- 1 Potential of *Tithonia diversifolia* Biomass as Alternative for Inorganic Fertilizer
- 2 to Improve Production of African Nightshade (Solanum nigrum L.)
- 3
- 4 Christopher Ngosong^{1*}, Cliford M. Njobe¹, Clovis B. Tanyi¹, Lawrence T.
 5 Nanganoa², Aaron S. Tening¹
- 6
- 7 ¹Department of Agronomic and Applied Molecular Sciences, Faculty of
- 8 Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, University of Buea, P.O.Box 63 Buea,
- 9 South West Region, Cameroon.
- ¹⁰ ²Institute of Agricultural Research for Development (IRAD), Ekona, P.M.B 25,
- 11 Buea, South West Region, Cameroon.
- 12
- 13 *Corresponding author: ngosongk@yahoo.com;
- 14 Type of article: Original research paper
- 15 Date prepared: 6th December 2018
- 16
- 17
- 18
- 19 Authors' contributions

20	This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors. CMJ, CN and
21	AST designed the experiment. CMJ established the experiment and collected
22	data. LTN and AST conducted soil analysis. CMJ, CBT and CN processed
23	data performed statistics. CN wrote the first manuscript draft. All authors read
24	and approved the final manuscript.
25	
26	
27	
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	
34	
35	
36	ABSTRACT

Poor soil fertility is a major constraint for crop production that is commonly
 corrected with inorganic fertilizers, but their high cost or environmental and

39 health effects have necessitated alternative management strategies. Hence, 40 the biomass of Mexican sunflower (Tithonia diversifolia) was evaluated as a 41 sustainable alternative resource to improve soil fertility and production of 42 African nightshade (Solanum nigrum L.) A field experiment was laid out as 43 randomized complete block design with four treatments (Control – no fertilizer, 44 urea, NPK and Tithonia) and four replications. Soil available phosphorus 45 ranged from 10.3–16.3 mg kg⁻¹ and differed significantly (P < 0.05) across 46 treatments, with the highest in *Tithonia* and NPK as compared to urea and 47 control. In comparison to the baseline soil, residual soil phosphorus increased 48 by 7.7% for Tithonia, but decreased by 1.7% for NPK, 27.7% for control, and 49 46.3% for urea. The yield of African nightshade correlated significantly (P <50 0.05) with the content of soil available phosphorus, and ranged from 8.6-14.9 t ha⁻¹ fresh and 1.5–2.5 t ha⁻¹ dry biomass that differed significantly (P < 0.05) 51 52 across treatments, with the highest in NPK as compared to control. Plant 53 height ranged from 24.6–33.2 cm and differed significantly (P < 0.05) across treatments, with the highest in NPK. The number of leaves ranged from 80-54 55 117 per plant and differed significantly (P < 0.05) across treatments, with the highest in NPK as compared to urea. *Tithonia* and fertilizers increased yield 56 57 comparatively, which demonstrates the potential of *Tithonia* biomass as a 58 sustainable alternative resource for soil fertility management.

59 *Keywords:* Fertility, leafy vegetables, NPK, sunflower, urea.

60 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) accounts for about 9% of the global population with
40% under malnutrition [1]. Vegetables are considered as the most affordable

63 and accessible source of micronutrients, vitamins and health-promoting 64 secondary metabolites [2,3]. Indigenous African leafy vegetables such as 65 African nightshade (Solanum spp.) are important for food and nutrition security, but the method of cultivation and processing influences their 66 67 nutritional value and health-promoting potential [4]. However, poor and soil 68 fertility resulting from continuous crop cultivation is one of the main constraints 69 of crop production in SSA, with nitrogen and phosphorus as the most limiting 70 elements [5,6]. This is exacerbated by low fertilizer inputs that result in low 71 productivity with huge gaps of over 30% between actual production and the 72 attainable potential [7,8]. SSA accounts for only 0.1% of global mineral 73 fertilizer production and 1.8% of global mineral fertilizer use, which is less 74 than 10 kg ha⁻¹ fertilizer use compared to 87 kg ha⁻¹ for some developed 75 nations [9]. Inorganic fertilizers are commonly used to improve soil fertility and 76 plant nutrition, but their enduring use eventually damages the soil [10,11]. 77 According to The Economist [12], simply using more fertilizers to produce 78 more food is not sustainable for the feeding of about nine billion people on 79 earth by 2050. This requires gains from narrowing the yield gaps through sustainable cost-effective techniques [12]. Meanwhile, high cost of fertilizers 80 81 and the need for resource conservation has led to renewed interest in 82 alternative nutrient resources for soil fertility management.

