

Potential of *Tithonia diversifolia* Residue as a Sustainable Alternative for  
Inorganic Fertilizers to Improve Soil Fertility and Production of African  
Nightshade (*Solanum nigrum* L.)

**ABSTRACT**

Poor soil fertility is a major constraint for crop production that is corrected with fertilizers, but high fertilizer costs with environmental and human health concerns have necessitated alternative soil amendment strategies. Hence, *Tithonia* residue was assessed as a sustainable alternative resource to improve the fertility of volcanic soils for production of African nightshade. A field experiment was setup as randomized complete block design with four treatments (Control – No fertilizer, Urea, NPK and *Tithonia*) and four replications, to evaluate their impact on soils and the performance of *Solanum nigrum*. Soil available phosphorus ranged from 10.3–16.3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and differed significantly across treatments, with the highest in *Tithonia* and NPK treatments that differed significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) from urea and control. Compared to the baseline soil, residual soil phosphorus increased by 7.7% for *Tithonia*, but decreased by 1.7% for NPK, 27.7% for control, and 46.3% for urea. Yield of African nightshade ranged from 8.6–14.9 t ha<sup>-1</sup> fresh and 1.5–2.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> dry biomass across treatments, with the highest in NPK treatment that differed significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) from control. Both fresh and dry biomass yields correlated significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) with treatments and soil phosphorus. Plant height ranged from 24.6–33.2 cm and differed significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )

24 across treatments, with the highest in NPK that differed significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )  
25 from the other treatments. The number of leaves ranged from 80–117 per  
26 plant and differed significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) across treatments, with the highest  
27 in NPK that differed significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) from urea. Both Tithonia and  
28 inorganic fertilizers increased performance of *Solanum nigrum* compared to  
29 the control, but their comparable performance demonstrates the potential of  
30 Tithonia as a sustainable alternative resource for soil fertility management.

31  
32 **Keywords:** *African nightshade, Fertilizers, Leafy vegetables, Soil fertility,*  
33 *Sunflower.*

## 34 1. INTRODUCTION

35 Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) accounts for about 9% of the global population with  
36 40% under malnutrition [1]. Vegetables are the most affordable and  
37 accessible source of micronutrients, vitamins and health-promoting secondary  
38 metabolites [2,3]. Indigenous African leafy vegetables such as African  
39 nightshade (e.g. *Solanum scabrum*) are important for food and nutrition  
40 security, but the method of cultivation and processing influences their  
41 nutritional value and health-promoting potential [4]. However, poor and  
42 declining soil fertility resulting from continuous cultivation is a major constraint  
43 to crop production in SSA, with nitrogen and phosphorus as the most limiting  
44 elements [5,6]. This is exacerbated by low fertilizer inputs that result in low  
45 productivity with huge gaps of over 30% between actual production and the  
46 attainable potential [7,8]. Inorganic fertilizers are commonly used to improve  
47 soil fertility and plant nutrition, but their enduring use eventually damages the

48 soil [9,10]. According to The Economist [11], simply using more fertilizers to  
49 produce more food is not sustainable for the feeding of about nine billion  
50 people on earth by 2050. This requires gains from narrowing the yield gaps  
51 through sustainable cost-effective techniques [11]. Meanwhile, high cost of  
52 fertilizers and the need for resource conservation has led to renewed interest  
53 in alternative nutrient resources for soil fertility management [12].

54         Alternatively, organic inputs enhance soil organic matter and nutrients  
55 with improved soil structure, aeration, moisture holding capacity and  
56 infiltration [9,10,13]. Plant residues have demonstrated efficacy for use as  
57 mulch to improve soil health and foster sustainable development [14,15].  
58 However, reliance on plant residues for soil fertility management largely  
59 depends on the residue quality and availability. Mexican sunflower (*Tithonia*  
60 *diversifolia*) is abundant in Buea Cameroon and rich in essential elements,  
61 with demonstrated potential to improve soil fertility and tomato production [16].  
62 *Tithonia* residue possesses both fertilizer attributes and allelopathic or  
63 phytotoxic growth inhibiting qualities [17,18]. *Tithonia* has high biomass with  
64 nutrient contents of about 3.5% nitrogen, 0.4% phosphorus and 4.1%  
65 potassium [19,20]. *Tithonia* also contains low recalcitrant compounds with  
66 6.5% lignin and 1.6% polyphenol [21]. *Tithonia* demonstrated strong potential  
67 for soil rejuvenation and crop protection due to sesquiterpene lactones  
68 (tagitinins-terpene) and other antimicrobial substances against pests and  
69 diseases [20,22]. Hence, this study was conducted to assess the potential of  
70 *Tithonia* as a sustainable alternative for inorganic fertilizer to improve  
71 production of African nightshade on volcanic soils of Buea Cameroon. It was  
72 hypothesized that *Tithonia* residue will enhance soil status leading to a

73 greater performance of African nightshade as compared to the inorganic  
74 fertilizer amendments.

