
16	2	B616	336	18.70	17.08	1.620
17	3	B616	336	27.30	21.02	6.279
18	4	B616	336	22.50	21.63	0.865
19	5	B616	336	16.70	19.01	-2.309
20	1	B616	7	0.90	-0.10	1.005
21	2	B616	7	1.70	-0.28	1.980
22	3	B616	7	3.70	3.66	0.039
23	4	B616	7	1.70	4.27	-2.575
24	5	B616	7	1.20	1.65	-0.449
25	1	B616	580	4.00	10.52	-6.515
26	2	B616	580	3.00	10.34	-7.340
27	3	B616	580	18.50	14.28	4.219
28	4	B616	580	18.70	14.89	3.805
29	5	B616	580	18.10	12.27	5.831
30	1	B616	581	6.20	7.38	-1.175
31	2	B616	581	5.50	7.20	-1.700
32	3	B616	581	19.50	11.14	8.359
33	4	B616	581	8.30	11.75	-3.455
34	5	B616	581	7.10	9.13	-2.029
35	1	B616	347	2.70	8.21	-5.514
36	2	B616	347	19.70	8.04	11.661
37	3	B616	347	8.00	11.98	-3.979
38	4	B616	347	*	12.59	*
39	5	B616	347	7.80	9.97	-2.168
40	1	B616	333	1.70	7.76	-6.055
41	2	B616	333	22.20	7.58	14.620
42	3	B616	333	7.20	11.52	-4.321
43	4	B616	333	9.00	12.13	-3.135
44	5	B616	333	8.40	9.51	-1.109
45	1	NB616	333	3.30	5.22	-1.915
46	2	NB616	333	3.30	5.04	-1.740
47	3	NB616	333	4.30	8.98	-4.681
48	4	NB616	333	19.50	9.59	9.905
49	5	NB616	333	5.40	6.97	-1.569
50	1	NB616	347	4.30	5.40	-1.095
51	2	NB616	347	4.00	5.22	-1.220
52	3	NB616	347	5.20	9.16	-3.961
53	4	NB616	347	16.70	9.77	6.925
54	5	NB616	347	6.50	7.15	-0.649
55	1	NB616	580	4.40	7.34	-2.935
56	2	NB616	580	4.00	7.16	-3.160
57	3	NB616	580	13.70	11.10	2.599
58	4	NB616	580	11.00	11.71	-0.715
59	5	NB616	580	13.30	9.09	4.211
60	1	NB616	581	4.80	8.60	-3.795

1	2	NB616	581	5.30	8.42	-3.120
2	3	NB616	581	13.00	12.36	0.639
3	4	NB616	581	14.80	12.97	1.825
4	5	NB616	581	14.80	10.35	4.451
5	1	NB616	7	1.00	4.38	-3.375
6	2	NB616	7	3.30	4.20	-0.900
7	3	NB616	7	3.00	8.14	-5.141
8	4	NB616	7	22.30	8.75	13.545
9	5	NB616	7	2.00	6.13	-4.129
10	1	NB616	336	17.80	15.78	2.025
11	2	NB616	336	16.00	15.60	0.400
12	3	NB616	336	20.00	19.54	0.459
13	4	NB616	336	19.70	20.15	-0.455
14	5	NB616	336	15.10	17.53	-2.429
15	1	B31a	581	6.30	12.10	-5.795
16	2	B31a	581	19.30	11.92	7.380
17	3	B31a	581	14.70	15.86	-1.161
18	4	B31a	581	15.10	16.47	-1.375
19	5	B31a	581	14.80	13.85	0.951
20	1	B31a	347	2.30	4.34	-2.039
21	2	B31a	347	4.30	4.16	0.136
22	3	B31a	347	7.30	8.10	-0.805
23	4	B31a	347	*	8.72	*
24	5	B31a	347	8.80	6.09	2.707
25	1	B31a	333	2.30	5.34	-3.035
26	2	B31a	333	8.70	5.16	3.540
27	3	B31a	333	5.20	9.10	-3.901
28	4	B31a	333	14.20	9.71	4.485
29	5	B31a	333	6.00	7.09	-1.089
30	1	B31a	580	1.00	8.70	-7.695
31	2	B31a	580	4.70	8.52	-3.820
32	3	B31a	580	18.90	12.46	6.439
33	4	B31a	580	15.20	13.07	2.125
34	5	B31a	580	13.40	10.45	2.951
35	1	B31a	336	14.40	15.66	-1.255
36	2	B31a	336	8.00	15.48	-7.480
37	3	B31a	336	24.90	19.42	5.479
38	4	B31a	336	20.50	20.03	0.465
39	5	B31a	336	20.20	17.41	2.791
40	1	B31a	7	1.00	0.72	0.285
41	2	B31a	7	1.70	0.54	1.160
42	3	B31a	7	3.30	4.48	-1.181
43	4	B31a	7	3.30	5.09	-1.795
44	5	B31a	7	4.00	2.47	1.531
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Analysis of variance