Alternatively, organic inputs enhance soil organic matter and nutrients with improved soil structure, aeration, water holding capacity and infiltration [10,11,13]. Plant biomasses have demonstrated efficacy as mulch to improve soil health and foster sustainable development [14,15]. However, reliance on plant biomass for soil fertility management largely depends on the guality and

88 availability. Tithonia diversifolia (Hemsley) is abundant in Buea Cameroon and 89 rich in essential elements, with demonstrated potential to improve soil fertility 90 and tomato production [16]. Tithonia biomass possesses both fertilizer 91 attributes and allelopathic or phytotoxic growth inhibiting qualities [17,18]. 92 *Tithonia* has high biomass with nutrient contents of about 3.5% nitrogen, 0.4% 93 phosphorus and 4.1% potassium [19,20]. *Tithonia* also contains low 94 recalcitrant compounds with 6.5% lignin and 1.6% polyphenol [21]. Tithonia 95 demonstrated strong potential for soil rejuvenation and crop protection due to 96 sesquiterpene lactones (tagitinins-terpene) and other antimicrobial 97 substances against pests and diseases [20,22]. Hence, this study was 98 conducted to evaluate the potential of *Tithonia* as a sustainable alternative for 99 inorganic fertilizer to improve soil fertility and performance of African 100 nightshade Solanum nigrum L. (Solanaceae). It was hypothesized that 101 *Tithonia* biomass will enhance soil fertility and yield of African nightshade as 102 compared to inorganic fertilizers.

103

104 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

105 **2.1 Experimental site and setup**

This experiment was conducted from April–August 2018 at the research and teaching farm of the Faculty of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, University of Buea. The site is located at Bulu Mile 16–Buea between latitudes 4°3'N and 4°12'N and longitudes 9°12'E and 9°20'E. The soil is derived from weathered volcanic rocks dominated by silt, clay and sand [23,24]. Buea has monomodal rainfall regime with less pronounced dry season and 86% relative humidity. The dry season starts from November to March, with mean annual rainfall of 2800 mm and monthly air temperature ranging from 19–30 °C. Soil
temperature at 10 cm depth decreases from 25–15 °C with increasing
elevation from 200–2200 m, respectively, above sea level [23,25,26].

116 The experiment was laid out as a randomized complete block design 117 with four treatments each replicated four times, giving a total of 16 118 experimental plots measuring 4×4 m each. The experimental plots and 119 surrounding areas were separated from each other by 1 m buffer zone. This 120 experiment comprised four treatments including a control – no fertilizer, two 121 inorganic (urea and NPK) and organic (Tithonia diversifolia – Mexican 122 sunflower) fertilizers. Both urea and NPK fertilizers are commonly used in 123 vegetable production systems, while *Tithonia* biomass was used as a cost-124 effective and environmentally friendly alternative. The field site was manually 125 cleared using a cutlass and tilled at about 30 cm depth using a hoe.

126

127 **2.2 Crop cultivation**

128 Seeds of the African nightshade leafy vegetable (Solanum nigrum L.) were 129 purchased from an agro-shop and pre-germinated on nursery beds before 130 they were transplanted on the experimental plots. The nursery comprised 131 three (1×10 m each) raised-beds produced by tilling at about 30 cm depth 132 using a hoe. The African nightshade seeds were planted at about 1 cm soil 133 depth and covered lightly with soil and dry grass mulch. Depending on rainfall 134 regime, the nursery was manually irrigated twice a day (morning and 135 evening), starting on the day of sowing. After three weeks, irrigation was 136 reduced to once a day or after two days depending on the frequency of 137 rainfall. Vigorous African nightshade seedlings of approximately same sizes

were transplanted to experimental plots after four weeks in the nursery. The seedlings were planted at 40×40 cm spacing between and within rows, giving a total of 81 plants per plot. Seedlings that did not survive after transplanting were immediately replaced with supplies from the nursery in order to maintain uniform field capacity.

143

144 **2.3 Fertilizer resources and crop protection**

A total of 1.5 kg inorganic fertilizer NPK 20:10:10 + CaO (ADER[®] Cameroon) 145 was applied on the 30 m^2 nursery beds. *Tithonia* biomass (leaves and stems) 146 147 were harvested from roadsides within the university of Buea and sun-dried for 148 two weeks, and spread on respective plots two weeks before African 149 nightshade seedlings were transplanted. The inorganic urea and NPK 20:10:10 + CaO (ADER[®] Cameroon) fertilizers were purchased from a local 150 151 agro-shop and broadcasted on respective plots after African nightshade 152 seedlings were transplanted. Both inorganic (urea and NPK) and organic 153 (*Tithonia*) amendments were applied at the rate of 312.5 kg ha⁻¹.