75

## 76 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 77 **2.1 Experimental site**

78 This experiment was conducted at the teaching and research farm of the  
79 Faculty of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, University of Buea. The site is  
80 located at Bulu Mile 16–Buea, situated between latitudes 4°3'N and 4°12'N  
81 and longitudes 9°12'E and 9°20'E. The soil is derived from weathered volcanic  
82 rocks dominated by silt, clay and sand [23,24]. Buea has mono-modal rainfall  
83 regime with less pronounced dry season and 86% relative humidity. The dry  
84 season starts from November to March, with mean annual rainfall of 2800 mm  
85 and monthly air temperature ranging from 19–30 °C. Soil temperature at 10  
86 cm depth decreases from 25–15 °C with increasing elevation from 200–2200  
87 m, respectively, above sea level [23,25,26].

88

### 89 **2.2 Experimental setup**

90 The experiment was conducted from April to August 2018, and layout as a  
91 randomized complete block design with four treatments each replicated four  
92 times, giving a total of 16 experimental plots measuring 4×4 m each. 1-m  
93 buffer zone the experimental plots from each other and surrounding areas.  
94 The four treatments used in this experiment were Control – No fertilizer, and  
95 three fertilizer amendments (Urea, NPK and Tithonia). Urea and NPK  
96 fertilizers are commonly used in this study area for cultivation of *Solanum*

97 *nigrum*, while *Tithonia diversifolia* (Mexican sunflower) was considered for use  
98 as cost-effective and environmentally friendly organic alternative to inorganic  
99 fertilizers. The field site was manually cleared using a cutlass and tilled at  
100 about 15 cm depth using a hoe.

101

## 102 **2.3 Crop cultivation**

103 Seeds of the traditional African leafy vegetable (African nightshade – *Solanum*  
104 *nigrum* L.) were purchased from the local market and pre-germinated on  
105 nursery beds before transplanting on the experimental plots. The nursery  
106 comprised three (1×10 m each) raised-beds produced by tilling at about 15  
107 cm depth using a hoe. 0.2 kg of MOCAP (active ingredient as Ethoprop: O-  
108 EthylmS, S-Dipropyl Phosphorodithioate; Amvac<sup>®</sup>, USA) was broadcasted on  
109 nursery plots to control nematodes and insect pests. *Solanum nigrum* seeds  
110 were planted at about 1 cm soil depth, covered lightly with soil and mulch.  
111 Depending on rainfall regime, the nursery was watered twice a day in the  
112 morning and evening for three weeks, starting on the day of sowing. After  
113 three weeks, watering was reduced to once a day or once in two days  
114 depending on the frequency of local rainfall. Vigorous *Solanum nigrum*  
115 seedlings were transplanted to the experimental plots after four weeks in the  
116 nursery. Seedlings were planted at 40×40 cm spacing between and within  
117 rows, giving a total of 81 plants on each experimental plot. The seedlings that  
118 did not survive after transplanting were immediately replaced with supplies  
119 from the nursery.

120

## 121    **2.4 Fertilizer amendments**

122    A total of 1.5 kg (0.5 kg per bed) inorganic fertilizer NPK 20:10:10 + CaO  
123    (ADER<sup>®</sup> Cameroon) was applied on the three nursery beds (83.3 t ha<sup>-1</sup>).  
124    Tithonia biomass was broadcasted on the respective plots two weeks before  
125    seedlings were transplanted. The inorganic urea and NPK 20:10:10 + CaO  
126    (ADER<sup>®</sup> Cameroon) fertilizers were broadcasted on respective plots after  
127    seedlings were transplanted. Both inorganic (Urea and NPK) and organic  
128    (Tithonia) amendments were applied at the rate of 312.5 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (e.g. 0.5 kg  
129    per plot). Urea and NPK fertilizers were purchased from a local agro-shop,  
130    while Tithonia biomass (leaves and stems) were harvested from roadsides  
131    within the university of Buea and sun-dried for two weeks.