Variate: %Inh

Source of variation	d.f.	(m.v.)	s.s.	m.s.	v.r.	F pr.
Rep stratum	4		5866.8	1466.7	10.35	
Rep.*Units* stratum						
Bacteria	7		27156.5	3879.5	27.37	<.001
P_cinnamoni	5		32891.3	6578.3	46.41	<.001
Bacteria.P_cinnamoni	35		11035.4	315.3	2.22	<.001
Residual	185	(3)	26224.7	141.8		
Total	236	(3)	103075.2			

Tables of means

Variate: %Inh

Grand mean 27.00

Bacteria	B31a	B31b	B41b	B616	BV1C	NB4	NB51b
	18.41	32.71	43.85	20.66	23.40	42.94	15.06
Bacteria	NB616						
	18.94						
P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580	581	
	9.41	20.62	47.25	22.79	28.38	33.52	
Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	7	333	336	347	580	581
B31a		3.82	13.06	34.64	12.45	18.56	27.90
B31b		1.24	27.70	72.86	16.53	28.24	49.68
B41b		22.54	35.58	55.62	57.52	45.76	46.08
B616		2.36	18.66	41.76	22.35	22.66	16.18
BV1C		2.32	9.62	47.72	10.92	33.10	36.74
NB4		28.72	36.88	53.64	44.28	44.72	49.40
NB51b		1.14	10.02	36.88	2.82	17.62	21.86
NB616		13.14	13.48	34.88	15.42	16.38	20.32

Standard errors of means

Table	Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	Bacteria P_cinnamoni
rep.	30	40	5
d.f.	185	185	185
e.s.e.	2.174	1.883	5.325

(Not adjusted for missing values)

Least significant differences of means (5% level)

Table	Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	Bacteria P_cinnamoni
rep.	30	40	5
d.f.	185	185	185
l.s.d.	6.065	5.252	14.856

(Not adjusted for missing values)

Stratum standard errors and coefficients of variation

Variate: %Inh

Stratum	d.f.	s.e.	cv%
Rep	4	5.528	20.5
Rep.*Units*	185	11.906	44.1

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Fisher's protected least significant difference test

Bacteria

	Mean	
B41b	43.85	a
NB4	42.94	a
B31b	32.71	b
BV1C	23.40	c
B616	20.66	cd
NB616	18.94	cd
B31a	18.41	cd
NB51b	15.06	d

P_cinnamoni

	Mean	
336	47.25	a
581	33.52	b
580	28.38	b
347	22.79	c
333	20.62	c
7	9.41	d

Bacteria.P_cinnamoni

	Mean	
B31b 336	72.86	a
B41b 347	57.52	b
B41b 336	55.62	bc
NB4 336	53.64	bc
B31b 581	49.68	bcd
NB4 581	49.40	bcde
BV1C 336	47.72	bcdef
B41b 581	46.08	bcdef
B41b 580	45.76	bcdef
NB4 580	44.72	bcdef
NB4 347	44.28	bcdef
B616 336	41.76	cdefg
NB4 333	36.88	defgh
NB51b 336	36.88	defgh
BV1C 581	36.74	defgh
B41b 333	35.58	defghi
NB616 336	34.88	defghij
B31a 336	34.64	efghij
BV1C 580	33.10	fghijk
NB4 7	28.72	ghijkl
B31b 580	28.24	ghijklm
B31a 581	27.90	ghijklmn
B31b 333	27.70	ghijklmn
B616 580	22.66	hijklmno