154 A mixture of 2 kg wood ash and 0.2 kg MOCAB (ingredient as ethoprop: o-ethylms, s-dipropyl phosphorodithioate; Amvac[®], USA) was 155 156 spread in the nursery to protect African nightshade seedlings against insect 157 pests. MOCID (active ingredient as metaldehyde; SAVANA-Horizon Phyto Plus[®], Cameroon) was broadcast in the nursery (total of 0.3 kg at the rate of 158 159 0.1 kg every two weeks) and experimental site (total of 1 kg at the rate of 0.25 160 kg every two weeks) for protection against snails. For control of insect pests 161 and diseases, 40 ml K-Optimal (active ingredient lambda-cyhalothrine 15g/l plus acetamipride 20g/I; SCPA SIVEX International[®], France) was mixed in 162

163 16L water and a knapsack sprayer was used to spray plants one week after
 164 seedlings were transplanted. Experimental plots and alleys were regularly
 165 monitored for weed emergence and weeded manually using a hoe.

166

167 **2.4 Sampling and data collection**

168 One day after the experimental site was cleared, five soil sub-samples were 169 collected at 0–15 cm depth in randomized distribution (Z-form) using 3.5 cm 170 diameter auger and bulked to form a composite baseline sample. Sampling at 171 crop maturity was conducted two days before the first crop harvest (64 and 50 172 days after application of *Tithonia* and inorganic fertilizers, respectively). Five 173 sub-soil samples were randomly collected at 0-15 cm depth (using 3.5 cm 174 diameter auger) and bulked together to form a composite sample for each 175 experimental plot, giving a total of 16 soil samples. The soil samples were air-176 dried and sieved using a 2-mm sieve, and the soil particle size was 177 determined using the pipette method with sodium hexametaphosphate as the 178 dispersing agent [27]. Soil pH was determined potentiometrically in both water 179 (H₂O) and one molar potassium chloride (1 M KCl) solutions after 24 hours in 180 soil suspension (soil/liquid = 1/2.5 w/v). Exchangeable bases were extracted 181 with neutral ammonium acetate solution. Calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) 182 were determined by atomic absorption spectrophotometry while potassium (K) 183 and Sodium (Na) were determined by flame photometry [28]. Exchangeable 184 acidity was determined by KCI extraction method [28]. Total nitrogen was 185 determined by macrokjeldahl digestion method [29], while available 186 phosphorus (P) was determined by Bray II method [28]. Soil organic carbon 187 was determined by Walkley-Black method [30].

188 During the experimentation, five plants were randomly selected from 189 each treatment replicate and tagged for assessment of growth parameters at 190 three to five weeks after transplanting. Plant height (cm) was measured from 191 the soil surface to the apical tip of the plant using a measuring tape. The 192 number of fully developed leaves on the nodes of the main stem and the 193 number of branches were visually observed and counted per plant. Stem girth 194 was measured with a vernier calliper at 5 cm from soil surface to the nearest 195 cm. Three manual harvests were conducted using a sharp knife every two 196 weeks over four weeks to determine the cumulative vield. Plants were 197 harvested by cutting the main stem at 6 cm from soil surface, and primary 198 branches cut at 3 cm from the main stem and considered as marketable yield. 199 The three harvests of African nightshade were weighed using a top-loading 200 balance and the data reported in tons per hectare fresh and dry (after ovendrying at 60 ^oC for 72 hours) weights. 201

202

203 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

204 Data sets were subjected to statistical analyses using STATISTICA 9.1 for 205 Windows [31]. Dependent variables as performance of African nightshade 206 (yield, plant height, stem girth, number of leaves or branches) were subjected 207 to univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA, P < 0.05) to test effects of 208 treatments (n=4) as categorical predictors. Significant data means were compared by Tukey's HSD (P < 0.05). Where applicable, Spearman Rank 209 210 Correlation (P < 0.05) was performed to determine the degree of association 211 between dependent variables and categorical predictors.

213 **3. RESULTS**

3.1 Influence of treatments on soil properties

215 Soil texture at the experimental site before application of treatments indicated 216 that the site is dominated by clay (47.19%), silt (44.44%) and sand (8.37%). 217 The soil was highly acidic and ranged from 4.1-5.4, but soil pH was not 218 affected by the different treatments (Table 1A,B). The content of soil available phosphorus differed significantly (ANOVA: $F_{3,15}$ = 21.17, P < 0.001; Fig. 1) 219 across treatments, ranging from 10.3–16.3 mg kg⁻¹. The highest soil available 220 221 phosphorus occurred in the Tithonia and NPK treatments, which differed 222 significantly (P < 0.05; Fig. 1) from urea and control, but urea and control did 223 not differ significantly (P > 0.05; Fig. 1). Compared to the baseline soil 224 phosphorus (Table 1A), the residual soil phosphorus (Fig. 1) increased by 225 7.7% for Tithonia plots, but decreased by 1.7% for NPK, 27.7% for control and 226 46.3% for urea after treatments were applied (Fig. 2).