132

## 133    **2.5 Crop protection**

134    The African nightshade seedlings were protected against nematodes and  
135    insect pests in the nursery by broadcasting a mixture of 2 kg wood ash and  
136    0.2 kg MOCAB (ingredient as Ethoprop: O-EthylmS, S-Dipropyl  
137    Phosphorodithioate; Amvac<sup>®</sup>, USA) while dry grass was used as mulch. The  
138    nursery plants were protected against snails with Mocid (active ingredient as  
139    Metaldehyde; SAVANA-Horizon Phyto Plus<sup>®</sup>, Cameroon) broadcasted thrice  
140    with 0.1 kg every two weeks (i.e. total of 0.3 kg). Meanwhile, a total of 1 kg  
141    Mocid was broadcasted four times to protect plants at experimental site  
142    against snails, with 0.25 kg every two weeks. For pest and disease control, 40  
143    ml K-Optimal (active ingredient Lambda-cyhalothrine 15g/l plus Acetamipride  
144    20g/l; SCPA SIVEX International<sup>®</sup>, France) was mixed in 16L water and  
145    applied on plants using a knapsack sprayer. This was performed on all

146 experimental plots one week after seedlings were transplanted. The  
147 experimental plots and alleys were regularly monitored for weed emergence  
148 and weeded manually using a hoe.

149

## 150 **2.6 Sampling and data collection**

151 One day after the experimental site was cleared, five soil sub-samples were  
152 collected at 0–15 cm depth in Z-form (using 3.5 cm diameter auger) and  
153 bulked to form a composite baseline sample. Sampling at crop maturity was  
154 conducted two days before the first crop harvest (64 and 50 days after  
155 application of Tithonia and inorganic fertilizers, respectively). Five sub-soil  
156 samples were randomly collected at 0–15 cm depth (using 3.5 cm diameter  
157 auger) and bulked together to form a composite sample for each experimental  
158 plot, giving a total of 16 soil samples. The soil samples were air-dried and  
159 sieved using a 2-mm sieve, and the soil particle size was determined using  
160 the pipette method with sodium hexametaphosphate as the dispersing agent  
161 [27]. Soil pH was determined potentiometrically in both water (H<sub>2</sub>O) and one  
162 molar potassium chloride (1 M KCl) solutions after 24 hours in soil suspension  
163 (soil/liquid = 1/2.5 w/v). Exchangeable bases were extracted with neutral  
164 ammonium acetate solution. Calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) were  
165 determined by atomic absorption spectrophotometry while potassium (K) and  
166 Sodium (Na) were determined by flame photometry [28]. Exchangeable  
167 acidity was determined by KCl extraction method [28]. Total nitrogen was  
168 determined by macrokjeldahl digestion method [29], while available  
169 phosphorus (P) was determined by Bray II method [28]. Soil organic carbon  
170 was determined by Walkley-Black method [30].

During the experimentation, five plants were randomly selected from each treatment replicate and tagged for assessment of growth parameters at three to five weeks after transplanting. Plant height (cm) was measured from the soil surface to the apical tip of the plant using a measuring tape. The number of fully developed leaves on the nodes of the main stem and the number of branches were visually observed and counted per plant. Plant girth was measured using a rope wrapped round the plant stem at 5 cm from the soil surface and the rope stretched on a 30 cm ruler to record the girth. Three manual harvests were conducted using a sharp knife every two weeks over four weeks to determine the cumulative yield of *S. nigrum*. Harvesting was done by cutting the main stem at about 6 cm from the soil surface and the primary branches were cut at about 3 cm from the main stem. The three harvests of *S. nigrum* were weighed using a top-loading balance and the data reported in tons per hectare fresh and dry (after oven-drying at 60 °C for 72 hours) weights.

## **2.7 Statistical analysis**

Data sets were subjected to statistical analyses using STATISTICA 9.1 for Windows [31]. Dependent variables as performance of *S. nigrum* (e.g. yield, plant height, stem girth, number of leaves or branches) were subjected to univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA,  $P < 0.05$ ) to test effects of treatments ( $n=4$ ) as categorical predictors. Significant data means were compared by Tukey's HSD ( $P < 0.05$ ). Where applicable, Spearman Rank Correlation ( $P < 0.05$ ) was performed to determine the degree of association between dependent variables and categorical predictors.