1	B41b 7	22.54	hijklmno
2	B616 347	22.35	hijklmno
3	NB51b 581	21.86	ijklmno
4	NB616 581	20.32	jklmno
5	B616 333	18.66	klmnop
6	B31a 580	18.56	klmnop
7	NB51b 580	17.62	lmnopq
8	B31b 347	16.53	lmnopqr
9	NB616 580	16.38	lmnopqr
10	B616 581	16.18	lmnopqr
11	NB616 347	15.42	lmnopqrs
12	NB616 333	13.48	mnoqrqs
13	NB616 7	13.14	nopqrs
14	B31a 333	13.06	nopqrs
15	B31a 347	12.45	opqrs
16	BV1C 347	10.92	opqrs
17	NB51b 333	10.02	opqrs
18	BV1C 333	9.62	opqrs
19	B31a 7	3.82	pqrs
20	NB51b 347	2.82	qrs
21	B616 7	2.36	rs
22	BV1C 7	2.32	rs
23	B31b 7	1.24	s
24	NB51b 7	1.14	s

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===== Summary of original data =====
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31	P_cinnamoni	7		
32		Mean	Variance	s.d.
33	Bacteria			
34	B31a	3.82	3.7	1.93
35	B31b	1.24	0.1	0.27
36	B41b	22.54	19.1	4.37
37	B616	2.36	3.3	1.83
38	BV1C	2.32	2.8	1.68
39	NB4	28.72	155.6	12.47
40	NB51b	1.14	0.0	0.09
41	NB616	13.14	471.5	21.71
42	Margin	9.41	173.1	13.16

43
44

45	P_cinnamoni	333		
46		Mean	Variance	s.d.
47	Bacteria			
48	B31a	13.06	88.4	9.40
49	B31b	27.70	128.2	11.32
50	B41b	35.58	200.9	14.17
51	B616	18.66	324.0	18.00
52	BV1C	9.62	11.9	3.45
53	NB4	36.88	255.2	15.98
54	NB51b	10.02	26.0	5.10
55	NB616	13.48	223.6	14.95
56	Margin	20.62	242.3	15.57

57
58

59	P_cinnamoni	336		
60		Mean	Variance	s.d.

1	Bacteria			
2	B31a	34.64	211.0	14.53
3	B31b	72.86	306.2	17.50
4	B41b	55.62	204.4	14.30
5	B616	41.76	343.3	18.53
6	BV1C	47.72	158.2	12.58
7	NB4	53.64	248.2	15.76
8	NB51b	36.88	92.2	9.60
9	NB616	34.88	42.9	6.55
10	Margin	47.25	320.8	17.91
11				
12				
13	P_cinnamoni	347		
14		Mean	Variance	s.d.
15	Bacteria			
16	B31a	10.72	37.9	6.15
17	B31b	15.40	168.5	12.98
18	B41b	57.52	128.5	11.34
19	B616	20.62	339.2	18.42
20	BV1C	10.92	7.6	2.75
21	NB4	44.28	275.3	16.59
22	NB51b	2.82	0.1	0.38
23	NB616	15.42	222.1	14.90
24	Margin	22.75	452.8	21.28
25				
26				
27	P_cinnamoni	580		
28		Mean	Variance	s.d.
29	Bacteria			
30	B31a	18.56	190.8	13.81
31	B31b	28.24	179.6	13.40
32	B41b	45.76	509.4	22.57
33	B616	22.66	244.9	15.65
34	BV1C	33.10	157.1	12.53
35	NB4	44.72	121.9	11.04
36	NB51b	17.62	64.6	8.04
37	NB616	16.38	82.9	9.10
38	Margin	28.38	284.8	16.88
39				
40				
41	P_cinnamoni	581		
42		Mean	Variance	s.d.
43	Bacteria			
44	B31a	27.90	130.7	11.43
45	B31b	49.68	445.1	21.10
46	B41b	46.08	367.5	19.17
47	B616	16.18	148.4	12.18
48	BV1C	36.74	462.6	21.51
49	NB4	49.40	83.5	9.14
50	NB51b	21.86	101.4	10.07
51	NB616	20.32	132.6	11.52
52	Margin	33.52	361.7	19.02
53				
54				
55	P_cinnamoni	Margin		
56		Mean	Variance	s.d.
57	Bacteria			
58	B31a	18.37	208.0	14.42
59	B31b	33.11	736.2	27.13
60	B41b	43.85	344.9	18.57