227

3.2 Impact of treatments on yield and vegetative parameters

The yield of African nightshade ranged from 8.6–14.9 t ha⁻¹ fresh biomass (Fig. 3a) and 1.5–2.5 t ha⁻¹ dry biomass (Fig. 3b) across treatments. Fresh biomass yield differed significantly (ANOVA: $F_{3,14} = 4.53$, P < 0.05; Fig. 3a) across treatments, with the highest in NPK as compared to the control. Similarly, dry biomass yield differed significantly (ANOVA: $F_{3,14} = 4.34$, P < 0.05; Fig. 3b) across treatments, with the highest in NPK as compared to the

235	control. The content of soil available phosphorus influenced the yield of
236	African nightshade as demonstrated by the significant ($P < 0.05$) positive
237	correlation of fresh ($r = 0.67$) and dry ($r = 0.75$) biomass yield with soil
238	phosphorus. The plant height ranged from 24.6-33.2 cm and differed
239	significantly (ANOVA: $F_{3,15}$ = 7.77, $P < 0.01$; Table 2) across treatments, with
240	the highest in NPK as compared to the other treatments. The number of
241	leaves ranged from 80–117 per plant and differed significantly (ANOVA: $F_{3,15}$
242	= 4.09, P < 0.05; Table 2) across treatments, with the highest in NPK as
243	compared to urea. The stem girth ranged from 1.4–2.1 cm per plant while the
244	number of branches ranged from 11–15 per plant across treatments, but did
245	not differ <mark>(<i>P</i> > 0.05; Table 2)</mark> .

246

247 **4. DISCUSSION**

248 **4.1 Effect of treatments on soil properties**

249 According to the guidelines for tropical soils elaborated by Landon [32], high, 250 medium and low soil contents correspond to >10, 4-10 and <4% for organic 251 carbon; >0.5, 0.2-0.5 and <0.2% for total nitrogen; 10-15, 5-10 and 0-5 252 cmol/kg for phosphorus; >0.4-0.8, 0.2-0.4 and <0.03-0.2 cmol/kg for 253 potassium. Therefore, organic carbon and total nitrogen contents were low in 254 this study, while phosphorus was high and potassium was medium [32]. 255 Meanwhile, the observed highly acidic soil pH corresponds to the standard 256 tropical acid soil pH range [33]. Liasu et al. [34] reported high nutrient contents in Tithonia biomass, but the ability to exert effects on soil fertility 257 258 depends on the quantity of material used and the rate of decomposing and

259 mineralization. Therefore, the low amount of *Tithonia* used did not adequately 260 supply the essential nutrients as compared to Ngosong et al. [16] who 261 reported an increase in soil fertility and tomato yield for *Tithonia* than NPK. In 262 addition, Odhiambo [35] reported reduced nitrogen mineralization in high clay 263 soils, which might have influenced the mineralization of *Tithonia* biomass in 264 the present study with high clay content of 47.19%. Ngosong et al. [16] 265 reported 0.55% phosphorus content in *Tithonia* biomass from Buea, which means that by applying 312.5 kg ha⁻¹ *Tithonia*, the total phosphorus input was 266 only 1.72 kg ha⁻¹ as compared to the 78.13 kg ha⁻¹ phosphorus supplied by 267 268 the 312.5 kg ha⁻¹ NPK fertilizer applied. This suggests that much of the 269 phosphorus from NPK fertilizer was either leached or adsorbed by the highly 270 acidic tropical soil [6]. The two highest peaks of phosphorus fixation occur in 271 the acid range of pH 4 and 5.5, where phosphorus precipitates with iron and 272 aluminium. Also the clay fraction of the soil (47.19%) is likely to be the main 273 site of phosphorus fixation. Low phosphorus content observed in control and 274 urea treatments is likely due to high P-sorption capacity of the highly acidic 275 tropical soil in this study area with 47.19% clay composition, since clay 276 particles correlate strongly with P-sorption [36]. The high soil available 277 phosphorus recorded for *Tithonia* treatment might be due to increase in labile 278 pools of soil phosphorus [21]. Net phosphorus mineralization likely increased 279 because of the concentration of phosphorus in the biomass, in relation to the 280 critical P-levels required for mineralization of soil organic-P to inorganic-P 281 [37–39]. Accordingly, the interaction of phosphorus sources and different soil 282 types reportedly influenced the availability of soil phosphorus [40]. However,