196

### 197 **3. RESULTS**

#### 198 **3.1 Influence of treatments on soil properties**

199 Soil texture at the experimental site before tillage and application of  
200 treatments indicates that is dominated by clay (47.19%), silt (44.44%) and  
201 sand (8.37%). The soil was highly acidic and ranged from 4.1–5.4, but soil pH  
202 was not affected by the different treatments (Table 1A,B). The content of soil  
203 available phosphorus differed (ANOVA:  $F_{3,15} = 21.17$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 1)  
204 significantly across treatments, ranging from 10.3–16.3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. The highest  
205 soil available phosphorus occurred in the Tithonia and NPK treatments, which  
206 differed (Turkey's HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 1) significantly from urea and control,  
207 but urea and control did not differ (Turkey's HSD,  $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. 1)  
208 significantly. The soil available phosphorus correlated significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )  
209 with the fresh ( $r = 0.67$ ) and dry yield ( $r = 0.75$ ) of African nightshade.  
210 Compared to the baseline soil phosphorus (Table 1A), the residual soil  
211 phosphorus (Fig. 1) increased by 7.7% for Tithonia plots, but decreased by  
212 1.7% for NPK, 27.7% for control and 46.3% for urea after treatments were  
213 applied (Fig. 2). Meanwhile, all the other soil parameters that were assessed  
214 (including macronutrients – nitrogen and potassium) did not differ significantly  
215 across treatments ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 1B).

216

#### 217 **3.2 Impact of treatments on performance of *Solanum nigrum***

218 The yield of African nightshade ranged from 8.6–14.9 t ha<sup>-1</sup> fresh biomass  
219 (Fig. 3a) and 1.5–2.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> dry biomass (Fig. 3b) across treatments. The fresh  
220 biomass yield differed (ANOVA:  $F_{3,14} = 4.53$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3a) significantly  
221 across treatments, with the highest in NPK treatment that differed (Turkey's  
222 HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ) significantly from the control. Similarly, the dry biomass yield  
223 differed (ANOVA:  $F_{3,14} = 4.34$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3b) significantly across  
224 treatments, with the highest in NPK treatment that differed (Turkey's HSD,  $P <$   
225 0.05) significantly from the control. Moreover, the fresh biomass yield  
226 correlated significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) with the treatments ( $r = 0.68$ ) and soil  
227 available phosphorus ( $r = 0.67$ ). Similarly, the dry biomass yield correlated  
228 significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) with the treatments ( $r = 0.72$ ) and soil available  
229 phosphorus ( $r = 0.75$ ).

230 The average plant height ranged from 24.6–33.2 cm and differed  
231 significantly (ANOVA:  $F_{3,15} = 7.77$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ; Table 2) across treatments, with  
232 the highest in NPK that differed (Turkey's HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ) significantly from  
233 the other treatments. The number of leaves ranged from 80–117 per plant that  
234 differed (ANOVA:  $F_{3,15} = 4.09$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; Table 2) significantly across  
235 treatments, with the highest in NPK that differed (Turkey's HSD,  $P < 0.05$ )  
236 significantly from the urea treatment. The number of branches ranged from  
237 11–15 per plant, but did not differ ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 2) significantly across  
238 treatments. The stem girth ranged from 1.4–2.1 cm per plant, but did not differ  
239 ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 2) significantly across treatments.

240

## 241 **4. DISCUSSION**

### 242 **4.1 Effect of treatments on soil properties**

243 According to the guidelines for tropical soils elaborated by Landon [32], high,  
244 medium and low soil contents correspond to >10, 4–10 and <4% for organic  
245 carbon; >0.5, 0.2–0.5 and <0.2% for total nitrogen; 10–15, 5–10 and 0–5  
246 cmol/kg for phosphorus; >0.4–0.8, 0.2–0.4 and <0.03–0.2 cmol/kg for  
247 potassium. Therefore, organic carbon and total nitrogen contents were low in  
248 this study, while phosphorus was high and potassium was medium [32].  
249 Meanwhile, the observed highly acidic soil pH corresponds to the standard  
250 tropical acid soil pH range [33]. Liasu et al. [34] reported high nutrient  
251 contents in Tithonia residue, but the ability to exert effects on soil fertility  
252 depends on the quantity of material used and the rate of decomposing and  
253 mineralization. Therefore, the low amount of Tithonia used did not adequately  
254 supply the essential nutrients as compared to Ngosong et al. [16] who  
255 reported an increase in soil fertility and tomato yield for Tithonia than NPK. In  
256 addition, Odhiambo [35] reported reduced nitrogen mineralization in high clay  
257 soils, which might have influenced the mineralization of Tithonia residue in the  
258 present study with high clay content of 47.19%. Ngosong et al. [16] reported  
259 0.55% phosphorus content in Tithonia residues from Buea, which means that  
260 by applying 312.5 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> Tithonia, the total phosphorus input was only 1.72  
261 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> as compared to the 78.13 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> phosphorus supplied by the 312.5 kg  
262 ha<sup>-1</sup> NPK fertilizer applied. This suggests that much of the phosphorus from  
263 NPK fertilizer was either leached or adsorbed by the highly acidic tropical soil  
264 [6]. The two highest peaks of phosphorus fixation occur in the acid range of  
265 pH 4 and 5.5, where phosphorus precipitates with iron and aluminium. Also