1	B616	20.37	332.6	18.24
2	BV1C	23.40	395.5	19.89
3	NB4	42.94	226.2	15.04
4	NB51b	15.06	194.0	13.93
5	NB616	18.94	220.5	14.85
6	Margin	27.04	436.8	20.90

10	Rep	Bacteria	P_cinnamoni	%Inh	FITTED	RESIDUAL
11	1	NB4	7	22.10	23.68	-1.583
12	2	NB4	7	49.50	23.46	26.038
13	3	NB4	7	31.30	33.22	-1.921
14	4	NB4	7	20.50	35.63	-15.127
15	5	NB4	7	20.20	27.61	-7.406
16	1	NB4	336	63.10	48.60	14.497
17	2	NB4	336	27.30	48.38	-21.082
18	3	NB4	336	55.30	58.14	-2.841
19	4	NB4	336	68.00	60.55	7.453
20	5	NB4	336	54.50	52.53	1.974
21	1	NB4	580	37.10	39.68	-2.583
22	2	NB4	580	37.30	39.46	-2.162
23	3	NB4	580	53.00	49.22	3.779
24	4	NB4	580	60.00	51.63	8.373
25	5	NB4	580	36.20	43.61	-7.406
26	1	NB4	581	55.10	44.36	10.737
27	2	NB4	581	34.10	44.14	-10.042
28	3	NB4	581	55.60	53.90	1.699
29	4	NB4	581	47.70	56.31	-8.607
30	5	NB4	581	54.50	48.29	6.214
31	1	NB4	347	21.00	39.24	-18.243
32	2	NB4	347	63.50	39.02	24.478
33	3	NB4	347	35.90	48.78	-12.881
34	4	NB4	347	55.10	51.19	3.913
35	5	NB4	347	45.90	43.17	2.734
36	1	NB4	333	21.80	31.84	-10.043
37	2	NB4	333	26.90	31.62	-4.722
38	3	NB4	333	38.70	41.38	-2.681
39	4	NB4	333	63.00	43.79	19.213
40	5	NB4	333	34.00	35.77	-1.766
41	1	BV1C	581	54.30	31.70	22.597
42	2	BV1C	581	11.30	31.48	-20.182
43	3	BV1C	581	61.90	41.24	20.659
44	4	BV1C	581	20.60	43.65	-23.047
45	5	BV1C	581	35.60	35.63	-0.026
46	1	BV1C	347	11.80	5.88	5.917
47	2	BV1C	347	8.00	5.66	2.338
48	3	BV1C	347	10.10	15.42	-5.321
49	4	BV1C	347	9.50	17.83	-8.327
50	5	BV1C	347	15.20	9.81	5.394
51	1	BV1C	333	7.70	4.58	3.117
52	2	BV1C	333	4.80	4.36	0.438
53	3	BV1C	333	10.70	14.12	-3.421
54	4	BV1C	333	11.10	16.53	-5.427
55	5	BV1C	333	13.80	8.51	5.294
56	1	BV1C	580	30.20	28.06	2.137
57	2	BV1C	580	21.60	27.84	-6.242
58	3	BV1C	580	28.00	37.60	-9.601
59	4	BV1C	580	54.50	40.01	14.493
60	5	BV1C	580	31.20	31.99	-0.786