- this result does not support the hypothesis and *Tithonia* and NPK recorded
 similar contents of soil available phosphorus.
- 285

4.2 Impact of treatments on crop yield

287 The low yield recorded in control demonstrates lack of essential soil nutrients, 288 while the high yield recorded for *Tithonia* and inorganic fertilizers reflects high 289 nutrient supply that favoured plant growth. However, the similarity in yield for 290 *Tithonia* and inorganic fertilizers does not support the hypothesis of this study 291 that advocated greater yield for *Tithonia*. Nonetheless, the similarity in yield 292 for 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* biomass 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, the *Tithonia* biomass might have created 297 a favourable soil environment that probably enhanced root growth and 298 nutrient acquisition [41]. Moreover, the application of higher amounts of 299 Tithonia biomass might have increased crop growth more than the inorganic 300 fertilizers [16,42]. Hence, the similarity in yield for *Tithonia* and inorganic 301 fertilizers compared to higher performance of *Tithonia* reported by other 302 studies is likely because of the low amount of *Tithonia* biomass used in this 303 study [16,42]. Meanwhile, the release of readily available and balanced 304 macronutrients in the NPK fertilizer probably stimulated the crop growth and 305 yield [43]. Overall, the observed yield is consistent with the report of Yengoh 306 [44] that nutrient inputs and farm management are important determinants of 307 yield differences in small-scale food crop farming systems in Cameroon.

308

309 **5. CONCLUSION**

Tithonia and inorganic fertilizers increased the growth and yield of African nightshade as compared to the control. However, the comparable crop yield for *Tithonia* and inorganic fertilizers demonstrate the potential of *Tithonia* as a sustainable alternative for inorganic fertilizers to improve soil fertility and crop production. The results highlight the importance of fertilizers to improve soil fertility and vegetable production, which emphasizes the need for more costeffective and sustainable alternative resources for soil fertility management.

317

318 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful for Research Grants from the Ministry of Higher Education – MINESUP, and Faculty of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, University of Buea, Cameroon. We extend gratitude to Chin Raman, Nfor Ivor, Eboh Kizito, Agbor David and Ndakwe Abigail, of the University of Buea, for assistance in field management and sampling.

324

325 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

326 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

327

328 **REFERENCES**

329 1. Biesalski HK. Hidden hunger. Springer-Verlag. 2013;245.

330 2. Thomson B, Amoroso L. Combating micronutrient Deficiencies: Food331 Based Approaches. CAB International and FAO. 2011.

332 3. Grubben G, Klaver W, Nono-Womdim R, Everaarts A, Fondio L, Nugteren
333 JA, Corrado M. Vegetables to combat the hidden hunger in Africa. Chronica
334 Horticulture. 2014;54:24-32.

4. Odongo GA, Schlotz N, Baldermann S, Neugart S, Huyskens-Keil S,
Ngwene B, Trierweiler B, Schreiner M, Lamy E. African nightshade (*Solanum scabrum* Mill.): Impact of cultivation and plant processing on its health
promoting potential as determined in a human liver cell model. Nutrients.
2018;10:1532.

5. Kadiata BD, Lumpungu K. Differential phosphorus uptake and use
efficiency among selected nitrogen-fixing tree legumes over time. Journal of
Plant Nutrition. 2003;26:1009-1022.

343 6. Tening AS, Foba-Tendo JN, Yakum-Ntaw SY, Tchuenteu F. Phosphorus
344 fixing capacity of a volcanic soil on the slope of mount Cameroon. Agriculture
345 and Biology Journal of North America. 2013;4:166-174.

346 7. Sanchez P, Jama B. Soil fertility replenishment takes off in east and
347 southern Africa. p. 23-46. In B. Vanlauwe, J. Diels, N. Sanginga, and R.
348 Merckx (ed.) Integrated plant nutrient management in sub-Saharan Africa:
349 From concept to practice, CABI, Wallingford, UK.2002.

8. Bekunda B, Sanginga N, Woomer PL. Restoring soil fertility in Sub-Sahara
Africa. Advances in Agronomy. 2010;108:184-236.

352 9. Bationo A, Hartemink A, Lungu O, Naimi M, Okoth P, Smaling E,
353 Thiombiano L. African soils: Their productivity and profitability of fertilizer use.