the clay fraction of the soil (47.19%) is likely to be the main site of phosphorus fixation. Lower phosphorus content observed in the control and urea treatment is likely due to high phosphorus sorption capacity of the highly acidic tropical soil in this study area with 47.19% clay composition, since clay particles were strongly correlated to phosphorus sorption [36]. The increased soil available phosphorus recorded for Tithonia compared to the other treatments might be as a result of increase in the labile pools of soil phosphorus by Tithonia [21]. Net phosphorus mineralization rate increased because of the concentration of phosphorus in residues in relation to critical levels required for mineralization of soil organic phosphorus to inorganic phosphorus [37–39]. The low phosphorus content in the control soil is likely due to high phosphorus sorption capacity of the tropical acidic soil in this study area with 47.2% clay composition, since clay particles were strongly correlated to phosphorus sorption [36]. Accordingly, the interaction of phosphorus sources and different soil types reportedly influenced phosphorus availability [40]. However no significant differences were observed in the other soil parameters in all the treatments.

#### **4.2 Impact of treatments on performance of African nightshade**

The low yield of African nightshade recorded in control demonstrates the lack of soil essential nutrients for optimum crop performance, while the highest yields in Tithonia and inorganic fertilizer treatments is likely due to enhanced nutrient supply that favoured plant growth and yield. The similarity in *Solanum nigrum* yield for Tithonia and inorganic fertilizers does not support the hypothesis of this study, which advocated greater performance for Tithonia

291 than inorganic fertilizers. However, the similarity in *Solanum nigrum* yield for  
292 Tithonia and inorganic fertilizers indicates strong potential of Tithonia as a  
293 sustainable alternative amendment for soil fertility management. The high  
294 yield recorded for Tithonia residue that is comparable to NPK treatment can  
295 be attributed to high nutrient status of Tithonia, fast decomposition and  
296 nutrient release [22,37]. In addition, Tithonia residue might have created a  
297 favourable soil environment with constant nutrient supply that probably  
298 favoured root growth and nutrient acquisition [41]. Moreover, application of  
299 higher amounts of Tithonia residues might have increased the performance of  
300 *Solanum nigrum* more than the inorganic fertilizers as reported by other  
301 studies [16,42]. Hence, similarity in *Solanum nigrum* yield for Tithonia and  
302 inorganic fertilizers compared to higher performance of Tithonia reported by  
303 other studies is likely because of the lower amount of Tithonia residue used in  
304 this study [16,42]. Meanwhile, the release of readily available and balanced  
305 macronutrients in the NPK fertilizer likely stimulated the growth and yield of  
306 *Solanum nigrum* [43]. Overall, the observed yield is consistent with the report  
307 of Yengoh [44] that nutrient inputs and farm management are important  
308 determinants of yield differences in small-scale food crop farming systems in  
309 Cameroon.

310

## 311 **5. CONCLUSION**

312 Tithonia and inorganic fertilizers increased the performance of *Solanum*  
313 *nigrum* as compared to the control. The comparable performance of Tithonia  
314 and inorganic fertilizers demonstrate the potential of Tithonia as a sustainable  
315 alternative for inorganic fertilizers to improve the fertility of volcanic soils and

316 enhance the production of *Solanum nigrum*. The results strongly indicate the  
317 need for fertilizer inputs to improve soil fertility, which highlights the need for  
318 cost-effective and sustainable alternative resources in arable systems.

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- 454

455 Table 1. A – Baseline soil properties of the experimental site before tillage and  
 456 application of treatments. B – Effect of treatments (Control – No fertilizer,  
 457 Urea, NPK and Tithonia) on soil properties at crop harvest (Mean  $\pm$  SD).