1	1	BV1C	336	52.80	42.68	10.117
2	2	BV1C	336	35.90	42.46	-6.562
3	3	BV1C	336	66.70	52.22	14.479
4	4	BV1C	336	45.60	54.63	-9.027
5	5	BV1C	336	37.60	46.61	-9.006
6	1	BV1C	7	1.20	-2.72	3.917
7	2	BV1C	7	5.20	-2.94	8.138
8	3	BV1C	7	2.20	6.82	-4.621
9	4	BV1C	7	1.10	9.23	-8.127
10	5	BV1C	7	1.90	1.21	0.694
11	1	B31b	7	1.20	-3.80	4.997
12	2	B31b	7	1.10	-4.02	5.118
13	3	B31b	7	1.00	5.74	-4.741
14	4	B31b	7	1.70	8.15	-6.447
15	5	B31b	7	1.20	0.13	1.074
16	1	B31b	581	73.70	44.64	29.057
17	2	B31b	581	15.50	44.42	-28.922
18	3	B31b	581	52.90	54.18	-1.281
19	4	B31b	581	53.70	56.59	-2.887
20	5	B31b	581	52.60	48.57	4.034
21	1	B31b	336	80.60	67.82	12.777
22	2	B31b	336	42.10	67.60	-25.502
23	3	B31b	336	84.50	77.36	7.139
24	4	B31b	336	75.50	79.77	-4.267
25	5	B31b	336	81.60	71.75	9.854
26	1	B31b	580	27.00	23.20	3.797
27	2	B31b	580	5.90	22.98	-17.082
28	3	B31b	580	39.80	32.74	7.059
29	4	B31b	580	36.70	35.15	1.553
30	5	B31b	580	31.80	27.13	4.674
31	1	B31b	333	15.40	22.66	-7.263
32	2	B31b	333	25.60	22.44	3.158
33	3	B31b	333	46.10	32.20	13.899
34	4	B31b	333	28.00	34.61	-6.607
35	5	B31b	333	23.40	26.59	-3.186
36	1	B31b	347	33.30	11.49	21.812
37	2	B31b	347	4.30	11.27	-6.968
38	3	B31b	347	*	21.03	*
39	4	B31b	347	7.60	23.43	-15.833
40	5	B31b	347	16.40	15.41	0.989
41	1	NB51b	333	8.30	4.98	3.317
42	2	NB51b	333	4.20	4.76	-0.562
43	3	NB51b	333	12.80	14.52	-1.721
44	4	NB51b	333	17.30	16.93	0.373
45	5	NB51b	333	7.50	8.91	-1.406
46	1	NB51b	336	44.10	31.84	12.257
47	2	NB51b	336	23.80	31.62	-7.822
48	3	NB51b	336	30.20	41.38	-11.181
49	4	NB51b	336	46.50	43.79	2.713
50	5	NB51b	336	39.80	35.77	4.034
51	1	NB51b	347	3.50	-2.22	5.717
52	2	NB51b	347	2.70	-2.44	5.138
53	3	NB51b	347	2.60	7.32	-4.721
54	4	NB51b	347	2.70	9.73	-7.027
55	5	NB51b	347	2.60	1.71	0.894
56	1	NB51b	580	8.20	12.58	-4.383
57	2	NB51b	580	12.10	12.36	-0.262
58	3	NB51b	580	17.80	22.12	-4.321
59	4	NB51b	580	28.90	24.53	4.373
60	5	NB51b	580	21.10	16.51	4.594