354 In: Proceedings of the African fertilizer summit. June 9-13, Abuja, Nigeria.

355 <mark>2006;29.</mark>

Thy S, Buntha P. Evaluation of fertilizer of fresh solid manure, composted
manure or biodigester effluent for growing Chinese cabbage (Brassica
pekinen-sis). Livestock Reserves and Rural Development. 2005;17:149-154.

Albiach R, Canet R, Pomares F, Ingelmo F. Microbial biomass content
and enzymatic activities after the application of organic amendments to a
horticultural soil. Bioresearch Technology. 2000;75:43-48.

362 12. The Economist. The 9 billion-people question. A special report on feeding
363 the world. 2011;February 26.

364 13. Wang F, Wang Z, Kou C, Ma Z, Zhao D. Responses of wheat yield,
365 macro- and micro-nutrients, and heavy metals in soil and wheat following the
366 application of manure compost on the north China plain. China Agricultural
367 research system. 2016;11:146-153.

14. Payam P, Tehranifar A, Nemati H, Llakzian A, Kharrazi M. Effect of
different mulching materials on soil properties under semi-arid conditions in
Northeastern Iran. Wudpecker Journal of Agricultural Research. 2013;2:8085.

Adekiya AO. Legume mulch materials and poultry manure affect soil
properties, and growth and fruit yield of tomato. Agriculturae Conspectus
Scientificus. 2018;83:161-167.

375 16. Ngosong C, Mfombep PM, Njume, AC, Tening, AS. Comparative
 376 advantage of *Tithonia* and *Mucuna* residues for improving tropical soil fertility

and tomato productivity. International Journal of Plant and Soil Science.2016;12:1-13.

Ayeni AO, Lordbanjou DT, Majek BA. *Tithonia diversifolia* (Mexican sunflower) in south-western Nigeria: occurrence and growth habit. Weed
germination and growth inhibitory sesquiterpene lactone and a flavone from *Tithonia diversifolia* phytochemistry. Research University of Oxford. 1997;36:
29-36.

Boureima S, Diouf M, Diop TA, Diatta M, Leye EM, Ndiaye F, Seck D.
Effect of *Arbuscular mycorrhiza* inoculation on the growth and the
development of sesame (*Sesamum indicum* L.). African Journal of Agricultural
Research. 2007;3:234-238.

388 19. Olabode OS, Ogunyemi S, Akanbi WB, Adesina GO, Babajide PA.
389 Evaluation of *Tithonia diversifolia* (Hemsi). A gray for soil improvement. World
390 Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 2007;3:503-507.

391 20. Agbede TM, Afolabi LA. Soil fertility improvement potentials of Mexican
392 sunflower (*Tithonia diversifolia*) and siam weed (*Chromolaena odorata*) using
393 okra as test crop. Archives of Applied Science Research. 2014;6:42-47.

Jama B, Palm CA, Buresh RJ, Niang A, Gachengo C, Nziguheba G,
Amadalo B. *Tithonia diversifolia* as a green manure for soil fertility
improvement in western Kenya: A review. Agroforestry systems. 2000;49:201221.

398 22. Ojeniyi SO, Odedina SA, Agbede TM. Soil productivity improving 399 attributes of Mexican sunflower (*Tithonia diversifolia*) and siam weed

400 (*Chromolaena odorata*). Emirates Journal of Food and Agriculture. 401 2012;24:243-247.

- 402 **23.** Proctor J, Ian DE, Robert WP, Laszlo N. Zonation of forest vegetation and
- soils of Mount Cameroon, West Africa. Plant Ecology. 2007;192:251-269.
- 404 **24.** Manga VE, Agyingi CM, Suh CE. Trace element soil quality status of Mt.
- 405 Cameroon soils. Advances in Geology. 2014;8:894-103.
- 406 25. Payton RW. Ecology, altitudinal zonation and conservation of tropical
 407 rainforest of Mount Cameroon. Final Project-Report R4600, ODA, London.
 408 1993.
- 409 26. Fraser PJ, Hall JB, Healing JR. Climate of the Mount Cameroon Region,
- 410 long and medium term rainfall, temperature and sunshine data. School of
- 411 Agricultural and Forest Sciences, University of Wales Bangor, MCP-LBG,
- 412 Limbe. 1998;56.
- 413 **27.** Kalra YP, Maynard DG. Methods manual for forest soil and plant analysis,
- 414 Northwest Region. Information Report NOR-X319. 1991.
- 415 28. Benton J, Jones Jr. Laboratory guide for conducting soil tests and plant
 416 analysis, CRC Press, Boca Raton, London, New York, Washington, D.C.
 417 2001.
- 418 **29.** Bremner JM, Mulvaney CS. Total nitrogen In: Black CA, (Ed.) Methods of
- 419 soil analysis. Part 2, Agronomy 9. American Society of Agronomy Inc.
- 420 Madison, Wisconsin. 1982;1149-1178.