<b>A</b>													
	Moisture [%]	Organic carbon [%]	Total nitrogen [%]	C/N	pH(H <sub>2</sub> O)	pH(KCl)	Sodium [cmol/kg]	Potassium [cmol/kg]	Magnesium [cmol/kg]	Calcium [cmol/kg]	Aluminium [cmol/kg]	ECEC [cmol/kg]	Available phosphorus [mg/kg]
Baseline soil	9.5	2.0	0.14	14.0	5.4	4.5	0.33	0.22	1.5	4.0	0.32	6.4	15.0

<b>B</b>													
Treatments	Moisture [%]	Organic carbon [%]	Total nitrogen [%]	C/N	pH(H <sub>2</sub> O)	pH(KCl)	Sodium [cmol/kg]	Potassium [cmol/kg]	Magnesium [cmol/kg]	Calcium [cmol/kg]	Aluminium [cmol/kg]	ECEC [cmol/kg]	
Control	17.2 $\pm$ 1.8a	2.5 $\pm$ 0.3a	0.14 $\pm$ 0.02a	18.3 $\pm$ 3.8a	4.9 $\pm$ 0.5a	4.4 $\pm$ 0.2a	0.19 $\pm$ 0.11a	0.52 $\pm$ 0.22a	1.6 $\pm$ 0.5a	4.5 $\pm$ 1.0a	0.56 $\pm$ 0.37a	7.3 $\pm$ 1.2a	
Urea	16.3 $\pm$ 1.8a	2.8 $\pm$ 0.4a	0.13 $\pm$ 0.02a	22.3 $\pm$ 4.8a	4.5 $\pm$ 0.2a	4.1 $\pm$ 0.1a	0.11 $\pm$ 0.11a	0.30 $\pm$ 0.13a	1.4 $\pm$ 0.3a	3.4 $\pm$ 1.4a	1.13 $\pm$ 0.47a	6.3 $\pm$ 1.5a	
NPK	16.4 $\pm$ 1.3a	2.4 $\pm$ 0.2a	0.14 $\pm$ 0.01a	17.3 $\pm$ 4.1a	4.6 $\pm$ 0.3a	4.2 $\pm$ 0.1a	0.21 $\pm$ 0.12a	0.49 $\pm$ 0.13a	1.9 $\pm$ 0.9a	4.7 $\pm$ 1.3a	0.92 $\pm$ 0.51a	8.3 $\pm$ 1.6a	
Tithonia	15.5 $\pm$ 0.5a	2.4 $\pm$ 0.3a	0.16 $\pm$ 0.01a	15.0 $\pm$ 2.7a	4.8 $\pm$ 0.4a	4.3 $\pm$ 0.1a	0.23 $\pm$ 0.14a	0.36 $\pm$ 0.10a	1.7 $\pm$ 0.6a	4.7 $\pm$ 1.1a	0.71 $\pm$ 0.39a	7.8 $\pm$ 1.2a	

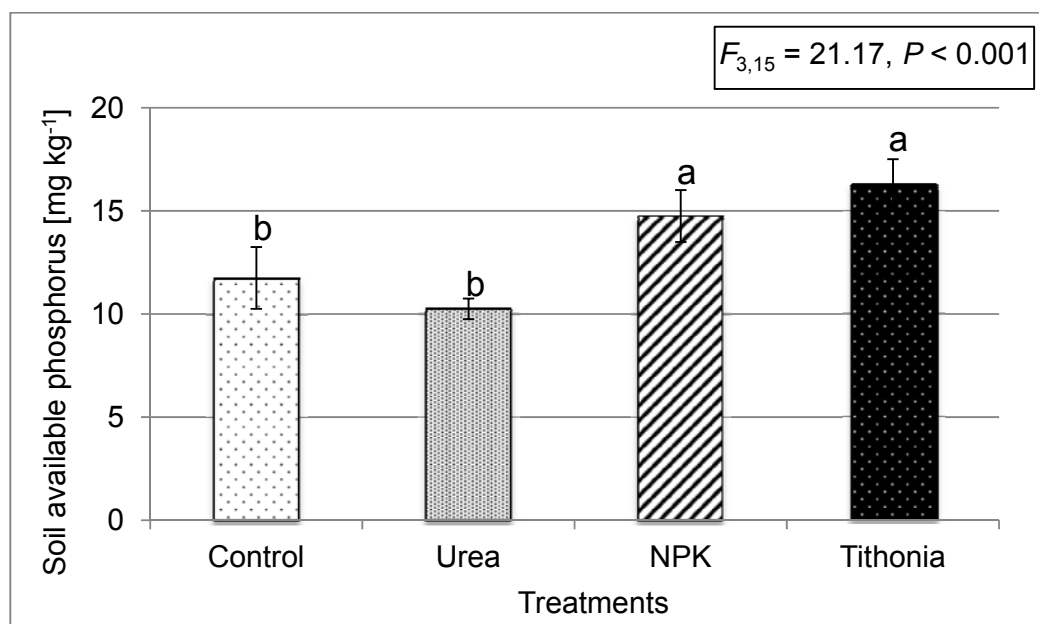
459 Values within columns with the same letters are not significantly different  
 460 (Tukey's HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ).