1	1	NB51b	7	1.20	-3.90	5.097
2	2	NB51b	7	1.10	-4.12	5.218
3	3	NB51b	7	1.20	5.64	-4.441
4	4	NB51b	7	1.00	8.05	-7.047
5	5	NB51b	7	1.20	0.03	1.174
6	1	NB51b	581	33.30	16.82	16.477
7	2	NB51b	581	32.00	16.60	15.398
8	3	NB51b	581	17.10	26.36	-9.261
9	4	NB51b	581	11.50	28.77	-17.267
10	5	NB51b	581	15.40	20.75	-5.346
11	1	B41b	347	53.20	52.48	0.717
12	2	B41b	347	50.50	52.26	-1.762
13	3	B41b	347	61.10	62.02	-0.921
14	4	B41b	347	75.60	64.43	11.173
15	5	B41b	347	47.20	56.41	-9.206
16	1	B41b	581	27.10	41.04	-13.943
17	2	B41b	581	45.30	40.82	4.478
18	3	B41b	581	36.60	50.58	-13.981
19	4	B41b	581	77.90	52.99	24.913
20	5	B41b	581	43.50	44.97	-1.466
21	1	B41b	333	15.30	30.54	-15.243
22	2	B41b	333	51.70	30.32	21.378
23	3	B41b	333	33.30	40.08	-6.781
24	4	B41b	333	46.10	42.49	3.613
25	5	B41b	333	31.50	34.47	-2.966
26	1	B41b	580	20.00	40.72	-20.723
27	2	B41b	580	38.80	40.50	-1.702
28	3	B41b	580	77.70	50.26	27.439
29	4	B41b	580	58.50	52.67	5.833
30	5	B41b	580	33.80	44.65	-10.846
31	1	B41b	336	56.10	50.58	5.517
32	2	B41b	336	42.60	50.36	-7.762
33	3	B41b	336	79.00	60.12	18.879
34	4	B41b	336	54.80	62.53	-7.727
35	5	B41b	336	45.60	54.51	-8.906
36	1	B41b	7	21.80	17.50	4.297
37	2	B41b	7	17.70	17.28	0.418
38	3	B41b	7	27.90	27.04	0.859
39	4	B41b	7	19.20	29.45	-10.247
40	5	B41b	7	26.10	21.43	4.674
41	1	B616	336	19.10	36.72	-17.623
42	2	B616	336	40.20	36.50	3.698
43	3	B616	336	69.80	46.26	23.539
44	4	B616	336	45.50	48.67	-3.167
45	5	B616	336	34.20	40.65	-6.446
46	1	B616	7	0.70	-2.68	3.377
47	2	B616	7	2.30	-2.90	5.198
48	3	B616	7	5.40	6.86	-1.461
49	4	B616	7	2.20	9.27	-7.067
50	5	B616	7	1.20	1.25	-0.046
51	1	B616	580	6.60	17.62	-11.023
52	2	B616	580	4.80	17.40	-12.602
53	3	B616	580	34.60	27.16	7.439
54	4	B616	580	36.70	29.57	7.133
55	5	B616	580	30.60	21.55	9.054
56	1	B616	581	9.70	11.14	-1.443
57	2	B616	581	9.20	10.92	-1.722
58	3	B616	581	37.50	20.68	16.819
59	4	B616	581	15.20	23.09	-7.887
60	5	B616	581	9.30	15.07	-5.766