421 **30.** Walkley A, Black IA. An examination of the detjareff method for 422 determining soil organic matter and a proposed modification to the chromic 423 acid titration method. Soil Science. 1934;37:29-38.

- 424 **31.** StatSoft. STATISTICA 9. 1 for Windows. StatSoft Inc., Tusla, USA. 2010.
- 425 **32.** Landon JR. Booker tropical soil manual. Longman Scientific and Technical
- 426 Essex, UK. 1991;474.
- 427 33. Li L, Yang T, Redden R, He W, Zong X. Soil fertility map for food legumes
 428 production areas in China. Scientific Reports. 2016;6:26102.
- 429 **34.** Liasu MO, Ogundare AO, Ologunde MO. Effect of soil supplementation 430 with fortified Tithonia mulch and directly applied inorganic fertilizer on growth 431 and development of potted okra plants. American-Eurasian Journal of 432 sustainable Agriculture. 2008;2:264-270.
- 433 35. Odhiambo JJO. Decomposition and nitrogen release by green manure
 434 legume residue in different soil types. African Journal of Agricultural
 435 Research. 2010;5:90-96.

436 36. Olatunji OO, Oyediran GO, Kolawole GO, Obi JC, Ige DV, Akinremi OO.
437 Phosphate sorption capacity of some tropical soils on basement complex of
438 southwestern Nigeria. International Journal of Current Research. 2012;4:17439 20.

A40 37. Nziguheba G, Palm CA, Buresh RJ, Smithson PC. Soil phosphorus
fractions and adsorption as affected by organic and inorganic sources. Plant
and Soil. 1998;247:159-168.

443 38. Laboski CAM, Lamb JA. Changes in soil test phosphorus concentration
444 after application of manure or fertilizer. Soil Science Society of America
445 Journal. 2003;67:544-554.

39. Spychaj-Fabisiak E, Dlugosz J, Zamorski R. The effect of the phosphorus
dosage and incubation time on the process of retarding available phosphorus
forms in a sandy soil. Polish Journal of Soil Science. 2005;38:23-30.

449 40. Torres-Dorante, LO, Norbert C, Bernd S, Hans-Werner O. Fertilizer-use
450 efficiency of different inorganic polyphosphate sources: effects on soil P
451 availability and plant P acquisition during early growth of corn. Journal of Plant
452 Nutrition and Soil Science. 2006;169:509-266.

453 41. Boukcim H, Pages L, Mousain D. Local NO3- or NH4+ supply modifies
454 the root system architecture of *Cedrus atlantica* seedlings grown in a split root
455 device. Journal of Plant Physiology. 2006;163:1293-1304.

456 42. Agbede TM, Adekiya AO, Ogeh JS. Effects of Chromolena and Tithonia
457 mulches on soil properties, leaf nutrient composition, growth and yam yield.
458 West African Journal of Applied Ecology. 2013;21:15-29.

459 43. Okunlola AI, Adeona AP. Effects of fertilizer types on the growth, yield and
460 pigment concentration of black nightshade (*Solanum nigrum*) in Southwestern
461 Nigeria. International Journal of Research in Agriculture and Forestry.
462 2016;3:12-16.

463 44. Yengoh GT. Determinants of yield differences in small-scale food crop
464 farming systems in Cameroon. Agriculture and Food Security. 2012;1:19.

- 465
- 466
- 467

- 468 Table 1. A baseline soil physicochemical properties of the experimental site
- 469 before treatments; **B** effect of treatments (control no fertilizer, urea, NPK
- 470 and *Tithonia*) on soil physicochemical properties (Mean ± SD).