461

462 Table 2. Effect of treatments (Control – No fertilizer, Urea, NPK and Tithonia)  
 463 on the growth parameters of African nightshade (Mean  $\pm$  SD).

Treatments	Plant girth [cm]	Plant height [cm]	Number of leaves	Number of branches
Control	1.8 $\pm$ 0.3a	27.6 $\pm$ 0.7b	90 $\pm$ 12ab	12 $\pm$ 1a
Urea	1.4 $\pm$ 0.3a	24.6 $\pm$ 2.4b	80 $\pm$ 12b	11 $\pm$ 3a
NPK	2.1 $\pm$ 0.5a	33.2 $\pm$ 2.2a	117 $\pm$ 21a	15 $\pm$ 4a
Tithonia	1.9 $\pm$ 0.2a	26.6 $\pm$ 4.1b	83 $\pm$ 20ab	13 $\pm$ 4a

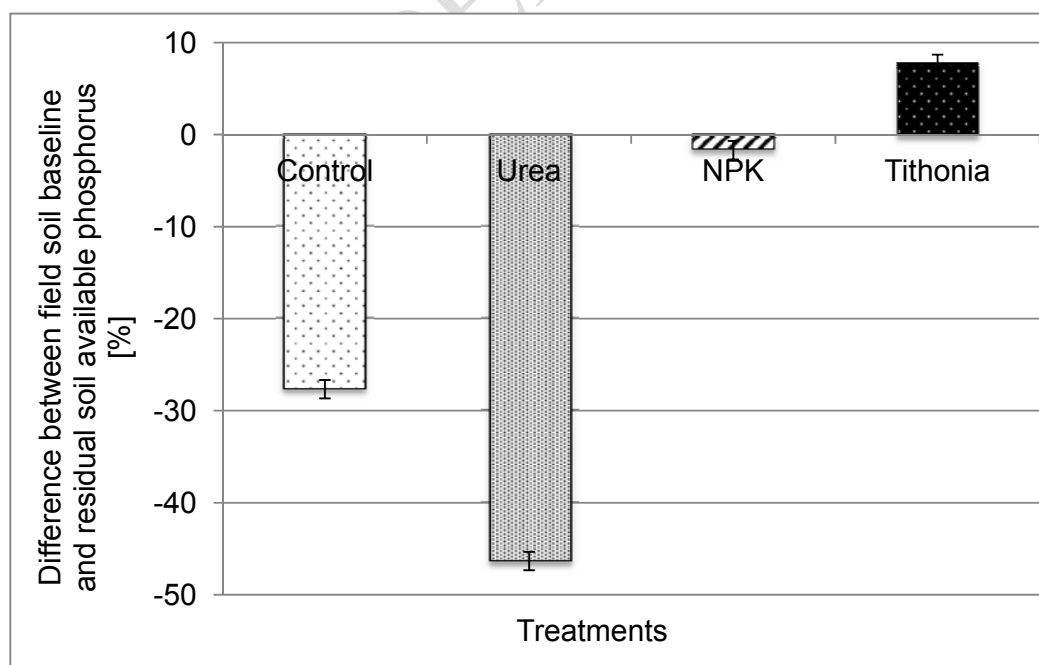
465 Values within columns with different letters are significantly different (Tukey's  
 466 HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ).