1	1	B616	347	4.40	17.31	-12.915
2	2	B616	347	46.90	17.09	29.806
3	3	B616	347	13.00	26.85	-13.853
4	4	B616	347	*	29.26	*
5	5	B616	347	18.20	21.24	-3.038
6	1	B616	333	2.30	13.62	-11.323
7	2	B616	333	49.30	13.40	35.898
8	3	B616	333	12.20	23.16	-10.961
9	4	B616	333	17.70	25.57	-7.867
10	5	B616	333	11.80	17.55	-5.746
11	1	NB616	333	5.20	8.44	-3.243
12	2	NB616	333	4.70	8.22	-3.522
13	3	NB616	333	8.20	17.98	-9.781
14	4	NB616	333	40.00	20.39	19.613
15	5	NB616	333	9.30	12.37	-3.066
16	1	NB616	347	6.70	10.38	-3.683
17	2	NB616	347	7.50	10.16	-2.662
18	3	NB616	347	8.10	19.92	-11.821
19	4	NB616	347	41.70	22.33	19.373
20	5	NB616	347	13.10	14.31	-1.206
21	1	NB616	580	6.70	11.34	-4.643
22	2	NB616	580	6.50	11.12	-4.622
23	3	NB616	580	25.80	20.88	4.919
24	4	NB616	580	21.20	23.29	-2.087
25	5	NB616	580	21.70	15.27	6.434
26	1	NB616	581	7.70	15.28	-7.583
27	2	NB616	581	8.30	15.06	-6.762
28	3	NB616	581	24.50	24.82	-0.321
29	4	NB616	581	30.50	27.23	3.273
30	5	NB616	581	30.60	19.21	11.394
31	1	NB616	7	1.20	8.10	-6.903
32	2	NB616	7	4.90	7.88	-2.982
33	3	NB616	7	4.30	17.64	-13.341
34	4	NB616	7	51.90	20.05	31.853
35	5	NB616	7	3.40	12.03	-8.626
36	1	NB616	336	34.90	29.84	5.057
37	2	NB616	336	26.00	29.62	-3.622
38	3	NB616	336	41.70	39.38	2.319
39	4	NB616	336	40.60	41.79	-1.187
40	5	NB616	336	31.20	33.77	-2.566
41	1	B31a	581	10.40	22.86	-12.463
42	2	B31a	581	42.40	22.64	19.758
43	3	B31a	581	27.70	32.40	-4.701
44	4	B31a	581	30.20	34.81	-4.607
45	5	B31a	581	28.80	26.79	2.014
46	1	B31a	347	5.40	7.42	-2.016
47	2	B31a	347	6.50	7.19	-0.695
48	3	B31a	347	12.20	16.95	-4.754
49	4	B31a	347	*	19.36	*
50	5	B31a	347	18.80	11.34	7.462
51	1	B31a	333	3.20	8.02	-4.823
52	2	B31a	333	17.80	7.80	9.998
53	3	B31a	333	8.00	17.56	-9.561
54	4	B31a	333	27.00	19.97	7.033
55	5	B31a	333	9.30	11.95	-2.646
56	1	B31a	580	1.50	13.52	-12.023
57	2	B31a	580	7.70	13.30	-5.602
58	3	B31a	580	34.10	23.06	11.039
59	4	B31a	580	29.00	25.47	3.533
60	5	B31a	580	20.50	17.45	3.054

1	1	B31a	336	25.50	29.60	-4.103
2	2	B31a	336	13.70	29.38	-15.682
3	3	B31a	336	47.90	39.14	8.759
4	4	B31a	336	44.60	41.55	3.053
5	5	B31a	336	41.50	33.53	7.974
6	1	B31a	7	1.30	-1.22	2.517
7	2	B31a	7	2.30	-1.44	3.738
8	3	B31a	7	4.80	8.32	-3.521
9	4	B31a	7	4.80	10.73	-5.927
10	5	B31a	7	5.90	2.71	3.194

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13 End of Nontokozo Kunene - TSC - Project no: P03000100. Current data space: 2 blocks, peak usage
14 99% at line 272.

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16 [Genstat 64-bit Release 18.2 \(PC/Windows 8\) 25 October 2017 12:03:53](#)

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18 Registered to: ARC

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1 **Appendix 6:** Composition of artificial media used in this study

2 ***Phytophthora* Selective Medium (PARPH)**

3 Potato Dextrose Agar as basal medium 1000 ml

4 Ampicillin 0.34 g

5 Rifampicin 0.02 g

6 Pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) 0.2 g

7 Pimaricin 0.08 g

8 Hymexazol 0.1 g

9 **Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA)**

10 Potato Dextrose Agar (Oxoid No.3) 39.0g

11 Distilled water 1000 ml