<u>A</u>													
	Moisture [%]	Organic carbon [%]	Total nitrogen [%]	C/N	pH [H ₂ O]	pH [KCI]	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
В	-												_
Treatments	Moisture [%]	Organic carbon [%]	Total nitrogen [%]	C/N	pH [H₂O]	pH [KCI]	Sodium [cmol/kg]	Potassium [cmol/kg]	Magnesium [cmol/kg]	Calcium [cmol/kg]	Aluminium [cmol/kg]	ECEC [cmol/kg]	
Control	17.2 ± 1.8a	2.5 ± 0.3a	0.14 ± 0.02a	18.3 ± 3.8a	4.9 ± 0.5a	4.4 ± 0.2a	0.19 ± 0.11a	0.52 ± 0.22a	1.6 ± 0.5a	4.5 ± 1.0a	0.56 ± 0.37a	7.3 ± 1.2a	
Urea	16.3 ± 1.8a	2.8 ± 0.4a	0.13 ± 0.02a	22.3 ± 4.8a	4.5 ± 0.2a	4.1 ± 0.1a	0.11 ± 0.11a	0.30 ± 0.13a	1.4 ± 0.3a	3.4 ± 1.4a	1.13 ± 0.47a	6.3 ± 1.5a	
NPK	16.4 ± 1.3a	2.4 ± 0.2a	0.14 ± 0.01a	17.3 ± 4.1a	4.6 ± 0.3a	4.2 ± 0.1a	0.21 ± 0.12a	0.49 ± 0.13a	1.9 ± 0.9a	4.7 ± 1.3a	0.92 ± 0.51a	8.3 ± 1.6a	
Tithonia	15.5 ± 0.5a	2.4 ± 0.3a	0.16 ± 0.01a	15.0 + 2.7a	4.8 + 0.4a	4.3 + 0.1a	0.23 + 0.14a	0.36 + 0.10a	1.7 + 0.6a	47+11a	0.71 + 0.39a	7.8 + 1.2a	

- 472 Values within columns with the same letters are not significantly different (P <
- 473 **0.05**).
- 474

471

- 475 Table 2. Effect of treatments (control no fertilizer, urea, NPK and *Tithonia*)
- 476 on the growth parameters of African nightshade (Mean \pm SD).

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

478 Values within columns with different letters are significantly different ($P \leq$

479 <mark>0.05).</mark>

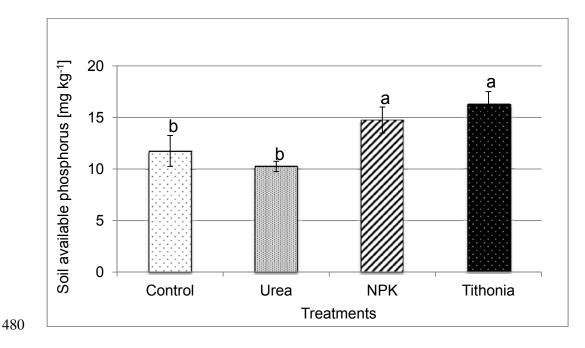
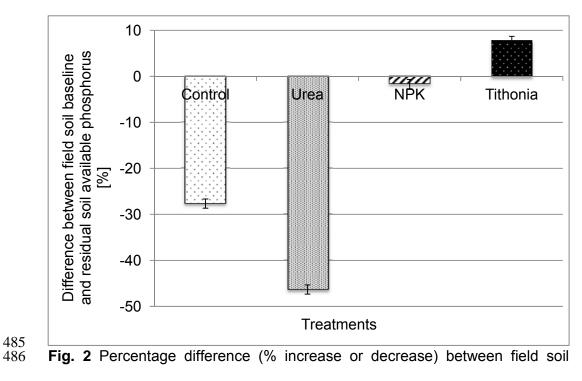
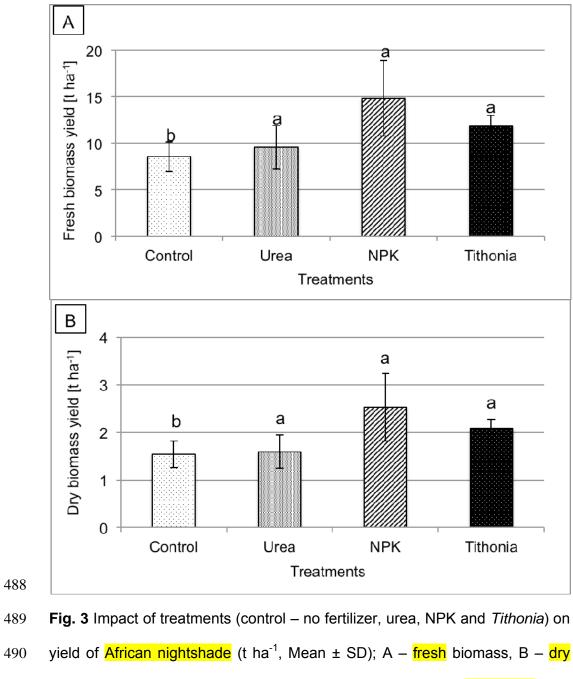


Fig. 1 Effect of treatments (control – no fertilizer, urea, NPK and *Tithonia*) on soil available phosphorus (mg kg⁻¹, Mean ± SD). Values with different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05).







491 biomass. Values with different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05).