467

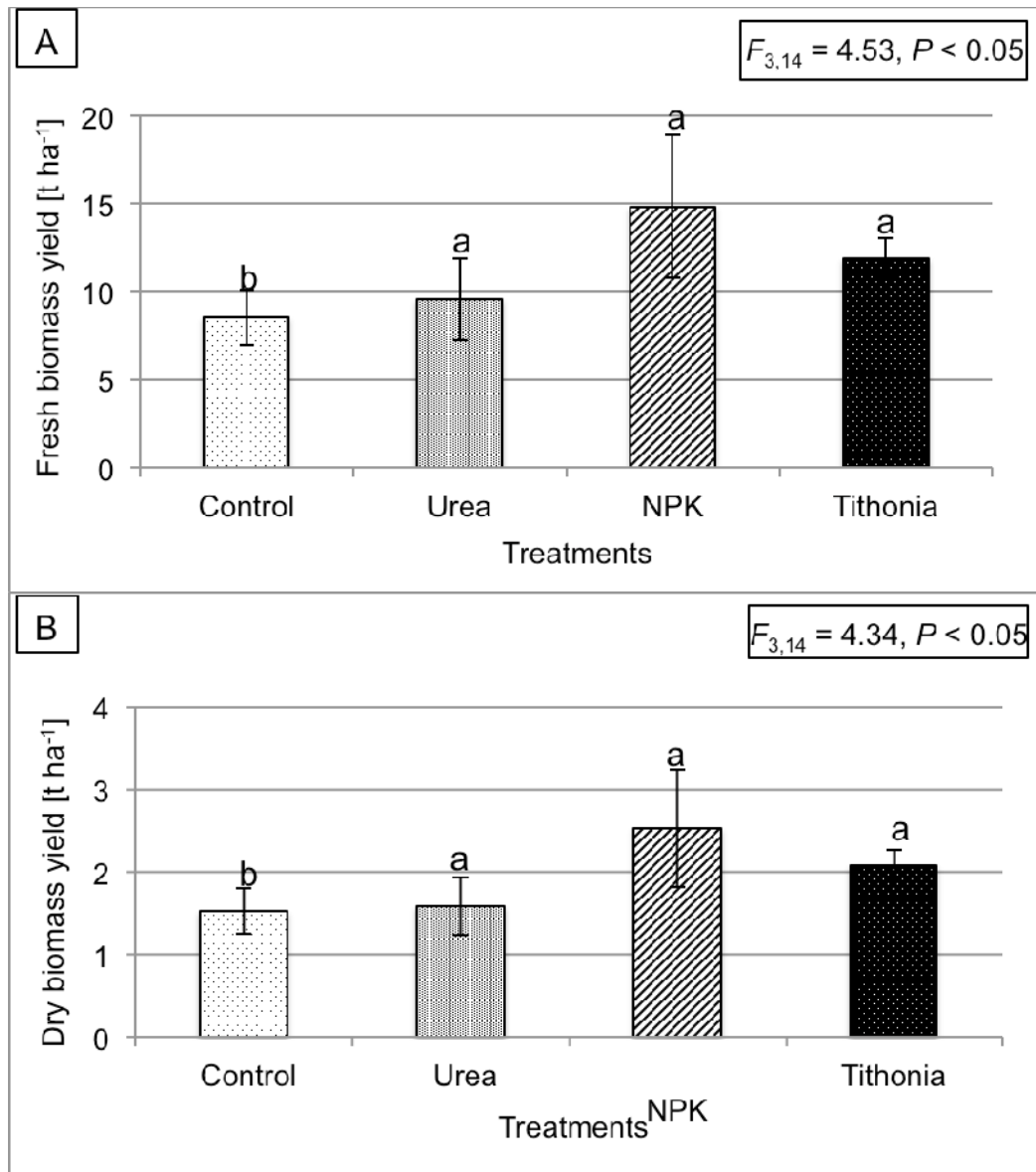
468 **Fig. 1** Effect of treatments (Control – No fertilizer, Urea, NPK and Tithonia) on  
 469 soil available phosphorus (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, Mean ± SD). Values with different letters  
 470 are significantly different (Tukey's HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ).

471



472

473 **Fig. 2** Percentage [%] difference (increase or decrease) between field soil  
 474 baseline and residual soil available phosphorus after treatments.



475

476

477 **Fig. 3** Impact of treatments (Control – No fertilizer, Urea, NPK and Tithonia)  
 478 on the biomass yield of African nightshade (t ha<sup>-1</sup>, Mean ± SD); A – Fresh  
 479 biomass, B – Dry biomass. Values with different letters are significantly  
 480 different (Tukey's HSD,  $P < 0.05$ ).